SIXTEEN REPUBLICS OF THE SOVIET UNION

by N. MIKHAILOV

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The Soviet Union, the socialist state of workers and peasants, was founded by Lenin and Stalin.

It is an entirely new type of state, unlike any which had previously existed in the history of mankind. It was born of the victory of the Great October Socialist Revolution of 1917 on the territory of former tsarist Russia.

It is called a socialist state because it has carried into practice the principles of socialism in every field of the life of the people, who are now building the communist society.

It is called a workers' and peasants' state because its society is composed of two working classes—the workers and peasants. It is from the midst of these two classes that the working Soviet intelligentsia, which is actively assisting them in the construction of the new life, has advanced. The other classes—the capitalists, landlords and the rural bourgeoisie (the kulaks)—were completely eliminated from the national economy as a result of the victory of the socialist system.

As far back as 1939, J. V. Stalin, the leader of the socialist State, characterized the distinguishing feature of the Soviet society as follows: "The feature that distinguishes Soviet society today from any capitalist society is that it no longer contains any antagonistic, hostile classes; that the exploiting classes have been eliminated, while the workers, peasants and intellectuals who make up Soviet society live and work in friendly collaboration."

The community of interests and aims of the Soviet people and their solid unanimity are mirrored in the moral and political unity of Soviet society.

All power belongs to the working people of town and country as represented by the Soviets of Working People's Deputies.

This means that the country is governed directly by the working people—by the workers, peasants and intelligentsia—through their deputies elected to the organs of power, the Soviets. The elections to the Soviets are based on universal, equal and direct suffrage by secret ballot.
The highest organ of state power in the USSR is the Supreme Soviet of the USSR. It is elected by the people for a term of four years. What is the composition of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR? The Supreme Soviet of the USSR elected in March 1950 consists of 1,316 deputies, including 418 workers and 269 peasants. The remaining members are intellectuals: scientists, engineers, authors, teachers, actors, composers, artists and civil servants. There are 280 women among the deputies of the Supreme Soviet. Women in the USSR enjoy equal rights with men in every field of economic, political and public life.

No distinctions in political and other rights are made in the Soviet State among workers, peasants and intellectuals or among citizens of different nationalities and races. But the state leadership of society is exercised by the working class, the leading class of society, headed by the Communist (Bolshevik) Party.

The socialist State guarantees to all citizens the right to elect and to be elected to any organ of state power, the right to work, rest, education, maintenance in old age and in case of sickness or disability. The State guarantees to all citizens of the USSR inviolability of person, inviolability of their homes, and privacy of correspondence; it protects their personal property and guarantees freedom of worship. All citizens have the right to unite in public organizations: trade unions, co-operative societies, youth organizations, and sports, cultural, technical and scientific societies. The Constitution of the USSR guarantees to all citizens of the Soviet society freedom of speech, freedom of the press, freedom of assembly, street processions and demonstrations. All these rights and liberties of the citizens of the USSR are made secure through genuine material guarantees based on the entirely new economic foundation of society.

What is the essence of this foundation of the new social system?
"The economic foundation of the USSR," declares Article 4 of the Constitution of the USSR, "is the socialist system of economy and the socialist ownership of the instruments and means of production, firmly established as a result of the liquidation of the capitalist system of economy, the abolition of private ownership of the instruments and means of production, and the elimination of the exploitation of man by man."

This Article of the Constitution declares that all the enormous riches of the country — the land and its mineral wealth, forests, waters, factories, mines, transport and communications facilities, the banks, etc. — are the property of Soviet society as a whole. They belong to the socialist State, which is governed by the working people themselves. And since the working people of the cities and the countryside own the means of production in common
and conduct their national economy without capitalists and landlords, there is not nor can there be any exploitation of man by man in the USSR.

These political and economic achievements of the Soviet people have enabled them to build a united, socialist system of economy. In the Soviet Union the national economy is developed on the basis of a single plan; it grows uninterruptedly because the whole of society is interested in its development.

Economic crises and unemployment do not and cannot occur in the USSR where the entire national income is distributed in the interests of the working people: 75 per cent of the national income is allocated for satisfying the personal material and cultural needs of the working people; 25 per cent of this income remains at the disposal of the State, the collective farms and co-operative organizations and is used for increasing production in accordance with the needs and requirements of Soviet society. The result is a steady improvement in the material well-being of the working people and a constant rise in their demands and purchasing capacity. This in its turn stimulates an increasingly greater expansion of production, which has an unlimited scope for development in the Soviet Union.

The social product is distributed on the basis of the fundamental principle of socialism: "From each according to his ability, to each according to his work." No one in the USSR has the right to live by the labor of others, and no one has the right to compel others to work for him. The Soviet citizen is well rewarded for his labor. Each worker receives remuneration in accordance with the quantity and quality of the labor invested by him in the national economy. The more he produces and the better he works, the greater is his income.

These are the political and economic foundations of the socialist State which have secured these great rights and liberties to all the citizens of the Soviet Union.

* * *

The USSR is a multinational country. The peoples inhabiting it speak more than 100 languages.

More than 50 per cent of the population of the USSR is made up of Russians. The Russian people who number 109,000,000 represent one of the largest nations of the world. One-fifth of the population of the USSR is composed of Ukrainians. Following in size of population are Byelorussians, Uzbeks, Kazakhs, Georgians, and Azerbaijanians. In addition to the big nations, there are many small peoples and nationalities in the USSR, as, for example, the Khante, Mansi, Eskimo and other peoples of the Far North.
All the working people were severely oppressed in tsarist Russia, but the heaviest yoke weighed down upon the working people of the non-Russian nationalities. These peoples were contemptuously called "aliens" by the tsarist officials. They were treated as aliens in their native land. They received less pay for their labor than the Russians, were given very limited opportunity for education or none at all, and were subjected to every kind of humiliation.

Lenin called tsarist Russia a "prison of the peoples." Owing to oppression and subjugation the non-Russian population in tsarist Russia was dwindling in number. As an example, the peoples of the Far North, nomad hunters and fishermen, were rapidly dying out.

The inhabitants of the non-Russian areas of tsarist Russia were almost totally illiterate. Literacy was generally very low in tsarist Russia, particularly among the non-Russian nationalities. Only one out of every five persons was literate in prerevolutionary Russia, but the average among the Kazakhs was only one out of 50, and among the Tajiks one out of 200. Many peoples did not even possess a written language of their own.

The working people were deliberately kept in darkness and ignorance by the tsarist Government in order to make their exploitation easier. Tsarism dreaded the progress of culture in the national areas, since it knew that the higher the level of the political consciousness of the people the stronger would be their resistance to oppression.

Despite the oppression which kept them in a state of backwardness, the working people of Russia conducted an unceasing struggle against tsarism and capitalism. The non-Russian and Russian working people realizing that they were confronted by a common enemy fought shoulder to shoulder in this struggle. Thus, for example, in the 18th century when the poverty-stricken Russians of the Volga area under the leadership of Emelyan Pugachev rebelled against the existing regime, they were joined by the Bashkirs.

The Russian working class, the most revolutionary working class in the world, with its vanguard, the Communist Party founded by Lenin and Stalin, became the leader and teacher of all the nationalities of Russia in the struggle against tsarism and capitalism.

During the Great October Socialist Revolution of 1917, the armed insurrection of the Russian workers, soldiers and poor peasants received the support of the working people of all the nationalities of Russia. Russians, Ukrainians, Georgians, Armenians, Uzbeks, Kazakhs, Tatars — all the peoples of Russia — fought hand in hand in the struggle for a Soviet government. This unity in the common struggle was one of the most important prerequisites for the victory of the Revolution.
The Great October Socialist Revolution brought freedom to the oppressed peoples of Russia. Soon after the October Revolution, the Soviet Government published the Declaration of Rights of the Peoples of Russia which was signed by Lenin and Stalin. In this declaration, which was drawn up by Stalin, the Soviet Government formulated the principles of its national policy. The Soviet people called this policy the Lenin-Stalin national policy.

The declaration proclaimed the fundamental principles of the Soviet national policy, such as the equality and sovereignty of the peoples of Russia; the right of the peoples of Russia to free self-determination including the right to secede and form independent states, should they so desire; the abolition of all types of national and national-religious privileges and restrictions; and freedom of development for the national minorities and ethnic groups inhabiting the territory of Russia.

In a word, freedom of development for the peoples of Russia and their full equality became a law.

From the inception of the Soviet Government until 1923 Stalin was People’s Commissar for the Affairs of the Nationalities, and he personally directed all the measures taken to solve the national problem in the country.

The peoples of liberated Russia understood that only the Soviet Government could make equality and freedom secure for them. They were vitally interested in the consolidation of the Soviet Government. And in order to make the Soviet Government invulnerable, the Soviet peoples had to unite their forces for building up the Soviet State and defending it against all enemies.

Having achieved the right to decide their own destinies, the peoples of Russia who had established a number of national Soviet republics resolved, in their own interest, to unite these republics on a voluntary basis. “Without a state union of the Soviet republics,” said Stalin, “without their unification into a single military and economic power, it is impossible to hold out against the combined forces of world imperialism on either the military or the economic front.”

In accordance with the desire of the peoples, Lenin and Stalin founded the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics in December, 1922.

At that time the Soviet Union was composed of four Soviet Socialist Republics: The Russian Federative, the Ukrainian, Byelorussian and Transcaucasian Federative Republics. The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics has gradually expanded, and it now consists of 16 Soviet Socialist Republics which are united on the basis of a mutual alliance.

This alliance is entirely voluntary.

The voluntary character of the union of the Soviet Republics is ensured by the fact that the union agreement grants to every constituent
republic the right to secede from the USSR at any time. But there have been no instances of any republic desiring to secede from the Soviet Union.

All the constituent republics of the USSR have equal rights. None of the republics enjoys any special privileges.

In accordance with the Constitution of the USSR, any direct or indirect restriction of the rights of any people, or the establishment of any direct or indirect privileges for citizens because of their race or nationality is punishable by law. Any advocacy of racial or national exclusiveness or of hatred and contempt for one or another people is also punished as a crime. Every people is guaranteed the right to an education in its native language.

The very structure of the highest organs of state power in the USSR reflects the equal rights of the Soviet peoples. The Supreme Soviet of the USSR consists of two equal chambers, the Soviet of the Union and the Soviet of Nationalities. The Soviet of the Union is elected in proportion to the general population of the USSR, whereas the Soviet of Nationalities is composed of equal numbers of representatives from each of the Union republics, autonomous republics, autonomous regions and national areas, regardless of the size of their population. This gives every national entity its own representation in the supreme organ of power. For example, the Soviet of Nationalities of the First Supreme Soviet of the USSR was composed of representatives of 54 nationalities. The Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic, the largest in territory and population, has the same number of representatives in the Soviet of Nationalities as any other constituent republic of the Soviet Union.

Joining in one union, the constituent republics voluntarily transferred some of their rights to the USSR. The USSR has the right to represent the entire Union in international relations, to conclude agreements with other states on behalf of the Union, to organize the defense of the USSR, to determine the national-economic plans of the USSR, and to handle other matters affecting the Union as a whole.

Apart from these strictly specified limits, every constituent republic of the Soviet Union enjoys full sovereignty and exercises its state power independently. Every constituent republic of the Union adopts its own constitution, which takes into consideration the specific national features of the respective peoples; it has its own supreme legislative body which decrees laws relating to the jurisdiction of the given republic; it directs public education and has its own military units in the Soviet Army; and it may enter into direct diplomatic relations with foreign states. No changes in territory may be made without the consent of the republic concerned.

Such is the organization of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.
The principal role in the foundation and consolidation of the Soviet Union was played by Stalin. This role was described by V. M. Molotov as follows: "Comrade Stalin has done more than anyone else to create the Soviet Union, whose strength lies in its political unity, from the loosely united Soviet republics, and to draft its first constitution. The foundation was thus laid for the mighty Soviet State based on the great friendship of the Soviet peoples."

The Soviet Union has undergone great changes during the course of its existence. Instead of the backward and weak tsarist Russia there now stands the great and mighty Soviet Power, a country with advanced industry and agriculture and with a highly developed socialist culture.

During the prewar Five-Year Plans (1928 to 1940), the Soviet people, in accordance with the plan outlined by Stalin, effected the socialist industrialization of their country and the collectivization of agriculture. As a result of these great transformations, the level of industrial development in the USSR before the Second World War was greater than that of any other country in Europe. In the prewar year of 1940, the USSR's large-scale industry turned out 12 times as much production as the industry of tsarist Russia in 1913. The output of the machinery and metal industries increased by 41 times in the same period. In 1940, 530,000 tractors, 182,000 harvester combines, and hundreds of thousands of trucks and agricultural machines were used on the fields of the collective and state farms. The total amount of marketable grain produced in 1940 was 38,300,000 tons, 17,000,000 tons more than in 1913, and the cotton crop was 3.5 times the 1913 crop.

The progress of the national economy was accompanied by a great cultural advancement on the part of the Soviet people. In the prewar year of 1940 attendance at colleges and universities in the USSR was greater than the combined attendance in all the countries of Western Europe. Universal, free and compulsory seven-year schooling became effective in the USSR in 1930. Attendance in elementary and secondary schools was 25,000,000 more than in tsarist Russia.

Tremendous changes also took place in every republic of the Soviet Union. An unprecedented upsurge was observed in every Soviet republic. Large-scale industry and mechanized agriculture were developed everywhere and noteworthy cultural progress was made by all the Soviet peoples.

It stands to reason that a single nationality could not have achieved these outstanding successes without the assistance of the other Soviet peoples. The Lenin-Stalin national policy brought not only equality but mutual assistance to the peoples of the USSR.

Mutual assurance among the Soviet republics is not limited to material aid. They also exchange industrial and cultural specialists and share their experiences in socialist construction.
The friendship among the Soviet peoples was brought into particularly bold relief by the Great Patriotic War. The Soviet peoples mobilized all their efforts in order to strengthen the war economy of the USSR, and they fought shoulder to shoulder on the fields of battle in defense of their common Motherland, the Soviet Union. For example, Azerbaijanians serving in the Soviet Army fought against the Hitlerites at the approaches to Moscow, at the walls of Stalingrad and on the fields of the Ukraine. And Azerbaijan, in turn, was heroically defended by Russians, Ukrainians and soldiers of the other nationalities when it was menaced by the enemy hordes.

Every one of the nationalities of the USSR won eternal glory in the battles against the invaders.

The Hitlerites thought that their first blow would shatter the unity of the Soviet Union. But the Soviet peoples knew that their freedom and independence could be preserved only if the Soviet Union continued to exist and prosper. Contrary to the calculations of the enemy, the common danger only served to strengthen the unity of the Soviet peoples. Rallying in closed ranks to the defense of the Soviet Union they defeated the enemy. The whole world was able to see that the multinational Soviet Union is the most stable, the most viable state in the world. Stalin had every basis for declaring: "The Soviet state system proved to be a model of the multinational state . . . The Soviet state system is a system of state organization in which the national problem and the problem of co-operation among nations have been solved better than in any other multinational state."

All the Soviet peoples render fraternal assistance to one another, but the greatest assistance to the other peoples can be and is rendered by the Russian people, the first among the equal Soviet peoples.

As has been stated, the equality of all the peoples of the country before the law was established and given legislative effect as a result of the Great October Socialist Revolution. But this did not yet mean equality in fact. The Revolution found the peoples of Russia at different stages of economic and cultural development. For example, Russian workers were already operating modern machines in the factories of St. Petersburg, Moscow and other cities, while some of the nationalities of Northern Siberia were still using the bow and arrow. Some of the peoples had a rich literature while others had no alphabet or written language.

In order to make the equality of the peoples really complete, it was necessary for the backward peoples to overtake the advanced, and this was the aim of the Lenin-Stalin national policy.

The Russian people, the most advanced in the country, undertook the task of helping the backward peoples.

Capital investments allocated to the backward national areas under
the Five-Year Plans were such as to enable them to achieve a more rapid rate of economic and cultural development than the more advanced central, wholly Russian regions.

The result of this policy of accelerating the pace of development in the formerly backward national borderlands may be illustrated by the following figures. Whereas the gross production of large-scale industry in the USSR averaged 12 times the 1913 volume at the end of 1940, the corresponding increase in the Kazakh SSR was 22.2 times, in the Armenian SSR 22.3 times, in the Georgian SSR 26.4 times, in the Kirghiz SSR 160 times, and in the Tajik SSR 242 times.

It follows that the implementation of the Lenin-Stalin national policy and the fraternal assistance of the great Russian people insured the progress of all the peoples of the USSR.

The USSR made major strides in its economic and cultural advancement during the postwar years 1946 to 1950. During the postwar Five-Year Plan period, despite the heavy damage caused by the Hitlerite invasion, it not only restored the war-ravaged districts and regained the prewar level of production in industry and agriculture, but considerably surpassed this level. Thus, in 1950, at the end of the Five-Year Plan period, the industry of the USSR turned out 73 per cent more production than in the prewar year of 1940. More than 6,000 industrial enterprises were restored or built anew in those years. The gross grain crop in 1950 surpassed the 1940 crop by more than 6,000,000 tons. During the five-year period Soviet agriculture received from industry 536,000 tractors, 93,000 harvester combines and approximately 1,000,000 agricultural machines of different types. The national income in 1950 surpassed the 1940 figure by 64 per cent. The incomes of factory workers, peasants and other employees in 1950 were 62 per cent above the 1940 figure.

In 1950, the regular and technical schools of the USSR had an attendance of 37,000,000. There were 880 institutions of higher learning in the country, or 70 per cent more than before the war, and they had a total enrollment of 1,247,000. These are the results of the peaceful labor of the peoples of the USSR.

Major successes were achieved by every constituent republic of the Soviet Union.

Let us review each Union republic separately.
THE 16 Soviet Republics constituting the USSR are united by the strongest fraternal alliance. Although all the peoples of the Soviet country and all the constituent republics of the USSR enjoy full equality, there is one especially bright star in the great constellation of the Soviet Union republics. This is the republic lovingly called by the Soviet people “the first among equals”—the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic (RSFSR).

The Soviet Union is the largest country in the world. It occupies a vast territory—one-sixth of the habitable area of the globe. The Russian Republic includes more than 75 per cent of this territory—about 6,500,000 square miles. The territory of the Russian Federation is more than twice that of the United States of America. It could encompass about 30 countries of the size of France, the largest country in Western Europe.

Let us glance at a map. In the north, beyond the Arctic Circle, the Russian Republic extends to the grim waters of the Arctic Ocean which are covered with ice floes even during the summer. And in the south, the Russian Republic is washed by the warm waters of the Black Sea, along whose shores palms grow and tangerines ripen.

In the west, the Russian Republic reaches the Baltic Sea, and in the east it touches the Bering Strait, which separates Asia from America. The territory of the Russian Republic is so vast that it takes an express train one and one-half weeks to cross it from west to east.

The Russian Republic is famous for the fertile black soils of its boundless steppes, its rich mineral resources, its forests which are the most extensive in the world and contain excellent timber and valuable furs, and the abundance of fish found in its seas and rivers.

But it is not only because of its great size that the Soviet people call the Russian Republic the first among equals. It is first also because of the size of its population and its political significance. More than 50 per cent of the population of the Soviet Union—amounting to about
109,000,000 persons—live in the Russian Federative Socialist Republic.*

In addition to the Russians, who comprise four-fifths of its population, the Russian Federation is inhabited by many different peoples. There are many Russians who reside in the other republics of the Soviet Union, but the overwhelming majority of them live in the Russian Republic.

The great Russian people are the leading nation in the family of fraternal, fully equal Soviet nations.

In the course of many centuries the Russian people built up and consolidated their national independence. Through the labor of many generations the Russians have cultivated and developed their land, cleared away the forests, plowed the fields, explored the natural wealth of their country, harnessed its rivers and built cities.

The Russian people have built up a great culture. An inestimable contribution to world science, literature and the arts has been made by representatives of the Russian people such as the writers Pushkin, Tolstoy, Gorky, Chekhov and Mayakovskiy; the composers Glinka and Tchaikovsky; the artists Repin and Surikov; the scientists Mendeleyev and Pavlov; and the philosophers Belinsky and Chernyshevskiy.

The Russian people are proud to have given to the general culture of mankind and to the international revolutionary movement its greatest genius—Vladimir Ilyich Lenin.

Lenin and his comrade-in-arms, J. V. Stalin, developed and advanced the teachings of Marx and Engels. They pointed out the ways of struggling for communism, the bright future for mankind. Under the guidance of Lenin and Stalin and under the leadership of the Communist Party founded by them, the peoples of Russia successfully carried through the Great October Socialist Revolution and built socialism, the society which is free from social and national oppression.

The Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic was the first Soviet republic to come into being after the victory of the Great October Socialist Revolution, which overthrew capitalism in Russia. It was the first to establish a Soviet government and to proclaim the equality of all the peoples. It became the model for new relations among peoples and the core around which the new multinational socialist state, the Soviet Union, was formed.

The Russian people rallied the other peoples of the country around themselves. They are rendering tremendous fraternal assistance to these peoples in economic and cultural development and are setting an example for them in the struggle for communism.

*Data on the population of the republics of the Soviet Union are cited from prewar sources.
Stupendous heroic exploits were performed by the Russian people during the years of war against fascist Germany and imperialist Japan. More than 7,000 of the 10,500 Heroes of the Soviet Union are Russians. The Russian Federation played an outstanding role in the defense of the Soviet Union and in supplying the front with all that was necessary for the defeat of the enemy.

Speaking at a reception held in the Kremlin in honor of the commanders of the Soviet Army on May 24, 1945, shortly after the victory over Hitler Germany, Stalin proposed a toast to the health of the Soviet people, and primarily to the health of the Russian people, saying:

"I drink primarily to the health of the Russian people because it is the most outstanding of all the nations that constitute the Soviet Union.

"I drink to the health of the Russian people because, during this war, it has earned universal recognition as the guiding force of the Soviet Union among all the peoples of our country.

"I drink to the health of the Russian people, not only because it is the leading people, but also because it is gifted with a clear mind, a staunch character and patience."

All the peoples of the Soviet Union feel the greatest love and gratitude for the great Russian people.

The RSFSR is a country with a powerful, advanced socialist industry. On the eve of the war it supplied about 75 per cent of the industrial production of the Soviet Union. It is particularly noteworthy for its extensive production of machines, metals, fabrics, timber, and chemicals.

Many major industrial centers of the USSR are situated on the territory of the Russian Republic.

Like the Soviet Union as a whole, the Russian Republic is noted for its exceptionally rapid pace of industrial development. It long ago surpassed the prewar level of output. The principal tasks of the postwar Five-Year Plan were fulfilled ahead of schedule in the RSFSR, as they were in the whole of the Soviet Union.

Agriculture conducted by the collective and state farms of the Russian Republic, as in all the other republics of the Soviet Union, is based on large-scale farming and is the most mechanized in the world. Before the war the Russian Federation cultivated three-fourths of the total area under wheat in the USSR, four-fifths of the area under oats, three-fourths of the long-fiber flax plantations, and seven-tenths of the area under potatoes. The Russian Republic is famous for the Kholmogori and Yaroslavl breeds of cattle, for the new breed of Kostroma cattle, Romanovka sheep, and Orlov and Bashkir horses.
The western districts of the Russian Republic were badly ravaged by the war. Of the total amount of 679,000,000,000 rubles of direct damage caused by the Hitlerites to the Soviet Union, 249,000,000,000 rubles worth of damage, or more than one-third, was suffered by the Russian Republic. Such destruction is unknown in the history of wars. Neither is there anything in history to equal the pace of restoration in the USSR under the postwar Stalin Five-Year Plan.

In the western regions of the Russian Republic, which were ravaged by the war, industry has not only been fully restored but even considerably expanded on the basis of new and improved technique.

The nationwide socialist emulation movement in the Russian Federation for the fulfillment and overfulfillment of the postwar Five-Year Plan brought forward thousands of innovators in industrial and agricultural production and many outstanding representatives of culture. The remarkable innovations of Nikolai Rossiisky, Alexander Chutkikh, Pavel Bykov, Lydia Korabelnikova, Feodor Kovalev, Ivan Shatsky and many other outstanding industrial workers of the Russian Federation brought them nationwide fame. Their experience is being put to use throughout the USSR. It is also being used with gratitude by the workers in the people's democracies.

The productive forces of the Russian Republic and of the other republics of the Soviet Union are growing constantly. Powerful factories, mines and new railways are under construction everywhere.

A significant part of this majestic work of construction, which the Soviet people call "the great Stalin construction works of communism," is being effected in the territory of the RSFSR on the Volga and Don Rivers and in the Crimea. The building of gigantic hydroelectric stations and canals in the USSR, part of a titanic plan for the transformation of nature itself, is being enthusiastically carried out by the Soviet people.

In accordance with this plan, energetic work is under way in the steppes of the Russian Federation with a view to combating drought. Shelter belts now being planted on a vast territory will radically change the climate and appearance of the steppes. From 1948 to 1950 more than 2,000,000 acres were afforested in the steppe, and mixed-forest and-steppe districts of the European part of the RSFSR. The grass-and-crop rotation system of agriculture, the most efficient system, is being adopted in all the arid regions.

The Bolshevik Party, the Soviet Government and Stalin personally display constant concern for the progress and welfare of all the peoples of the Soviet Union. Life in the friendly Soviet family has brought happiness not only to the Russian people, but also to all the
formerly downtrodden peoples inhabiting the territory of tsarist Russia.

Soviet power brought national autonomy and economic and cultural progress to the Yakut, Tatar, Mari, Chuvash, Komi and Bashkir peoples and to all the nationalities inhabiting the Russian Federation. With the fraternal assistance of the Russian people they have been able to overcome their past backwardness.

The RSFSR is a multinational republic. It includes 12 autonomous republics, six autonomous regions and 10 national areas. All these republics, regions and areas have achieved tremendous success in economic and cultural development.

Let us take one of these republics as an example. The Soviet people recently observed the 30th anniversary of the Udmurt Autonomous Republic, which is part of the RSFSR. The Udmurts, a people doomed to extinction in tsarist Russia, received the right of national autonomy as a result of the October Revolution. A rapid increase in the Udmurt population has been observed since that time. In the Soviet period Udmurtia has built up large-scale socialist industry and highly mechanized agriculture which is conducted in the republic by the collective and state farms. Industrial production in Udmurtia has increased to more than 40 times the prerevolutionary level of output. Izhevsk, the capital of the republic, has developed into an important industrial center.

The postwar Five-Year Plan for industry in Udmurtia was fulfilled ahead of schedule, and the cultivated area of the republic was expanded by more than 20 per cent in the five-year period.

Whereas before the Revolution the Udmurts were totally illiterate, the republic now has five institutions of higher learning, 25 specialized secondary schools, and more than 1,500 clubs, libraries and motion-picture theaters.

Equally remarkable economic and cultural progress has been made by the other peoples of the RSFSR. Their life, just as the life of all the Soviet people, is becoming richer and more radiant from day to day. Extensive construction is under way in all the cities and villages of the Russian Republic; not only houses, but new schools, clubs, theaters, libraries, hospitals, sanatoriums and sports stadiums are being built everywhere.

Engrossed in peaceful, constructive labor and in the building of communist society, the Soviet people are conducting a struggle for peace against the instigators of war. In the fraternal family of Soviet peoples, under the leadership of the Bolshevik Party and the guidance of Stalin, the peace-loving Russian people are laboring with might and main in order to build communism in their country within the shortest possible historic period. They are leading all the other peoples throughout the world in the struggle for peace.
The districts of the RSFSR differ in their natural conditions and in their economy. Here is a general picture of the districts of the republic as viewed from west to east.

Situated in the heart of the central district of the RSFSR is Grand Kremlin Palace, the seat of the USSR Supreme Soviet.

Lenin Mausoleum near the Kremlin Wall on the Red Square.
Moscow, the capital of the Soviet Union and of the Russian Federation.

Moscow is the biggest industrial center of the USSR. Before the war it supplied nearly twice the industrial production turned out in 1913 by the whole of tsarist Russia. Since then the volume of production of Moscow's factories and mills has grown 21 times. Moscow alone now supplies one-fifth of the total industrial output of the RSFSR.

Moscow's industry has undergone a great change in the period under Soviet government. The production of textiles predominated in the past, while the metal-working industry lagged behind. Under the Five-Year Plans colossal industrial plants which produce modern machines, precision instruments, electrical equipment and chemicals have been built in the capital.

The program for gross production provided for in the postwar Five-Year Plan was fulfilled by Moscow's industry in less than four years, and Moscow supplied one and one-half times as much production in 1950 as before the war.

The heat and power stations built in Moscow under the prewar Five-Year Plans supply electricity for industrial purposes as well as for heating homes and shops. The USSR leads the world in the use of power stations for heating purposes.

Prerevolutionary Moscow was a congested city with inadequate municipal services. It has changed completely during the Five-Year Plan periods. The general plan for the reconstruction of Moscow, drafted under Stalin's guidance, was adopted in 1935. It preserves the historical circular layout of the city, but provides for radical replanning and reconstruction of the districts and streets. Most of the basic provisions of the 1935 plan have been fulfilled. By decision of the Communist Party and the Soviet Government, a new general plan for the reconstruction of Moscow on a scientific basis over a period of 20 to 25 years is now being prepared.

Many streets of the city have been widened and asphalted; beautiful tall buildings have replaced the small one-story houses. Four hundred school buildings alone have been erected in the capital. New bridges span the Moscow River. The capital has the finest subway in the world, with stations which resemble underground palaces. The Moscow Canal, built on Stalin's initiative connects Moscow with the Volga, and the waters of the great Russian river now flow past the walls of the Kremlin. As a result, Moscow has not only been connected by a deep waterway with the principal river of the country, but has also received an abundant supply of water for the needs of its citizens.

The Saratov-Moscow gas pipe line, more than 500 miles long, carries natural gas from the Volga area to the capital.

Large-scale housing construction is in progress in Moscow. More than 5,000,000 square feet of new housing, 35 per cent more than
The famous State Academic Bolshoi Theater of the Soviet Union.

A section of one of the buildings of the Lenin Library.
in the prewar year of 1940, was made available for habitation in Moscow in 1950, and a total of more than 7,000,000 square feet is being made available in 1951.

Several skyscrapers are being erected in Moscow on the initiative of Stalin. Scheduled for completion in 1951 are the main building of Moscow State University, now being erected on Lenin Hills; a tall building on Smolenskaya Square; and a 32-story apartment house on Kotelchnicheskaya Embankment. The city will also receive a new subway line this year.

Moscow is the principal cultural center of the Soviet Union. It is the seat of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, the largest scientific institution in the country. Moscow is also the seat of world-famous theaters, museums and libraries. People from all over the country come to study in Moscow, and the capital in turn supplies doctors, engineers, teachers and scientists to all parts of the Soviet Union. Many newspapers and books are published in the capital, and there are more than 80 institutions of higher learning.

Moscow is also the political center of the Soviet Union. Envoys of the people come to Moscow to attend the sessions of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR and of the Supreme Soviet of the RSFSR. The Kremlin is the seat of the Soviet Government, which is headed by Joseph Vissarionovich Stalin.

The ancient Kremlin stands in the center of Moscow, overlooking the river. It is surrounded by a jagged red wall and its towers are crowned with five-pointed ruby stars. On Red Square, which stretches past the Kremlin walls, stands the Lenin Mausoleum, the monument to Vladimir Ilyich Lenin, founder of the Communist Party and the Soviet State.

Moscow is the capital of the world's first socialist state. It is the standard-bearer of the new era, the symbol of liberation of all working mankind and of all nations oppressed by capitalist slavery.

Since Moscow is the capital of socialism it is the herald of the struggle for peace and friendship among the nations. All the common people throughout the world look with hope to Moscow, the capital of the peace-loving Power.

Extending around Moscow is the oldest industrial area of Russia, the Moscow, Yaroslavl, Ivanovo, Tula and other regions. Under the Stalin Five-Year Plans this area has become the base for the socialist reconstruction of the entire country.

A great change has taken place in the central industrial area during the Soviet period. In the past it was mainly a producer of fabrics. While fabrics are still produced in great quantity in this area, and particularly in Ivanovo, Yaroslavl, Orekhovo-Zuyevo and Shuya, machine-building
The Dynamo Sports Stadium in Moscow during a soccer game.

Gorky Street, the central thoroughfare of the USSR capital.
and chemical plants have been built under the Stalin Five-Year Plans in Yaroslavl, Podolsk, Shcherbakov (formerly Rybinsk) and in many other cities.

The expansion of industry in the central area created a growing demand for fuel. In the past almost all fuel was brought in from other districts. Coal came from the Donbas and oil from Baku. Today, too, much of the fuel is brought in from afar, but a considerable proportion is produced right in the area from local peat and the lignite deposits in the neighborhood of Tula.

In 1941 the Moscow coal basin fell into the hands of the fascist invaders and was badly damaged by them, but the Hitlerites were rapidly ousted from the area and the mines were restored. The basin is now supplying three times as much coal as before the war. The miners of the Moscow basin fulfilled the postwar Five-Year Plan in less than three years.

In order to increase the supply of electric power in the central area, hydroelectric stations were built on the Volga, near Ivankovo, Uglich and Shcherbakov during the Stalin Five-Year Plan periods. They supply electricity to the Moscow power system, which is one of the largest in Europe.

The collective and state farms of the area supply vegetables, potatoes, milk and other foods for the large urban population.

Let us glance now at the western regions of the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic.

The podsol* soils and mild humid summers of Smolensk, Kalinin, Pskov, Nogorod and other regions in the western part of the RSFSR are favorable for the cultivation of flax. There are more flax plantations in this part of the republic than there are in the whole of Western Europe.

Both the sowing and processing of flax have been mechanized to a considerable extent during the Soviet period. There are machines for planting, pulling and scutching the flax, and recently a flax combine was invented.

The western regions of the RSFSR are producers of timber, woolen cloth, railway cars and textiles.

The cities and villages of the western regions of the RSFSR supply a greater amount of production than before the war. Hundreds of thousands of new homes have been built in the villages since the war.

In the northwestern part of the RSFSR, where the Neva discharges its waters into the Gulf of Finland, stands Leningrad, the cradle of the Great October Socialist Revolution.

* A gray or white ash-like soil, typically occurring in northern Russia. The name is from the Russian word for "salt."
Leningrad is one of the principal ports of the Soviet Union. It is also an important industrial center with many factories, mills and shipyards which produce a large variety of modern machines and seagoing ships. Leningrad also has many factories of light industry which produce high quality fabrics, shoes and knit goods.

Leningrad’s industry is well staffed with skilled workers and expert engineers. During the Stalin Five-Year Plan periods it made an immense contribution to the success of the struggle for the economic independence of the Soviet Union. The factories of Leningrad were the first to master advanced technique and to supply the country with modern machinery and superior products. For example, the first tractor, the first turbogenerator and the first gigantic blooming mill in the USSR were all built in Leningrad.

Leningrad is an outstanding cultural center. It has many priceless museums, about 50 institutions of higher learning and 150 institutions for scientific research.

During the war the fascist invaders tried to strangle this great city with the bony hand of hunger and to compel it to surrender. Its spirit unbroken by the most trying conditions of blockade and incessant bombardment, Leningrad continued the heroic struggle. The enemy forces at the walls of Leningrad were routed by the Soviet Army.

Leningrad has now been restored. All its factories and mills were functioning by 1946, and their technical level is higher now than before the war. Leningrad is developing into an important center of technical progress in the USSR.

Now let us glance at the far north of the European part of the RSFSR. Vast expanses in this area are covered with dense pine forests. The Archangel, Vologda and Kirov Regions and the Komi Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic are situated there.

The north is noted for its timber industry. Electric saws are now used in the lumber camps where the axe and ordinary handsaw predominated in the past. Horses are no longer used for carrying the timber to the rivers for rafting. Today it is efficiently transported along the new forest roads by tractors and by rail.

Powerful timber mills have been built at many points, especially at the mouths of the rivers used for rafting, or in places where the railways extend to the rivers. These mills supply plywood, paper, wooden tubes, insulating plates, turpentine and resin.

The mining industry was developed in the north of the RSFSR during the Stalin Five-Year Plan periods and the war years.

Culture in the north has made great progress. Before the Revolution there were only seven hospitals, one drugstore and five doctors on the territory now occupied by the Komi ASSR. Today the republic
has 365 medical institutions and more than 2,000 doctors and other medical workers. The number of doctors in the Komi ASSR has more than doubled during the postwar five-year period.

Situated on the Kola Peninsula, beyond the Arctic Circle, is the Murmansk Region, where in summer the sun does not set for several weeks, and in winter the aurora borealis shines through the long Arctic night for weeks on end.

This far-off territory was a wild and almost uninhabited region before the October Revolution. Only under Soviet government did real life come to it with the beginning of industrialization. The mining of apatites was begun in the heart of the Khibiny Mountains and a new city, Kirovsk, was built there. Hydroelectric stations were built on the rivers. Agriculture was introduced beyond the Arctic Circle. The big city and port of Murmansk has developed on the coast of the Barents Sea which is kept free of ice by the Gulf Stream. The fishing industry occupies a prominent place in the region.

In the Far North. A hunter in the Nenets National Area.

South of Moscow lies the so-called Central Black-Earth Area — the Kursk, Orel, Voronezh and Tambov Regions. The area is a hilly plain with black soils.

Before the Revolution it was dominated by landlords who owned the bulk of the fertile tracts and leased plots to the land-hungry peasants under enslaving conditions. With the meager plots of land at their disposal the peasants who tilled the soil with primitive implements could barely make ends meet. The land received very little fer-
tilizer and the crop yields were low. Industry was practically nil in the
territory.

These regions have undergone a complete transformation under
Soviet government: their prosperous collective farms use the most
modern methods of cultivation, tractors and harvester combines,
fertilizers, and correct rotations of fodder grasses with industrial crops.
Where the land was formerly broken up into tiny strips and the peasant
in fiber shoes walked behind his wooden plow, the fields now extend
in wide, unbroken expanses with towering grain elevators and silos,
the new buildings of the machine and tractor stations, big state and
collective farms, and fine motor roads. Schools, nurseries and kinder-
gartens have been built in the villages.

Large-scale production of food and machinery has been developed
in the cities.

In the South. A view of the city of Yalta on the Black Sea.

The biggest city in the Central Black-Earth Area is Voronezh. It
is noteworthy for its machine-building and food industries. The city
was ruined by the Hitlerites, but it has been recalled to life, and
large-scale restoration is under way there.

The southern regions of the RSFSR border on the lower reaches
of the Volga River and the Caspian Sea. Between the Caspian and
Azov Seas lies a vast plain, which rises in the south, running up the
Caucasian mountain range. The Krasnodar and Stavropol Territories
and the Rostov and Grozny Regions are situated there. The area
is noted for its fertile soils and warm climate. Wheat, corn and sunflowers are raised there on a large scale. Orchards, melon plantations and vineyards extend around the rich collective farm villages. In the eastern part of North Caucasus, where precipitation is low and agriculture must be conducted with the aid of irrigation, huge pastures provide excellent grazing grounds for the great herds of the collective and state farms.

The hydrotechnical system built in the arid territory of Stavropol has completely changed its appearance. A canal built during the postwar Five-Year Plan period discharges a part of the water from the Kuban River into the Yegorlyk (a tributary of the Manych which flows into the Don). Water from the Kuban is directed to the north from the dam at Nevinnomyssk along the canal. Flowing through a tunnel built in the elevated divide, the canal carries water from one river basin to another and irrigates hundreds of thousands of acres.

The construction of the Volga-Don Canal will make it possible to irrigate a vast area along the banks of the Don in the Rostov Region.

In the southwest of the RSFSR, the Krasnodar Territory extends to the Black Sea. Under Soviet power large-scale cultivation of subtropical plants has been launched in the Sochi area. Tea and fruit are grown there.

The south of the RSFSR is rich in mineral deposits, which have furnished the basis for large-scale industry. Coal is mined in the Rostov Region where the eastern extremity of the Donbas extends from the Ukraine. The territories along the Caucasian mountain range are rich in oil. Machinery and processing industries have been developed on a large scale during the Soviet period in Rostov, Krasnodar and other cities. Before the war the Rostov Tractor Plant supplied more agricultural machines than the whole of prerevolutionary Russia.

Rostov stands on the Don River, not far from the point where the river discharges its waters into the Sea of Azov. This populous southern city was badly ravaged by the Hitlerites, but it has already been rebuilt. The agricultural machinery plant is functioning again. It turns out more harvester combines than before the war.

The Krasnodar Territory includes the Adygei Autonomous Region within its borders. The Adygei people cultivate wheat and tobacco and raise thoroughbred Kabardinian horses. The center of the autonomous region is the city of Maikop.

Situated in the Stavropol Territory is the Cherkess Autonomous Region. The Cherkess people cultivate wheat, corn and fruit, and livestock breeding is widespread in the mountain pastures of the south. Big slaughter houses and refrigerators as well as modern flour mills have been built in the Cherkess Region in Soviet times. The railway line has been extended to Cherkessk, the center of the region.
Situated on the northern slopes of the Caucasus Mountains are the North Ossetian, Kabardinian and Daghestan Autonomous Republics of the RSFSR. Every one of these republics has a densely populated agricultural area in the foothills and a sparsely populated highland area where livestock farming is predominant.

At the foothills in the Kabardinian ASSR lie fertile soils with extensive plantations of wheat, corn and sunflowers, big fruit orchards and new irrigation canals. The herds of the collective farms graze in the pastures on the mountain slopes. There are mines in the mountains, and a hydroelectric station on the Baksan River, all built during Soviet years. The enterprises destroyed by the Hitlerites have been restored thanks to the heroic labor of the Soviet people. The capital of the republic is Nalchik.

An advanced agriculture has been developed in the North Ossetian ASSR; the leading crop in the republic is corn. The rich pastures in the mountains are favorable for livestock breeding. There are big modern enterprises in Dzoudzhikau, the capital of the republic.

More than 30 nationalities inhabit the comparatively small territory of the Daghestan ASSR: the Avar, Lezghin, Andi, Laki and others. The mountains there are rocky and almost impassable. There were no roads in Daghestan before the advent of Soviet government. Livestock farming and handicrafts are widespread in the mountains of Daghestan. Hydroelectric power plants have been built on the tempestuous rivers. Orchards are numerous in the foothills. Apples and cherries are processed by the new canneries. Corn, wheat and cotton, which have found a new home in Daghestan, are grown in irrigated fields in the valleys. Oil is produced on the Caspian coast. The capital of the republic is Makhachkala.

Under the tsarist regime, the peoples of the Caucasus lived in poverty, oppressed by the double yoke of the tsarist autocracy and the local princes. The Great October Socialist Revolution brought freedom to the peoples of the Caucasus. With the aid of the great Russian people they rebuilt their economy and their whole life along socialist lines.

The healthful climate and mineral springs of the Caucasus have enabled the Soviet Government to turn the region into a health resort area for the people. Hundreds of thousands of Soviet workers, peasants and intellectuals annually come to Sochi, Kislovodsk and other health resorts for rest and treatment.

The second most important health resort area of the Soviet Union is the Crimean peninsula, where many sanatoriums and rest homes are situated on the northern Black Sea coast. Wheat and cotton are raised in the steppes in the north of the Crimea where the climate is more arid; fruit orchards are cultivated in the mountain valleys in the
south. In the extreme south, right on the coast adjoining the steep Crimean mountain slopes, which protect the coast from the northern winds, lies a region of remarkable health resorts, tobacco plantations and vineyards.

The region was badly ravaged and plundered by the fascist invaders. The Hitlerites ruined 109 out of 164 Crimean sanatoriums. These have now been restored and new sanatoriums have been built there.

The time is not far off when the North Crimean Canal will be completed in the steppes of the Crimea. It will carry water from the Dnieper to the fields of the region. Water will forever banish drought from the Crimean steppes and supply a powerful impetus to the further development of agriculture.

Let us now transfer our glance eastward, toward the Volga. Situated in the middle and lower Volga areas are the regions of Gorky, Ulyanovsk, Kuibyshev, Saratov, Stalingrad and Astrakhan, and the Mari, Chuvash, Tatar and Mordovian Autonomous Republics, all of which are part of the RSFSR. There are stretches of forest in the north of the Volga area, while the vast steppes in the south form a semi-desert in the neighborhood of the Caspian Sea.

The Volga is the most important inland waterway of the Soviet Union. Timber is rafted downstream, while tugboats towing barges loaded with Caucasian oil sail up the river.

Heavy industry was insignificant in the Volga area before the Revolution, but powerful industry especially for the production of machinery, has been developed there in Soviet years. Noteworthy progress has also been made by the wood processing, food and textile industries. A chain of big factories extends all along the banks of the Volga. Rich fisheries have been developed on the northern coast of the Caspian Sea.

The natural wealth of the Volga area was inadequately explored in the past and was considered unimportant. Important natural resources, especially of oil and gas, have been discovered there, in recent times.

The climate in the southern portion of the Volga area is arid. With the aid of the State, the collective farms of this area are conducting a persistent struggle against drought. They are planting windbreaks in the fields and huge state shelter belts are being set out along the banks of the Volga.

A noteworthy feature of industry in the Volga area is its rapid rate of development: Many big factories are under construction there. The output of oil is increasing in the local oil fields.

The cities of the Volga area have grown greatly in Soviet years. Gorky, which stands at the confluence of the Oka and Volga Rivers, has become a very important industrial center. Machine tools, ships, radio
equipment and many other products are supplied by the new and rebuilt factories of the city. The Molotov Auto Plant of Gorky is one of the largest of its kind in Europe.

Kuibyshev too has grown rapidly in Soviet years. Big machinery plants have been built in this city.

A foundry of the Krasny Oktyabr Metallurgical Plant, Stalingrad.

Extensive construction, which has no precedent for its scope, is under way in the neighborhood of Kuibyshev, where the Kuibyshev Hydroelectric Station, the biggest in the world, is being built on the Volga.

The station will have a capacity of about 2,000,000 kilowatts. It will supply electricity to Kuibyshev, Saratov and Moscow. Some of the electric power will be used for irrigating 2,500,000 acres of land in the Volga area. It will also be used for the electrification of the railways. This construction is to be completed in 1955, when the hydroelectric station will be operating at full capacity.

Industry was built up on a large scale under the prewar Stalin Five-Year Plans in Stalingrad, its most outstanding colossus being the Stalingrad Tractor Plant. Stalingrad has developed into one of the biggest industrial centers of the USSR. In 1920 the city had a population of 90,000, and before the Second World War it had reached 500,000.

Stalingrad and its industry were ruined during the war. After ousting the enemy, the Soviet people restored the city within a short time at the cost of tremendous effort. By 1949 Stalingrad’s industry
had already surpassed the prewar level of production. Its population
is now almost up to the prewar mark.

Stalingrad has won world fame as a symbol of the military glory
and heroic labor of the Soviet people. It was there that the Soviet
Army under Stalin's leadership dealt a decisive defeat to the invading
Hitlerite army.

The construction now in progress at Stalingrad affords a most
vivid illustration of the faith of the Soviet people in peace and of
their confidence in their power to safeguard the peace. The gigantic
Stalingrad Hydroelectric Station under construction in the neighbor¬
hood of the city is to begin full-capacity production in 1956.

The capacity of the Stalingrad Hydroelectric Station will be
1,700,000 kilowatts, only slightly smaller than that of the Kuibyshev
Station. It will generate as much electricity as the Kuibyshev Station —
about 10,000,000,000 kilowatt hours a year with average rainfall.

This tremendous amount of electric power will be used for various
purposes. More than half of it will be transmitted along high tension
lines to Moscow and to the regions of the Central Black-Earth Area.
A portion will be used for meeting the demands of industry in the
lower Volga area and for the irrigation of the arid districts in the
Caspian lowland.

The deserts and semi-deserts of the Caspian district aggravate
drought conditions in the Volga area. This situation will be changed
when the Stalingrad Hydroelectric Station is completed. It will trans¬
form the nature of the Caspian area.

The Main Stalingrad Canal, which will extend for hundreds of
miles along the left bank of the Volga, will be as deep as the Oka
River. It will carry water from the Stalingrad Reservoir for the irriga¬
tion of over 14,500,000 acres of arid land between the Volga and
Ural Rivers.

With the electricity supplied by the Stalingrad Station 3,700,000
acres will be irrigated to the north of this canal.

Water from the Volga will also be conducted to the area reaching
out from the right bank of the river. Electricity supplied by the hydro¬
electric station will pump water from the Volga to the now shallow
Sarpa lakes, to be used for the irrigation of millions of acres to the
south of Stalingrad, in the arid Sarpa lowland, Black Land and Nogaisk
Steppe. These territories extend toward the Caucasus in the south,
where the waters of the Terek River will also be used for irrigation.

The irrigation of these territories, by means of the electric power
supplied by the Stalingrad Station, will create favorable conditions
for field and animal husbandry. Agricultural production will be highly
mechanized, and electric plowing will be widely used. Vast tracts of
forest and shelter belts will change the climate of a tremendous area.
The world’s greatest hydroelectric stations—at Kuibyshev and Stalingrad—will generate 10 times as much electricity as all the power stations of prerevolutionary Russia. They will make it possible not only to meet the growing demands of the capital city of Moscow, but also to irrigate 34,594,000 acres of arid land—an area equal to the combined territories of Holland, Belgium, Denmark, and Switzerland.

A navigation canal 62 miles long is being built in the neighborhood of Stalingrad, between the Volga and Don Rivers. The new waterway will soon connect the Volga area with the southern districts of the RSFSR. This will complete the large scale project for construction and reconstruction of waterways launched by the Soviet Government for the purpose of connecting the White, Baltic and Caspian with the Azov and Black Seas. All the seas of the European part of the USSR will thus be linked into a single navigable system.

It is a task of nationwide importance, but this does not exhaust the significance of this greatest construction project of our time. It will bring into being a powerful network of irrigation canals which will supply water to the semi-desert and arid districts of Stalingrad and Rostov Regions of the RSFSR.

A section of the construction work on the Volga-Don Canal.

Several autonomous republics of the RSFSR are situated in the Volga area: the Mari, Chuvash, Tatar and Mordovian Republics. Timber is produced and processed in the Mari Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic which supplies raw materials for sawmills and woodworking plants. Of late the republic has also developed the production of machinery. The capital of the republic is Yoshkar-Ola.
Agriculture in the republic is based on collective farming. Tractors are used in the fields of the collective and state farms. The republic has raised the level of literacy of its population to 100 per cent. Soviet power has brought national autonomy as well as economic and cultural progress to the Mari people.

Progress has also come to the Chuvash ASSR, where big woodworking, machine-building and light industry enterprises have been built. The capital of the republic, Cheboksary, has grown.

The progress attained by Chuvashia, where total illiteracy prevailed before the Revolution, may be illustrated by one example: little Chuvashia is now spending nearly 500,000 rubles a day on education.

Large-scale industry has also been built up during Soviet years in the Tatar ASSR. The new factories of Kazan, capital of Soviet Tataria, supply a most varied assortment of products. Tataria now has an oil industry. Its industrial output has increased one and one-half times under the postwar Five-Year Plan.

Before the Revolution, Tatar villages were notorious for their poverty. Now, thousands of tractors are in use on the fields of the collective farms of Tataria; the cultivated area of the republic has been expanded, the crop yields have grown, and there has been a tremendous improvement in the standard of living of the population.

Kazan is one of the most important scientific centers of the Soviet Union. It is the seat of a branch of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR.

People from the midst of the Tatar population have been educated and have become doctors, engineers, technicians and other specialists. Before the Revolution only Russians attended Kazan University. Only six Tatars received an education in this university in a period of more than 100 years before the Revolution. Now, thousands of Tatars attend the university and other higher schools.

Prerevolutionary Mordovia was a domain of the landlords. The output of crops harvested by the peasants in this region was the lowest in tsarist Russia. Equipped with modern machines, the collective farms of the Mordovian ASSR have completely transformed agriculture. The cultivation of industrial crops has furnished the basis for the development of industry, mainly in Saransk, the capital of the republic. There are starch factories and hemp mills. The production of timber is being steadily advanced. There has been a manifold increase in industrial production in Mordovia under the Stalin Five-Year Plans.

An idea of the cultural progress in this republic may be gathered from the following comparison: there was not a single theater in Mordovia before the Revolution, whereas today the republic has a drama theater, an opera and ballet theater, a collective-farm theater, a puppet theater, and many motion-picture theaters in town and country.
Situated to the east, on the boundary between Europe and Asia in the neighborhood of the Urals, are the Molotov, Sverdlovsk, Cheliabinsk and Chkalov Regions and the Bashkir and Udmurt Autonomous Republics of the RSFSR.

The low, sloping Ural Mountains extend in a long belt from the Arctic Ocean to Kazakhstan. No other place in the world is as rich in mineral deposits as this ancient mountain range. Deposits of excellent ores extend along its entire length. Copper ore and bauxites are found at many points, and there are considerable deposits of potassium, sulphur, asbestos, oil, gold, chromium and nickel. The platinum and precious stones of the Urals — emeralds, amethysts, jasper, malachites, crystal, and topaz — are famous throughout the world. The Urals represent a combination of wealth that cannot be found in any other country.

But the Urals lack coal suitable for the production of metal. Charcoal was used there for the production of pig iron before the Revolution, and technical progress was very slow.

Matters have radically changed under Soviet power. During the Five-Year Plans the Urals have developed into a powerful center of modern industry.

In 1918, Lenin wrote: "The Russian Soviet Republic is in a favorable position inasmuch as it possesses . . . gigantic deposits of ore in the Urals and coal in Western Siberia . . . The mining of this natural wealth with the latest technical methods will furnish the foundation for the unprecedented progress of the productive forces." Lenin’s behests were carried into practice by Stalin during the Five-Year Plan periods.

In 1930, Stalin emphasized that while doing everything to promote the development of the USSR’s primary coal and metal base in the Ukraine, it would be necessary to establish a second coal and metal base in the east — the Ural-Kuznetsk combination, which would make use of the Kuznetsk coking coal and Ural ores. The Urals thus became the main link in the Ural-Kuznetsk system.

The Urals are rich in iron ore but comparatively poor in coal suitable for metallurgy. The Kuznetsk Basin of Western Siberia, on the other hand, is rich in coal. Its deposits contain five times as much coal as the Donbas, and this coal is noted for its superior quality. Steps were taken to ship ore from the Urals to the Kuznetsk Basin and coal from Kuznetsk to the Urals. Colossal plants were built at both junctions during the Five-Year Plan periods — in the Urals at Magnitogorsk and Nizhni Tagil and in the Kuznetsk Basin at Stalinsk. Since then metal has been produced from Ural ores and Siberian coal.

The Urals produce not only iron and steel, but also non-ferrous metals and various types of machinery. Big electric stations supply power to the factories. A chemical industry has also been built up there.
The Soviet Government has converted the Urals into a first-class industrial district. At the beginning of the Third Five-Year Plan period it supplied nearly nine times as much industrial production as before the Revolution.

The Urals were the main arsenal of the Soviet Union during the war years. The rapid development of the Urals before the war was due to Stalin's foresight. At the beginning of the war the region was strong enough to receive and put into operation hundreds of factories removed from the districts threatened with invasion by the Hitlerites. Despite wartime difficulties, new shops were added, new plants were assembled and industrial settlements were built in the Urals. At the end of the war the volume of industrial production in the Urals was nearly four times the prewar level.

The economic development of the industrial center created in the Urals by Stalin's genius has been continuing at a rapid rate since the war. The output of pig iron, steel and rolled metal in the Urals in 1950 was nearly three times the 1940 volume. But the factories of the Urals are now working not for war, but for peace.

The most important cities of the Urals are Sverdlovsk, Cheliabinsk and Molotov. In Soviet years, these cities have undergone a complete change, together with the entire region.

Sverdlovsk is situated in the central part of the Urals, on the eastern side of the range. It is a most important industrial center. The famous machine-building colossus situated in that city now produces equipment for metallurgical and other plants. It supplies such machines
as gigantic mobile excavators, each of which does the work of 7,000 diggers.

Sverdlovsk has many schools of higher learning and scientific institutions, fine theaters and museums. Its streets are lined with tall modern buildings. It is also the seat of the Urals branch of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR.

Cheliabinsk stands on the Siberian side of the southern portion of the Ural range. A small trading town before the Revolution, it has now developed into a very important industrial center. The world’s largest plant for the production of caterpillar tractors is situated in that city. Coal is mined in the neighborhood of Cheliabinsk and big power stations have been built there.

The city of Molotov, on the Kama River, is situated in the northern section of the Urals, on the western side of the range. It is a center of large-scale machinery and timber production. The city now has seven institutions of higher learning, whereas there was only one before the Revolution.

Soviet government has created favorable conditions for the development of the autonomous republics in the Urals.

The Bashkirian ASSR has become an important industrial area. Its capital, Ufa, has developed into a big industrial center. Bashkiria produces metal, machines, electrical equipment and chemicals. Minerals are mined and processed at many points of the republic. Oil has been discovered there during the Soviet period. Under the postwar Five-Year Plan the production of oil in Bashkiria increased more than twofold. The production plan has been surpassed.

The victory of collectivization opened unlimited possibilities for the development of agriculture in Bashkiria. In the past it was mainly a grain-growing region. Increasing prominence is now being given to the cultivation of fodder grasses, sunflowers and sugar beets. Agricultural processes have been mechanized.

Under Soviet government the Bashkir people have acquired a written language, and for the first time in their history they have a literature in their native language. Institutions of higher learning have been opened in the republic. The Bashkirians have developed hundreds of excellent organizers, economic executives, statesmen and cultural workers from among their people.

The similar noteworthy successes of the Udmurt ASSR in the economic and cultural field have already been described.

In the vast expanses extending from the Urals to the Yenisei River lies Western Siberia. It includes the Novosibirsk, Kemerovo, Omsk and other regions and the Altai Territory.
The West Siberian plain is one of the biggest lowlands on the globe. The Siberian Railway cuts across this plain from west to east, and the great river Ob and its tributary the Irtysh flow from south to north.

The vast expanses of the West Siberian lowland are divided into several climatic zones: in the far north, near the Arctic coast, lies the tundra; to the south of it is the thick and swampy taiga which extends almost up to the Siberian Railway; farther south, extending along the railway, is a mixed forest and steppe area with black soils and birch groves among cultivated fields; and, lastly, the unbroken steppe which stretches up to the Altai Mountains.

Before the October Revolution, Western Siberia was a neglected hinterland. Its natural wealth was haphazardly worked and largely untapped. There was scarcely any industry in the cities. Only dairy farming, and particularly creameries, had made some headway in the southern districts.

The Soviet Government has completely transformed Western Siberia. Its rapid economic development is connected with the growth of the Urals-Kuznetsk coal and metal combination brought into being on Stalin's initiative.

The Kuznetsk Basin is now the main industrial district of Western Siberia, but before the Revolution the coal output in Kuznetsk was negligible. It has increased greatly under the Stalin Five-Year Plans.

The Kuznetsk Basin also has metallurgical and chemical industries and power stations. New cities have been built there — Stalinsk, Anzhero-Sudjensk, Leninsk, Prokopyevsk, and the regional center of Kemerovo.

The iron and steel mills of the eastern districts of the USSR now supply two and one-half times as much rolled metal as before the war. More than twice as much coal as before the war is now being mined in the Urals, at Kuznetsk, and in the other basins of the east.

Industry has been making progress not only in the Kuznetsk Basin, but also in the other cities and districts of Western Siberia. An example is the big tractor plant built at Rubtsovsk in the Altai Territory.

Agriculture has also been well advanced in Western Siberia under Soviet power. It has become a highly mechanized, efficient socialist agriculture, based on large-scale farming.

The most important city of Western Siberia is Novosibirsk. It stands at the crossing of the Ob River and the Siberian Railway. Under the Five-Year Plans Novosibirsk has developed into one of the biggest industrial centers of the USSR, with not only machine-building plants, but light industry and food-processing factories.

Novosibirsk is also the cultural center of Western Siberia.

The progress of culture in Novosibirsk may be easily shown. In
this city, at a distance of 1,800 miles from Moscow, one can see opera and ballet in an opera house which is larger than the Bolshoi Theater of the capital. There are numerous dramatic performances in Red Torch Theater, the children’s theater, and the regional dramatic and puppet theater, to say nothing of the performances in the palaces of culture and workers’ clubs. Novosibirsk is the seat of the West Siberian Branch of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR and its numerous research institutes. It has many institutions of higher learning, and the literary magazine *Sibirskie Ogni* is published there. If we consider all these facts, we can see clearly how the Soviet Government has transformed the old Siberia of prisons and hard labor, and to what a lofty cultural plane it has raised the region.

The Altai Territory includes within its boundaries the Gorno-Altaisk Autonomous Region. In the past the Altai highlanders were nomads, following their herds from place to place in the mountains and valleys. They lived in cone-shaped tents built of poles and bark. Now they lead a settled existence and live in well-built houses. The collective farmers are cultivating the gardens and fields around the new villages. Their national culture is being advanced.

Situated beyond the Yenisei River is East Siberia, which includes Krasnoyarsk Territory, the Irkutsk and Chita Regions, the Tuva Autonomous Region, the Yakut ASSR and the Buryat Mongolian ASSR.

The territory of East Siberia is greater than the whole of Western Europe.

The highland territory of East Siberia is in the main covered by the taiga. The climatic conditions of the region are rigorous. The summers are warm, but the winters are the coldest in the world.

There was barely any industry in East Siberia before the Revolution. A wild, neglected region then, it was used only as a place for imprisonment and exile.

Under Soviet power, the natural wealth of East Siberia has been utilized with the aid of modern technique. The rivers are no longer the only means of communication in the vast territory of Siberia, which has airlines and new roads suitable for motor traffic. The rich mineral deposits of the region are being explored and tapped.

East Siberia is a source of much gold and other valuable metals. Its mining industry has been mechanized. Machines formerly brought in from other regions are now produced on the spot. The production of such complicated machines as locomotives and harvester combines has gotten under way of late in East Siberia.

Valuable furs represent one of the sources of wealth in East Siberia. The State supplies hunters with improved hunting and trapping equipment.

Timber and wood-processing industries have developed there.
The new city of Igarka has been built in the lower Yenisei area, beyond the Arctic Circle.

The economic and cultural development of East Siberia has been facilitated by its proximity to the second great coal and metal base of the USSR—the Ural-Kuznetsk combination—and by the Northern Sea Route developed during the Soviet period, which runs past the northern shores of Siberia.

Of great significance is the economic and cultural advancement of the national autonomous republics and regions in East Siberia.

In the past the Buryat-Mongolians lived in felt tents. Their cattle were kept out of doors, even in winter. The plantations were insignificant. Industry was nonexistent, and the population was almost totally illiterate.

Under Soviet government the Buryat-Mongolians received national autonomy. They formed the Buryat Mongolian Autonomous Republic within the RSFSR and rapidly advanced their economy and culture.

Buryat-Mongolia is one of the most important livestock breeding regions of the Soviet Union. Dairy cattle, horses and sheep are raised there. With the transition of the Buryat-Mongolians to a settled existence, vast tracts of virgin land have been brought under cultivation around the new settlements.

Ulan-Ude, the capital of the republic, has a number of big industrial enterprises. A sugar refinery has been built in the republic and the production of woolen cloth has been established there.

National culture has made rapid progress among the Buryat-Mongolians. Several institutions of higher learning have been opened. The Buryat-Mongolians now have their own engineers, doctors, composers, actors, writers and scientists.

A new life has also been built in far-off Yakutia, which was brutally exploited in the past. The Yakut ASSR, primarily a fur supplier in the old days, now supplies gold, coal and large quantities of other minerals. Agriculture is being promoted there. The Yakut people now have a written language. National culture is being rapidly advanced in the republic whose cultural center, Yakutsk, is the capital of the republic. The Academy of Sciences of the USSR has a special branch at Yakutsk.

The Krasnoyarsk Territory includes the Khakass Autonomous Region whose capital is Abakan. This region is an important supplier of wheat, timber, iron and manganese ores, and coal. The Khakass raise horses and sheep on the collective farms and they work in the new industrial enterprises.

At the sources of the Yenisei River, in East Siberia, lies the Tuva Autonomous Region. It is a country of wooded hills, level steppes
and swift rivers. Cattle graze on the steppes and in highland pastures. The herds are growing steadily and scientific methods of livestock farming are rapidly becoming widespread. The mining, leather and timber industries are also increasing their production.

National culture is being rapidly advanced. Books are published in the Tuvinian language, and a theater has been founded in the region. The capital of the autonomous region is Kyzyl.

Extending for more than 2,500 miles along the Pacific coast from Vladivostok in the south to Chukotka in the north is the Soviet Far East, the Khabarovsk and Primorye Territories and the Amur Region. The spurs of the taiga mountains cut across the Far East. The winters are cold there, and the summers warm and humid.

The Far East possesses great natural wealth, but before the Revolution this wealth was untapped or used rapaciously.

The tremendous construction launched in the Far East in Soviet years has completely changed the region. The Soviet Government has built up large-scale industry with advanced technique. Even before the war, industry accounted for 75 per cent of the total production of the region.

The fishing industry of the Far East has become a large-scale mechanized undertaking. Fish processing plants and canneries have been built there. Tremendous headway has been made by the timber industry which has been equipped with modern machines. The mining industry too has been modernized and advanced.

New industries have been launched in the Far East along with the reconstruction of the old ones. The Soviet Far East now has large-scale metallurgical, machinery and shipbuilding industries. Oil is produced at Sakhalin.

Agriculture in the Far East has also undergone a complete transformation under Soviet government. New areas have been brought under cultivation. Land is being reclaimed for agriculture from the swamps and the taiga and farming processes have been mechanized.

The Soviet Far East is rapidly building up its own industry and agriculture. Steps have been taken to promote every field of the economy.

Situated in the Far East within the boundaries of the Khabarovsk Territory is the Jewish Autonomous Region, formed under Soviet government. With the aid of the Soviet State, collective farms were organized to cultivate the vast tracts of fertile land in the inadequately developed districts on the Amur River. The region has also developed timber and light industries. The center of the autonomous region is the new city of Birobidzhan.

The most important cities of the Soviet Far East are Khabarovsk and Vladivostok.
Khabarovsk, which stands in the middle Amur area, has developed during Soviet years into an important industrial center with excellently equipped factories.

Vladivostok is situated on the Pacific coast, at the terminus of the Siberian Railway. It is the principal Soviet port on the Pacific and a big industrial center.

A striking embodiment of constructive labor is Komsomolsk-on-Amur, the "city of youth," built on Stalin's initiative.

Twenty years ago, there was only a small fishermen's settlement in the taiga, on the bank of the Amur where the city now stands. At present it is a city with big factories, wide streets and cultural institutions. Komsomolsk-on-Amur has become one of the largest cities in the Far East.

In the Pacific Ocean are the Island of Sakhalin and the Kuriles. Their territory is covered with forests and contains rich mineral deposits, and the waters are rich in fish.

The southern part of Sakhalin and the Kuriles, the territories of Russia for ages, were held by the Japanese for a long time. These territories isolated the Soviet Union from the Pacific Ocean and were used as a base for Japanese aggression against the Soviet Far East. After the defeat of imperialist Japan, Southern Sakhalin and the Kurile Islands returned to the Soviet Union. They no longer isolate the USSR from the ocean, but, on the contrary, connect it with the Pacific and provide it with a free outlet to the sea.

Rapid construction is now under way on Southern Sakhalin and in the Kuriles. These places are now inhabited by Soviet people. Settlements are being built there and the local industries are being expanded.

Southern Sakhalin and the Kuriles, which are part of the RSFSR, supply the Soviet country with fish, timber, paper and sulphur.

The Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic, holding first place in a family of equal nations, furnishes a glowing example of the miracle of constructive labor that can be accomplished by a people liberated from exploitation and oppression. In the fraternal and solidly united community of Soviet republics, the Russian Federation is deservedly regarded as the leading and directing force. United around it are all the nationalities of the Soviet Union, which, under its leadership, are engaged in building a communist society.
Soviet Ukraine lies in the southwest of the USSR, north of the Black Sea. It is one of the largest states in the world. Next to the Russian Soviet Federation, the Soviet Ukraine is the biggest state in Europe, with a territory of about 223,000 square miles.

The Ukraine has a population of more than 40,000,000. The size of its population and its economic might make the Ukrainian SSR one of the leading republics of the Soviet Union, second only to the RSFSR.

Government building in Kiev, the capital of the Ukrainian SSR.

The Ukrainians are one of the largest Slav nations. They have a rich history and a highly developed culture. The Ukrainians are close kinsmen of the fraternal Russian people. The great Russian people
helped the Ukrainians to free themselves from the Polish gentry and the Turkish sultans, and later (in 1918), from the German imperialists. They helped the Ukrainians to establish Soviet government and to convert their country into a powerful state.

Until recently a section of the Ukrainians lived outside the Ukrainian state. Under Soviet government, the territories inhabited by Ukrainians but included within the boundaries of Poland, Romania and Czechoslovakia were restored to the Soviet Ukraine. For the first time in their history the Ukrainians were united in a single state. They owe this to the Stalin policy of the Soviet Government.

The Ukraine has very rich natural resources. The fertile black soils of the Ukrainian steppes combined with the warm climate afford favorable conditions for raising bumper crops. The Ukraine contains rich deposits of coal, iron ore, manganese, oil, salt and other minerals.

The mineral deposits of the Ukraine are not only rich and varied, but they represent an exceptionally favorable combination for the development of metallurgical production, the foundation of heavy industry. Donbas coal is suitable for the production of good coke, and a comparatively short distance away, west of the Donbas, are the rich iron ore deposits of Krivoi Rog. In addition to coke and iron ore metallurgical production also requires manganese, which is available close by at Nikopol on the Dnieper, and limestone, which is likewise found right in the Donbas. Most of the metal-producing districts of the world lack one or another essential raw material — coal, iron ore, manganese or limestone — which ordinarily has to be brought in from afar. The Ukraine has all these materials in tremendous amounts.

Despite this unusual natural wealth, the Ukraine was a backward country before the October Revolution. Its mining industries were largely owned by foreign capitalists.

Before the Revolution many Ukrainians were driven by poverty to emigrate to the United States and Canada. The workers and collective farmers of the Ukraine lead a prosperous life today, and no one has any desire to leave his homeland. The large-scale construction now under way in all parts of the Ukraine demands ever greater numbers of workers.

A first-rate industry with all branches of production has been developed in the Ukraine under Soviet government. Before the Second World War, the Ukraine, which occupies one-fortieth of the territory of the Soviet Union and contains one-fifth of its population, supplied half of the total production of coal, about two-thirds of the pig iron, one-sixth of the machines and about three-quarters of the sugar produced in the USSR.

The Ukraine was badly devastated by the Hitlerites, but so great is the creative power of the Soviet people that as a result of the realiza-
tion of the postwar Five-Year Plan the national economy of the Ukraine has been restored and raised to a higher technical level than before the war. Its development continues at a rapid rate. At the end of 1950, gross industrial output in the Ukrainian SSR was 15 per cent above the prewar level.

Not only has the Ukraine restored the industry which existed before the war, but it has launched new branches of production in postwar year, such as the production of gas, lignite, ball bearings, automobiles, and motorcycles. A number of big plants have been built for the production of building materials.

The Ukrainian people were able to achieve all this thanks to the fraternal assistance of the other Soviet peoples, and primarily of the great Russian people.

The most important industrial district of the Ukraine is the Donets Coal Basin, known as the Donbas. Its industrial might may be compared with that of the Ruhr or Pennsylvania. Pitheads with revolving wheels on top are in evidence everywhere, as well as black cones of earth near the mines. There are huge blocks of machine-building and chemical plants. Now and then one comes across big steel mills. Flames and smoke rise over the furnaces, there is a maze of rails and overhead cables, and the air is filled with the incessant din of machines.

The Hitlerites ruined the Donbas, thinking that it would take many years to restore it. They reduced the factories to heaps of debris and flooded the mines.

In order to restore the coal mining industry of the Donbas it was necessary to pump 171,600,000,000 gallons of water from the mines, roughly equivalent to draining a lake 30 feet deep with an area of 27 square miles. In order to revive the Donbas it was necessary to restore more than 1,500 miles of jammed pits, which was the same as cutting and reinforcing a tunnel extending from the White to the Black Sea, or from New Orleans to Salt Lake City.

The Soviet people performed a heroic exploit not only at the fighting front by ousting the invaders from the Donbas, but also on the labor front by restoring the Donbas so rapidly that at the end of 1949 it had already regained the prewar level of coal production. Raised from the ruins, the Donbas now supplies far more coal than before the war, and its output is considerably in excess of the provisions of the Five-Year Plan.

Not only coal mining, but all the other industries have been restored in the Donbas. The metallurgical industry in the south of the USSR, for example, which was also completely ruined during the war, has been restored and technically improved, with a result that it supplies more metal than before the war.

The revived Donbas is now mightier than before the enemy
invasion. It is being furnished with equipment hitherto unknown in mining. A mining combine, designed and built in the Soviet Union, is becoming the principal machine in the mines of the Donbas. This coal combine makes it possible to mechanize all the mining processes. It obviates the need for the arduous labor of the miner and converts the mine into an underground factory.

Work goes swiftly in the mines where all processes have been mechanized. The combine moves with a roar over the coal face brightly illuminated by a searchlight. With one grip it cuts away a yard and one-half of coal, and it also does the hewing and loading. Cars loaded with coal and pulled by an electric engine move in an incessant stream from the combine toward the hoist. When the coal reaches the surface, it moves toward the bins and is dumped into railway cars. All these processes are automatic.

In addition to combines, coal-shoving and ground-loading machines, daylight lamps and mechanical propping are used in the mines of the Donbas.

The Ukraine has a large-scale machine-building industry which was developed almost entirely under Soviet government.

Despite the tremendous damage caused in the Ukraine by the Hitlerites, the republic now has more machinery plants than before the war.

Ukrainian industry supplies many types of machines ranging from heavy blooming mills, locomotives and tractors, to precision instruments which require less metal but very skilled labor power.

As in the rest of the Soviet Union, industry in the Ukraine has a very powerful electrical base. There are many big power stations, among them the Lenin Hydroelectric Station on the Dnieper, the biggest in Europe. This station, destroyed during the war, has now been restored by the Soviet people.

Before the construction of this station, navigation on the Dnieper was hindered by rapids. When the Dnieper station was built, the level of the river was raised high above the rapids, making the Dnieper suitable for navigation along its entire course.

The Dnieper station alone generated more electricity before the war than all the stations of tsarist Russia.

By decision of the Soviet Government, construction of another hydroelectric station has been launched at Kakhovka, south of the Dnieper Hydroelectric Station. Canals to be built in this area will carry water to the steppes, irrigating almost 3,000,000 acres of land in the Ukraine and supplying water to a considerable territory. It will make possible the extensive planting of wheat and cotton in the now arid steppes of southern Ukraine. Livestock farming will be promoted in this area, and the very nature of the southern part of
The Ukraine will be changed after the hydroelectric station is completed.

The western regions of the Ukraine, which were but recently reunited with the Ukrainian SSR, are also making rapid economic and cultural progress.

Agriculture in the Ukraine embraces various branches of husbandry.

The Ukraine is one of the principal granaries of the Soviet Union. It supplies tremendous quantities of food and agricultural raw materials for industry.

A small part of the republic in the north lies in the non-black earth area with podsol soils. This section of the Ukraine is known as Polessye. It resembles in nature the central districts of the RSFSR. Pine forests and oak groves alternate with flax, hemp and potato fields.

To the south of Kiev the forests gradually pass into the mixed forest-and-steppe area. There are vast fields of black soil alternating with comparatively small groves. The forest-and-steppe area of the Ukraine is warmer and has more moisture than any other section of the black earth belt of the USSR. The summer is long and warm except in the extreme southeast, and precipitation is ample. This part of the Ukraine is very densely populated. It has vast plantations of wheat and sugar beet. There are many refineries in the sugar beet growing area. The Ukrainian SSR is the leading sugar producer in the Soviet Union.
The mixed forest-and-steppe area is the type of Ukrainian landscape most often depicted in literature and paintings. The white homes of the collective farm villages nestle among cherry orchards and tall, stately poplars.

Further south, closer to the Black Sea, the forests disappear altogether. Only recently have young, newly planted shelter belts appeared in this district. These steppes likewise contain fertile black soil which, in the extreme south, passes into almost equally fertile reddish brown soil. The climate in the steppes is more arid than in the mixed forest-and-steppe area; the district suffers frequent drought, against which a determined struggle is now under way. Wheat and barley are grown in the vast expanses of the steppe.

Ukrainian agriculture was also badly ravaged by the Hitlerites, but the collective and state farms of the republic have rapidly recovered from the effects of the enemy invasion. The Ukraine is now harvesting more grain than before the war.

New crops have been adopted for cultivation in the Ukraine. The rubber-bearing plant kok-sagyz is becoming widespread. Considerable areas are planted with cotton, whose northern boundary has been extended to this district. Subtropical plants, and lemons in particular, have been successfully cultivated in recent years in the southern part of the Ukraine.

Many Ukrainian villages burned by the fascists are now being rebuilt in accordance with new architectural plans. But construction is not limited to the ruined villages. The Ukrainian villages are being rebuilt everywhere, and a veritable army of architects and engineers is engaged in village planning.

The "classical" whitewashed Ukrainian peasant huts with straw-thatched roofs, earthen floors and tiny windows are vanishing. They are being replaced by three and four room houses with tile roofs, porches and electric lights.

In addition to housing construction, there is extensive construction of schools, clubs, motion-picture theaters, hospitals, dining halls, radio centers, sports stadiums, telephone and telegraph exchanges, bath houses and laundries. More than a million homes have been built or restored in the villages of the Ukraine in the past few years.

The Ukraine has many cities, the most important among them being Kiev, Odessa, Kharkov and Lvov.

Kiev, the capital of the Ukrainian SSR, is one of the oldest and most beautiful cities of the Soviet Union. It stands on tall hills on the right bank of the Dnieper, and also partly extends to the left bank. There are many parks on the hill slopes, and chestnut trees grow along the sidewalks.

Many remarkable buildings and new plants were erected in Kiev
before the war. While remaining the principal center of Ukrainian light industry, Kiev also developed heavy industry.

Frightful devastation was caused there by the Hitlerites. Entire streets, particularly in the center of the city, were reduced to ruins.

The city is now being rapidly restored. Tall, modern houses are being erected. The bridges over the Dnieper have been rebuilt. There is a beautiful summer theater overlooking the river. A park has been laid out on the left bank, and a belt of fruit orchards is being planted around the city.

Extensive reclamation is under way in the swampy valley of the Irpen River not far from Kiev. New settlements are being built in this area, and truck gardening will be developed there on a large scale to supply vegetables for Kiev.

After the war a gas pipeline 310 miles long was built from the Carpathian foothills to Kiev in order to provide good, cheap fuel for household use and for industry in the Ukrainian capital.

Kiev has once again become a well-appointed city, the center of the free Ukrainian culture.

Odessa stands on the Black Sea coast. It is an important port and cultural center. The city is also known as an excellent health resort. The Hitlerites destroyed many buildings and ruined industry in Odessa, but restoration has practically wiped away the traces of destruction.

Kharkov, one of the biggest cities in the Ukraine, is an important machine-building center. It has likewise been rapidly restored. Kharkov now produces more tractors than before the war.
Lvov is the largest city in the regions of the Ukraine formerly annexed by gentry-ridden Poland and boyar-ruled Romania and reunited with the Ukrainian SSR in 1939. Under the postwar Five-Year Plan the city has developed into an important industrial center.

The most significant among the other cities of the Ukraine are Stalino, Dnepropetrovsk, Zaporozhye and Zhdanov.

In the extreme west of the Ukraine lies the so-called Transcarpathian Ukraine which was reunited with Soviet Ukraine as recently as 1945.

Magyar barons, Austrian officials and German landlords tried in vain to kill the national consciousness of the Transcarpathian Ukrainians. For nearly 1,000 years the Ukrainians in this region cherished the dream of reunion with their Motherland. With heroic persistence they preserved their national traditions and their native language. To the great joy of the population, this region is now part of the Ukrainian SSR.

The land in the region has been turned over to the working peasants, who have formed collective farms. Industry is being expanded there. Schools, libraries and clubs have been opened in the towns and villages of the Transcarpathian Ukraine, and a university has been founded at Uzhgorod.

Culture, national in form and socialist in content, has made great progress in the Ukrainian SSR.

Before the October Revolution, there were no scientific-research institutions in the Ukraine, whereas at present the republic has a vast
network of institutions conducting scientific research. They are now more numerous than they were before the war. There are scientific institutions at Kiev, Odessa, Dnepropetrovsk, Stalino, Kharkov and other cities. Kiev is the seat of the Academy of Sciences of the Ukrainian SSR.

Although nearly all the schools in the cities and villages of the Ukraine were burned or wrecked by the Hitlerites, the Ukraine has more schools today than before the enemy invasion. College attendance in the Ukraine is also greater than before the war. Kharkov alone has as many students as the whole of Great Britain.

The Soviet system has furnished unlimited possibilities for the advancement of the people in the Ukraine.

Let us take the Ukrainian collective farmers, for example. The Ukrainian peasants were almost totally illiterate before the Revolution. Their interests were confined to their own strips of land.

Today we find many Ukrainian collective farmers who have written books describing their agricultural achievements for the benefit of the entire country.

The Ukrainian collective farmer, Mark Ozerny, harvests more than 8 tons of maize per acre. The average yield of maize in the Ukraine in the past was from two to three tons. This Soviet peasant not only raised the yield of maize to a record figure, but also wrote a book describing new methods for cultivating this crop.

The team headed by Mark Ozerny includes 11 young women. The oldest of this group had not turned 21 when Mark Ozerny wrote his book. All these young women received a secondary education. This is now a matter of course in the Ukrainian village.

A book about her life was published by Pasha Angelina, the famous Ukrainian tractor driver who was the first woman tractor driver.

Feodor Dubkovetsky, chairman of the Zdobutok Zhovtyna Collective Farm, which has built a hydroelectric station in the village and accomplished the electrification of the farming processes, also wrote a book about his experiences.

Before the war, Marina Gnatenko, an ordinary collective farm woman at the time, gained fame as an expert in raising record crops of sugar beet in the Ukraine. Since then she has received a college education and has become a research worker in the Sugar Beet Research Institute of the USSR.

The advancement of the Ukrainian people and of their culture is a guarantee of the future progress of the Soviet republics.
Byelorussian SSR

Soviet Byelorussia lies on the western border of the USSR. The Byelorussian Republic is a highly developed Slav state. Its territory (about 80,000 square miles) is only slightly smaller than that of Great Britain.

Its population (more than 9,000,000) and its economic might make Byelorussia one of the leading republics of the Soviet Union. It is exceeded only by the RSFSR and the Ukraine.

Byelorussia was a backward hinterland of tsarist Russia. The Great October Socialist Revolution opened the road to progress for the eastern section of Byelorussia, which became part of the Soviet Union. Lenin and Stalin were the founders of the Byelorussian state.

Western Byelorussia however, remained an impoverished colony of old Poland for two decades more. It merely changed masters substituting the Polish gentry for the Russian tsars.

The Byelorussian regions formerly in the hands of Poland are now part of the Byelorussian SSR. The final Soviet-Polish boundary was fixed in accordance with the agreement between the USSR and the people’s new democratic Poland, and the Byelorussians are now united in one national state.

Large-scale industry was developed under the prewar Five-Year Plans in Byelorussia which had practically no industry in the past. Its factories and mills now produce plywood, matches and paper from Byelorussian timber; fabrics from Byelorussian flax; and shoes and glass from other local materials. Raw materials from other regions of the Soviet Union were supplied for the new machinery plants, garment factories and knitting mills.

Handicraftsmen from the small towns of Byelorussia work in these factories along with newly trained skilled workers. In the past the skilled handicraftsmen were frequently condemned to unemployment and lived in hunger and poverty in the congested towns. The Soviet Government industrialized the country, eliminated unemployment and raised the living standards of the working people of Byelorussia.
Tremendous devastation was wrought by the Hitlerites in Byelorussia. Immediately after the expulsion of the invaders, the Byelorussians, with the assistance of all the Soviet people, undertook the restoration of their economy. The scope of these efforts may be illustrated by the following comparison: the capital investments in Byelorussia’s national economy under the postwar Five-Year Plan were one and one-half times the combined investments made under all the prewar Five-Year Plans.

Byelorussia’s industry, which was ruined by the Hitlerites, has now been restored and raised to a higher technical level than before the war. Industrial output between 1945 and the end of 1950 increased nearly sixfold, considerably surpassing the volume of production attained in the prewar year of 1940.

The principal industrial center of Byelorussia is Minsk, the capital of the republic. The retreating Hitlerites reduced the city to a heap of rubble. A visitor to the Byelorussian capital now encounters new buildings as soon as he gets off the train. A new railway station has been built, tall buildings are under construction on the square in front of the station, and the restored buildings of the university campus rise not far away.

The main thoroughfare, Sovetskaya Ulitsa, has been widened to nearly 50 yards and asphalted. Among the new buildings on this street are apartment houses for the weavers, machine-building workers and cultural workers of the capital, and a big department store. A palace of culture is under construction. At every step one sees workers laying foundations, erecting walls, finishing façades, paving streets and planting trees.

Sidorenko, Bulakhov, Kozhemyakin, and other bricklayers have won distinction in Minsk. They are competing with the builders of Moscow, Stalingrad and other cities.

The opera house of Minsk, now completely restored, is more beautiful than before. In the Central Square of the revived city stands a monument to Yanka Kupala, people’s poet of Byelorussia.

The factories of Minsk have also been restored, and industry in the Byelorussian capital now supplies more production than before the war.

In the suburbs, where there was nothing in tsarist times but country inns and forests, one now sees big new factories with blocks of new apartment houses around them. These districts are veritable towns in themselves.

We see that along with the restoration and reconstruction of the old factories, Byelorussia has built new enterprises and developed new branches of production.

The example of Minsk shows how the Byelorussian people, with
the assistance of the great Russian people, have converted their republic into an industrial country. In places where light industry predominated in the past, machine building is now becoming more important.

Industry is also growing in all the other cities of Byelorussia. Gomel, for example, is developing once more into a big industrial center. The city had grown considerably during the prewar Five-Year Plan periods, but it was badly damaged by the enemy. Restored Gomel is again supplying a varied assortment of industrial production, and its factories are working at full capacity.

The other cities of Byelorussia — Vitebsk, Orsha, Moghilev, Borisov — have also been rehabilitated. The production of matches at Borisov, for example, long ago surpassed the prewar volume. New, complicated branches of production, particularly of pianos, have been launched there.

Industry is also growing in the western regions of Byelorussia. Mills for the production of fine woolens have been built at Grodno.

The collective and state farms of Byelorussia emphasize the cultivation of flax and potatoes and the breeding of pigs.

Agriculture in Byelorussia has been rapidly recovering from the ravages caused by the Hitlerite invasion. Within a short time the collective farmers of Byelorussia cleared away the devastation left by the war and successfully restored the collective farms. The number of tractors in operation is already greater than in the prewar year of 1940.

Progress of Byelorussian agriculture may be well illustrated by
the example of Polessye, which occupies most of the south of the Byelorussian republic. It is a swampy lowland with slow, winding rivers. Pine forests grow on sandy hills surrounded by swamps. There are many lakes with swampy shores overgrown with rush. The spring floods convert the swamps into a vast stretch of water and the villages became "sand islets." The people travel by boat from one village to another.

Polessye used to be a dreadful district. It was the most impoverished section of old Byelorussia. Nothing was available there but meager rush and bast for peasant shoes. The native of Polessye, with the festering *plica polonica* on his head, forever suffered hunger and want.

Extensive stretches of the swamps have been reclaimed for agriculture under Soviet government. Vast fields of the collective and state farms, with numerous canals, now stretch in their place. Flax, fodder grasses, vegetables and the rubber-bearing kok-sagyzy (a new crop in Byelorussia) are now grown in former peat bogs and swamps. Before the war the collective farmers of Polessye were awarded many Gold and Silver Medals at the All-Union Agricultural exhibition for high crop yields raised on the reclaimed swamps. The *plica polonica* disappeared from Polessye when poverty was banished.

Quite recently the Presidium of the Academy of Sciences of the Byelorussian SSR held a session in Mozyr, the center of Polessye. Reports on the agriculture of Polessye were delivered by academicians as well as by collective farmers. They had many achievements to report. Collective farmers Yevdokia Kukharova and Tamara Shkurko, for example, raised more than a ton of rye per acre on the Polessye soils and were honored with the highest award in the Soviet Union, the title of Hero of Socialist Labor.

The well-known Byelorussian Michurinite, Shevchuk, raised new varieties of grapes in Polessye where they had been completely unknown in the past.

More than 500,000 acres of swampland have already been converted into fertile tracts in Byelorussia, but the swamps still occupy a considerable area. The war interfered with the realization of the plan adopted on the initiative of Stalin for the complete reclamation of the swamps in Polessye. A plan is now being prepared for a general offensive on the Polessye swamps. It is proposed to reclaim more than 10,000,000 acres of land. The land at the disposal of the collective and state farms will be increased by one-third.

The appearance of the Byelorussian village is changing. Traveling through Byelorussia one sees new homes at every step, where

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*A disease of the hair in which it becomes twisted and matted together; caused by filth and infestation with vermin.*

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Self-propelled harvester combines at work on a state farm.

A shop of the Minsk Auto Plant in the capital of Byelorussia.
there was nothing but charred ruins after the Hitlerites were ousted from the territory. Most of the homes in the Byelorussian villages are new and have red tile roofs. About 500,000 homes for collective farmers have been built in Byelorussia in recent years.

Profound changes have also taken place in the western regions of the republic, formerly in the hands of Poland. The overwhelming majority of the peasants have already joined collective farms and are working in common for the general welfare.

The culture of the free Byelorussian people is being constantly advanced.

Before the Revolution there were no institutions of higher learning in Byelorussia. Today there are 30 schools of higher learning in the republic. The college attendance is 7,000 more than it was in the prewar period.

Since the liberation of the republic from the enemy, the Academy of Sciences of the Byelorussian SSR has restored all its research institutes and founded new ones. Byelorussian scientists are working on problems of economics, history, philosophy, literature, chemistry and medicine. They have compiled a dictionary of the language with 80,000 words, and have written a history of their country, a history of its literature, and a voluminous handbook on Byelorussian flora.

Byelorussia's libraries were destroyed by the Hitlerites, but the State Library of the Republic alone now has more than 1,000,000 books.

The large scope of cultural development and industrial construction corresponds to the international significance of the Byelorussian SSR. The voice of the representatives of Soviet Byelorussia, like that of the representatives of Soviet Ukraine and of the USSR as a whole, carries weight in international organizations, where they are firmly defending the cause of peace.
Uzbek SSR

Uzbekistan is situated in the heart of Soviet Central Asia, bordering on Afghanistan in the south. It has a territory of about 150,000 square miles and a population of 6,300,000.

In addition to Uzbeks, who comprise the majority, the population of the republic includes Russians, Tajiks and Kara-Kalpaks. The latter form within the Uzbek SSR the Kara-Kalpak Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic with Nukus as its capital. This republic is situated in the northwest of Uzbekistan, in the lower reaches of the Amu Darya River.

What is the country like?

The summers are very hot. Tall poplar and mulberry trees grow along the canals. Spaced wide apart, tall shady elms, resembling deep green balls, stand by the roadsides.

Horse-drawn carts with wheels the height of a tall man move slowly along the roads. The driver is perched on the horse’s back, his feet resting on the shafts. One after another, automobiles race past the horses. Many cyclists also ride past along the roadside.

Most Uzbek men wear white robes and black skullcaps with white embroidery. The women wear bright-colored dresses, with pale yellow and red predominating. The black tresses of the girls are plaited in dozens of thin braids.

Vineyards and apricot orchards can be seen behind clay fences. Stalks of rice rise above the water, which is held in the fields by small earthen dikes. Fields of lucerne loom green in the distance.

The principal crop, however, is cotton, the production of which has nearly trebled in Uzbekistan in Soviet years.

Exceptional attention has been devoted to the promotion of cotton cultivation in Uzbekistan during the period of the postwar Five-Year Plan. New tracts have been irrigated and brought under cultivation. Many new canals and fields have been created in the hungry steppe, south of Tashkent. The cotton yields are being steadily raised. Particularly great headway was made in the cultivation of cotton in 1950.
Uzbekistan supplies more cotton than all the other Soviet republics in Central Asia combined, and more than 60 per cent of the total crop of Soviet cotton.

There are also non-irrigated deserts in Uzbekistan where the most valuable Karakul sheep are raised. There are non-irrigated grain plantations on the mountain slopes. But the largest proportion of the republic's population is concentrated in the districts of the cotton oases.

The main oases of Uzbekistan are situated around Tashkent along the Chirchik, the right tributary of the Syr Darya River; near Samarkand and Bukhara in the Zeravshan valley and in Khorezm, the lower Amu Darya area. The biggest oasis of Uzbekistan is the rich and flourishing Fergana Valley, through which the Syr Darya flows.

Let us glance at a cotton plantation.

We see a vast level tract, its slant barely perceptible to the eye. A canal with an iron lock stretches toward the field.

In the summer water flows between the rows, and the collective farmers direct its course with the use of narrow spades.

In the autumn, the round balls burst on the bushes revealing white lumps of fiber.

Then the fiber is picked. It is transported in trucks which raise clouds of soft dust on the road, by slowly moving camels with bales suspended from their humps, and in horse-drawn carts. Snow-white mountains pile up at collecting stations and cotton gins.
In accordance with a special decision of the Soviet Government, a new system of irrigation is now being adopted in all the districts of irrigated farming in the USSR, and in Uzbekistan in particular. Hitherto the canals which conduct water to the plants were a permanent feature in the fields. They cut across the fields and hindered the mechanization of agricultural processes. Furthermore, occupying much space, they reduced the size of the plantations. Henceforth only the main and distributing canals are to be permanent. The smaller canals will be temporary. They will be plowed up along with the rest of the plantation. The transition to the use of temporary canals will make it possible to increase the cultivated area and to use agricultural machines.

Only some of the more advanced collective and state farms used this improved system of irrigation before 1950. In the future it will be adopted in all the irrigated fields of the USSR. The transition to the new system of irrigation is to be completed within three or four years.

Plowing, planting and cultivation were mechanized long ago on the cotton plantations of Soviet Central Asia. The cleaning of slime from the canals has also been mechanized to a great extent. But the most difficult process remained to be mechanized—cotton picking—the final process in cotton cultivation.

After long experimentation, Soviet inventors have recently built a fine cotton harvester. It does the work of about 30 persons. It is noteworthy that this machine was designed in Central Asia, which only recently was still a most backward region, a country of colonial semi-slave labor. Far from having any inventors, the region lacked even ordinary workers.

In the Zeravshan Valley stands Samarkand, one of the oldest cities of Central Asia. Among its ancient monuments are the tomb of Tamerlane, crowned with its turquoise ribbed cupola; the ruins of a mosque; and the buildings of the Moslem religious schools, or madrasah, with their sloping minarets faced with bright-colored tiles. These majestic memorials of the great art of ancient Moslem architects are world famous and are carefully protected today. But next to them we can see a product of the labor of other masters—a product of the free labor which serves to satisfy not the whims of individuals but the needs of the whole people. Not far from Samarkand, at Zeravshan, is the “Uzbek Sea,” the great Katta Kurgan reservoir created by the Uzbek peasants for the irrigation of the collective farm fields. The water flowing from melting ice and glaciers in the mountains is accumulated behind high dams and is directed to the cotton plantations when it is most needed there.

The irrigated area in Uzbekistan is being steadily expanded. It
will be particularly expanded on the territory of the Kara-Kalpak ASSR which is part of the Uzbek SSR when the construction of the gigantic Main Turkmenian Canal is completed in neighboring Turkmenistan.

There was no industry in Uzbekistan before the Revolution, except for small cotton gins. The ginned cotton was shipped for manufacturing to mills in the central provinces of Russia. At present Uzbekistan has a powerful textile industry, and a part of the Uzbek cotton crop is now processed on the spot, at Tashkent, Fergana and Kokand. Besides cotton textiles, the new mills of Uzbekistan produce silk fabrics, cottonseed oil, canned fruit, and wine.

Soviet Uzbekistan has developed not only a light industry but also a heavy industry. Coal, oil and other minerals are mined in a number of districts. The republic also has plants for the production of machines and fertilizer.

The growth of heavy industry in Uzbekistan has been particularly rapid in recent times when the production of various types of machines and metals was begun and the big Farhad Hydroelectric Station was built on the Syr Darya River. For the first time in its history Central Asia has an iron and steel plant.

Extensive industrial construction was accomplished in Uzbekistan under the postwar Five-Year Plan. Industrial output in Uzbekistan has greatly surpassed the prewar volume.

Uzbekistan is the greatest Soviet republic in Central Asia, and Tashkent, its capital, is the largest city of Central Asia.

The city extends over a long territory among orchards planted along the irrigation canals which carry water from the Chirchik River as it flows from the mountains toward the Syr Darya.

In the center of Tashkent near the university is a circular park with streets radiating from it. One of these is the principal thoroughfare of the capital. A street with many shops and stores, it rises slightly toward the square where the Government building stands, and next to it is the building of the Academy of Sciences. A short distance away, in the place which was formerly dotted with the tiny shops of the Voskresensky Bazaar, the building of the new opera theater now stands. Its outlines, ornamentation and stone carving combine the power of modern architecture with the genius of the folk masters.

This is the "new town," with poplars and flowing canals along the sidewalks of the wide avenues. The "new town" is the name given to the section of Tashkent which originated 85 years ago when Central Asia was joined with Russia. In those days the "new town" was inhabited almost entirely by Russians.

The appearance of the "old town" of Tashkent, which was formerly
populated only by Uzbeks, remained unaltered for many centuries: narrow, crooked streets; flat, adobe houses without windows; and the noisy, colorful bazaar.

The layout of the "new town" has not changed in the main, but in Soviet years the streets have received an asphalt coating and they now bustle with motor traffic. The town has water mains and tall modern buildings. Many Uzbeks now live in this part of the city: workers and engineers, civil servants, art workers, students and scientists.

Crossing the bridge over the Ankhor Canal, we enter the "old town." It should perhaps more properly be called a "new town," for the changes here are still more striking.

Walking up the street named for him we pass the bronze statue of Alisher Navoi, the greatest Uzbek poet and thinker who is pictured with a book in his hands. In the old days, this part of Tashkent was full of narrow streets, flat huts, and timeworn mosques. But lying before us today we see a wide tree lined thoroughfare and new houses with balconies. Automobiles and buses move swiftly over the smooth pavement.

This is not the only new street in the "old town."

There is a multitude of tall new buildings: theaters, the Rodina Cinema House, the central telegraph exchange, and many others. There are hundreds of modern apartment houses, parks of culture and rest, sports stadiums, hospitals and institutions for child care.
The borderline between the "new" and "old" towns is being obliterated. Present-day Tashkent is a growing socialist city.

The villages of Uzbekistan have also altered. Let us look at an Uzbek collective farm village. Its flat houses nestle among orchards. There is the red building of the "chaikhana," the teahouse, with its library and theater. The people seated on the slightly elevated, carpeted platform are drinking tea served with flat round bread cakes, eating luscious melons and reading newspapers. In the center of the village stands the big building of the new school, which is attended by all the children of the village.

Very recently, a mere thirty years ago, literacy among the Uzbeks was only two per cent. And this two per cent included only the rich land owners and merchants. Soviet Uzbekistan has raised the literacy of its population to 100 per cent.

It was difficult to find a college-trained Uzbek before the Revolution. Uzbekistan now has 36 institutions of higher learning, among which are two universities.

The Uzbek woman was a downtrodden slave in the past. She was sold like an inanimate object, she ate the crumbs left over from her husband's meal, and she was not allowed to venture into the street without the "chachvan," a black horsehair veil, over her face. In Soviet Uzbekistan the woman is a free citizen. Polygamy and the sale of brides are prohibited, and these customs have vanished into history. Uzbek women have become expert workers, teachers, engineers, industrial executives, deputies of the Soviets and government ministers.

There are many women scientists in Uzbekistan. Professor Zulfia Umidova, for example, is the author of about 20 scientific works. She has the degree of Doctor of Medical Sciences and directs the clinic of the Tashkent Medical Institute.

In this ancient country, where one may still see irrigation canals built a thousand years ago, from which the water was driven to the fields by creaking wooden wheels, there are now modern machine-building plants, powerful hydroelectric stations and first-class chemical factories.

As for the volume of freight transported by air, the republic can well rival any European country. The Uzbek SSR has its own Academy of Sciences. The crop yields harvested by the leading collective farmers are 15 times greater than the average yields in the past.

From a way of life thoroughly saturated with survivals of feudalism, Uzbekistan has taken a leap forward into socialism.
Kazakh SSR

With a territory of 1,042,470 square miles, the Kazakh Soviet Socialist Republic is one of the largest republics in the Soviet Union, second only to the Russian Federation. Its territory could take in more than ten such states as Great Britain. Kazakhstan has a relatively sparse population of about 6,200,000.

Kazakhstan extends from the Caspian Sea in the west to the Altai Mountains in the east, and from the Siberian Railway in the north to the mountains and valleys of Central Asia in the south.

The climatic conditions in this big country vary greatly. The winters are cold in Kazakhstan, but the tender walnut, almond and pistachio nuts ripen in the extreme south, in the Bostandyk area, where vines survive the winter without any protection, and tea is grown on the experimental fields. In the west, on the Caspian coast, lies the Karagie depression, the lowest point in the USSR, 430 feet below sea level, whereas tall mountain ranges tower in the east of the republic.

The main portion of Kazakhstan consists of a woodless plain which is quite high in the center. The climate of Kazakhstan is generally arid, and the summers are hot.

To begin with, let us look at Kazakhstan's agriculture.

Extensive wheat fields stretch in the black soil steppes in the north of the republic, where the rainfall is heavier. The wheat grown in the north of Kazakhstan is noted for its superior quality. Cultivated under arid climatic conditions, it is very rich in albumen.

The north of Kazakhstan also abounds in good pastures which afford favorable possibilities for livestock farming. The livestock in this part of the republic consists mainly of dairy cattle.

The western part of north Kazakhstan is famous for its millet. It was here, in the Aktyubinsk Region, that the Kazakh collective farmer Chaganak Bersiev raised the record crop of 20.1 tons of millet per hectare in 1943. (This is roughly equivalent to 9 short tons per acre.) Before the advance of the collective farms the soil in these parts of the country yielded no more than about three-tenths of a ton of millet per hectare—less than one-sixtieth of Bersiev's record.
Calculating the amount of solar energy a plant is capable of absorbing, the celebrated Russian scientist Williams maintained that it is possible to raise the yield of cereals to over 8 tons per acre. This would appear fantastic, but Soviet collective farmer Bersiev, has not only justified Williams' forecast, but has even surpassed it. And this peasant was a Kazakh, a representative of the people whom the tsarist colonizers considered incapable of pursuing field husbandry.

Bersiev's initiative has developed into a nationwide movement. The collective farmers have been won over en masse to advanced agrotechnical methods of millet cultivation.

As we move toward the south, rainfall decreases, the land becomes drier, and the forests disappear altogether. The soils grow paler, the black soil gradually passing into gray. There are extensive areas of salt soils, sand and clay. This is the desert zone of Kazakhstan.

The principal branch of agriculture in the central part of Kazakhstan is sheep breeding. Big flocks of sheep graze in the desert in autumn and winter, when the wormwood sheds its blossoms. When its essential oil, with the characteristic smell and bitter taste is washed away by the rain and killed by frost, the wormwood becomes a good fodder grass. In the spring, when the snow melts away and the desert is covered with a green carpet of grass, it is also excellent grazing ground for cattle. In summer, when the grass withers away in the scorching sunshine, some of the cattle are driven to different districts.

Before the Great October Socialist Revolution, the Kazakhs led a nomad existence, migrating with their cattle from pasture to pasture. It was a very hard life. The people were entirely at the mercy of the whims of nature; the frosts often covered the ground with ice, causing a lack of fodder and the loss of cattle. Rich herdsmen who exploited the labor of the people profited, while the poor were doomed to starvation.

Today the cattle are still driven from pasture to pasture, but matters are organized along different lines.

Under Soviet government, agriculture has been collectivized; there are no more landlords, and the Kazakhs have changed to a settled existence. They have built hundreds of cultured settlements with comfortable homes, schools, and gardens which were unknown to the former nomads. Electricity has come to the Kazakh villages in recent years, and rural electric plants are being built everywhere.

The cattle are driven along routes recommended by scientists. Veterinarians and livestock specialists follow the herds and flocks along with the shepherds. Suitable ranges and barns have been built for keeping the cattle in winter. Fodder is stocked for winter emergencies. In this the collective farms have the assistance of the state machine and livestock farming stations. Self-propelled and tractor-
drawn mowers, wide rakes and hayrick sweepers are used for stocking in fodder. Electric shearing of sheep and electric milking have been introduced. Inter-collective farm centers with homes and cultural institutions are being built in the distant pastures. Scientific expeditions are exploring and preparing new pastures in the heart of the deserts for the collective farm herds.

Kazakhstan is one of the principal livestock farming areas of the USSR. The herds and flocks of its collective and state farms supply much wool, meat and leather.

Precipitation is very low in the extreme south of Kazakhstan where the deserts border on the tall mountains, but the rivers flowing from the mountains create fertile oases, as in Central Asia. The soils in this part are so fertile that the poplar grows into a big shady tree within five years, and with proper crop rotations the farmers are able to garner two harvests a year. Valuable southern plants—cotton, sugar beet and essential oil plants—are grown in this area.

Leading Soviet agriculturists have raised record crops in this district. It was here that the world record crop of sugar beet was raised.

The districts along the banks of the Syr Darya in south Kazakhstan are famous for their rice. Their rice crop will be still greater in the near future, when the big dam is completed on the Syr Darya. It will supply water for irrigating new tracts.

We have already mentioned the movement of the Bersievites in the millet-growing districts of Kazakhstan. A movement initiated by Ibrai Zhakhayev and Kim Man Sam, innovators in rice cultivation, and known as the movement of the Zhakhayevites and Kimmansamovites is spreading in the rice-growing districts. The Kazakh collective farmer Ibrai Zhakhayev, a Stalin Prize winner, obtained the world’s highest rice yield in 1947, 17.1 tons per hectare (about seven and one-half short tons per acre). Such crops have never been known in India or Burma, where rice has been cultivated for thousands of years.

In the near future, vast tracts of land in western Kazakhstan will be irrigated with the aid of the Stalingrad Canal which will extend from the Volga to the Ural River.

We thus see that agriculture is based on varied branches of husbandry in Kazakhstan, and noteworthy achievements may be observed in every branch.

Let us look at industry as it is now in the Kazakh Soviet Socialist Republic. There was practically no industry on the territory of Kazakhstan before the Great October Socialist Revolution. It was a backward agrarian region.

Large-scale production of meat, leather, sugar and canned fruit was developed in Kazakhstan under the Stalin Five-Year Plans. This
industry, which processes the agricultural raw materials of Kazakhstan has made great strides forward in the postwar Five-Year Plan period. For example, a big leather factory was built at Semipalatinsk and a spinning mill at Alma Ata.

But a most prominent place belongs to the mining industry.

Kazakhstan is exceptionally rich in minerals. The work of time in the course of millions of years has reduced the ancient mountains in the center of Kazakhstan to small hills and disclosed the valuable ores hidden in them. In this respect Kazakhstan may be compared to the Urals. There is not a chemical element that is not found in Kazakhstan.

Kazakhstan is particularly rich in non-ferrous metals. Lead is mined in the south of the republic and in the Altai area. Other very important metals for national economy are also supplied by Kazakhstan. The republic has its own gold fields.

The non-ferrous metal industry of Kazakhstan is rapidly growing. The Five-Year Plan provisions for the production of non-ferrous metals have been surpassed. The republic now produces several times more copper than before the war.

Kazakhstan is also exceptionally rich in mineral fuel. Situated in Kazakhstan is Karaganda, the third largest coal base of the USSR. These rich coal deposits have been prepared and efficiently tapped only under Soviet government.

One hundred years ago a Kazakh shepherd found, in the desolate steppe, black stones which could burn. His master, the bey, sold the

Kazakhstan's oil fields yield high-grade oil. An oil refinery.
entire area to a Ural merchant for 225 rubles. Subsequently the district fell into the hands of French, and later British capitalists. Coal was mined in tiny shafts, or rather in hastily dug holes, in insignificant amounts. Karaganda was finally prospected properly by a team of Soviet geologists headed by Gapeyev, now a Stalin Prize winner.

There are at present in this basin many powerful mines as well as quarries, where coal is cut right on the surface. Makarov coal combines designed at Karaganda are being used in the mines.

The big city of Karaganda has come into being. This city with modern apartment houses, scientific institutions, poplar-lined streets and parks stands in a place which was a desolate steppe in the comparatively recent past.

Kazakhstan has surpassed the provisions of the Five-Year Plan for the production of coal.

An iron and steel industry was launched in central Kazakhstan during the war, and the Kazakh SSR now has its own steel.

The production of machinery is also making headway in Kazakhstan. At the end of the Five-Year Plan period Kazakhstan brought up its industrial production to more than double the prewar volume.

The capital of the Kazakh SSR, Alma Ata, is a big cultural center. This city is a particularly vivid illustration of the progress made by the national culture of the Kazakh people.

Alma Ata is the seat of the Academy of Sciences of the Kazakh SSR with its numerous institutes; of the Kazakh University and other higher schools. A remarkable opera and ballet theater has been built in the city.

At Alma Ata we may meet eminent Kazakh scientists headed by the President of the Academy of Sciences, Kanysh Satpayev, a famous geologist. We may hear the Kazakh singer, People's Artist of the USSR Beiseitova, and meet Kazakh writers known throughout the USSR, as, for example, Auezov, author of the novel Abai. And in them we will feel the great power of the regenerated Kazakh people.

The rule of the tsar weighed down like a heavy yoke upon the Kazakh people before the Revolution. The people were compelled to do slave labor in order to feed the idle tsarist officials and kulaks, the semi-feudal lords and beys. Constant migrations from place to place, frequently recurring famine, 98 per cent illiteracy, superstitions, epidemics and humiliating subjection were the lot of the people.

Our generation knows of these hard times only from museum exhibits, books, and stories of old timers. It is hard to imagine Kazakhstan today as an impoverished colony, a neglected province, a country flowing with the people's tears. Emancipated and regenerated by the October Revolution, the Kazakhs have with the aid of the great Russian people transformed their country and built a happy life.
The Georgian Soviet Socialist Republic lies in the Caucasus, occupying nearly the whole southern portion of the main Caucasian range. In the west it extends to the Black Sea shores, and in the south it borders on Turkey.

Georgia has an area of 29,000 square miles and a population of 3,500,000.

The majority of its population is made up of Georgians. The Abkhazians inhabiting Georgia have formed within the Georgian SSR the Abkhazian Autonomous Republic with Sukhumi as its capital, and the Adjars have established the Adjar Autonomous Republic with Batumi as its capital. The population of Georgia also includes Ossetians, Russians and Armenians.

Georgia is a rich, beautiful country, with extremely varied topography and climate. The Black Sea coast is a humid subtropical district. Farther inland are valleys with a drier climate. Still farther, the land runs up the slopes of snow-capped mountains. There are places in Georgia where in midsummer one may look through the leaves of the evergreen palms and see snow on the mountains.

Georgia’s landscapes are never monotonous. Palms grow on the banks of rivers which have their source in the glaciers of the mountains, and rugged rocky terrain alternates with regions of rich subtropical flora. Sun-baked expanses border on swampy jungles. Modern electric trains often cross ancient paths still used by pack animals, and power stations have been built in the neighborhood of time-worn feudal castles.

But with all this contrast in its landscape, Georgia presents a unified picture of flourishing nature and culture. Molotov has called Georgia "one of the happiest corners of the world."

The Georgian people over the centuries have built up a great culture. Mention of them has been found in cuneiform inscriptions on stone plates made in ancient Assyria. And in the 11th century A.D.—long before the dawn of the European Renaissance—the great Georgian poet Shota Rust’havelli expressed the ideas of humanism in his works.
Georgia had a rich literature when Western Europe was still in the Dark Ages.

The Georgians have preserved their culture through centuries filled with hard-fought wars of liberation. They carried on daring and tenacious struggles for independence in successive wars against the Romans, Arabs, Mongols, Persians, and Turks. The union of Georgia with Russia 150 years ago and the powerful support of the Russian people saved suffering Georgia from enslavement by the Turkish sultan and the Iranian shah and put an end to enemy invasions and feudal division of the country.

But not until the Great October Socialist Revolution did the Georgian people secure freedom, independence, and unlimited possibilities for the development of their creative forces.

The country which had in the past only one wooden plow for
every three households now has a growing, advanced, mechanized agriculture, well equipped with tractors and other agricultural machines. Its progress is felt by the entire Soviet Union, since Georgia supplies great quantities of tea, oranges, lemons, tangerines, grapes and tobacco to the rest of the country. Georgia also produces wheat and wool, but the cultivation of subtropical plants is the principal branch of its agriculture.

In summer, the air on the Black Sea coast of Georgia is as hot and humid as the atmosphere in a greenhouse. One can actually feel the dampness in the air. The soil is saturated with moisture. The swamps are overgrown with thick jungles of bushes and tall grasses. The homes of the collective farmers, surrounded by verandas, are barely visible through the greenery. For protection against dampness, the houses are built on tall stone pillars.

The rainfall of this region is exceedingly heavy. Precipitation at Batumi is more than 98 inches a year, greater than at any other place in the USSR. If the water did not evaporate in the scorching sunshine or flow into the sea, the one-story buildings would be flooded up to their roofs in a year's time.

Tall mountains protect the Black Sea coast of Georgia from cold winds. The summers there are very hot, and, even more important for agriculture, the winters are mild. The average temperature at Batumi in
January, the coldest month of the year, is slightly more than 43° Fahrenheit.

Foliage in the dense forests is thickly entwined with lianas, and ferns grow six feet high during the summer. A tall alder grove will grow on the red soil within two or three years. One sometimes sees the remains of corn stalks between the trees—reminders of the fact that there was recently a cultivated field on the spot now covered by a forest.

This extraordinarily fertile region was utilized before the Revolution mostly for the production of corn, while Russia spent hundreds of millions of gold rubles in order to import tea, lemons, tangerines, and essential oils.

Upon Stalin’s initiative, this situation was corrected, and large-scale cultivation of subtropical plants in Georgia was begun. In 1950, the last year of the postwar Five-Year Plan period, Georgia surpassed the prewar tea crop by 48,300 tons, the prewar grape crop by 22,000 tons and the prewar fruit crop by 13,000 tons.

The plantations look like vast expanses of pleated cloth, with their long, even rows extending over the hillsides as far as the eye can see. Workers in broad-brimmed straw hats bend over the silver-green bells of the pruned tea bushes which grow in rows on the shelf-like terraces.

We see trees with glossy leaves and a maze of yellow and orange beads clustering amid their foliage. These are the lemon, orange, tangerine and grapefruit plantations. There are groves of cork oak, fields of plants bearing essential oils, and plantations of the tung tree, which yields a valuable oil for industrial purposes.

Shelter belts of trees have been planted around the plantations in order to protect them from cold winds. The best tree for this purpose is the eucalyptus. The rapid growth of this tree is astounding. Within a year a tiny seedling grows to a height of 10 feet, and in 15 years it rises to the gigantic size of 100 feet. When the eucalyptus is cut down, a new tree grows from the stump. The fast-growing eucalyptus supplies excellent timber of great hardness. Its absorbent qualities cause it to act as a pump in draining marshes.

A large reclamation project is under way in the swampy region of the Colchis lowland. Villages are built in the reclaimed districts for settlers who move down from the mountains. The new villages have comfortable white houses, which greatly enhance the beauty of the landscape of present-day Colchis.

At first glance, it may seem that this land of plenty bears fruit without any effort on the part of man. While it is true that nature here is very generous, this generosity is the reward of human skill and of arduous, incessant labor.

Here and there people may be seen working on the tea plantations at night, when the fields are illuminated by electric lights.
Prosperity is growing in the collective farm villages of Soviet Georgia from year to year. Nearly one out of every three collective farms in Abkhazia has an income running into millions of rubles. Xenia Sar-sania, a Georgian peasant woman, picked a world record tea crop and won a Stalin Prize. In the one year of 1948 she earned 107,000 rubles in cash alone. She built a two-story cottage for her family and purchased an automobile.

Suleimanshvili, a collective farmer in the Batumi area, picks 12,000 tangerines from one tree during the season.

Growing prosperity has enabled the collective farms of Georgia to undertake large-scale construction. The collective farmers are building rural hydroelectric stations, promoting electrification in the villages, and erecting new homes, clubs, libraries, brick and tile factories. For example, the collective farm in the village of Shroma (Makharadze District of Georgia) has built its own theater.

Progress in Georgia is not limited to agriculture. The country called by Lenin a “still more predominantly peasant country than Russia” has built up an advanced and rapidly expanding industry.

During the postwar Stalin Five-Year Plan period production in Georgia was not limited to fabrics, wine, manganese and coal, as in the earlier five-year plan periods. In the last five years Georgia’s industry has also been turning out steel, rolled metal, machinery for coal and ore mines, semi-automatic textile looms for the silk weaving mills and improved models of metal-cutting lathes. Big hydroelectric stations are being added to the existing stations on the mountain rivers. Georgia has become a country of heavy industry.

Under the postwar Five-Year Plan industrial production in Georgia increased to one and one-half times the prewar volume, and Tbilisi, the capital of the republic, has become an important machine-building center.

Tbilisi lies in a wide valley, framed by mountain slopes. The Kura River flows through the city in a deep gorge. Rising in a broken line on the horizon are the distant mountain ranges.

Towering high above Tbilisi is the steep wall of Mount Mtatsmind. There is a park on its summit which may be reached by a funicular railway. From the top of Mount Mtatsmind one has a magnificent view of the whole city. From the height, the districts of the city on the hills in the distance resemble honeycombs.

Tbilisi is at least 1,500 years old. Among its memorials of times gone by are the ruins of an ancient fortress and old Georgian temples with sharp cone-shaped domes.

But old Tbilisi has been completely lost among the modern dis-
tricts, which have splendid avenues and streets lined with fine tall buildings.

One of these is Rust'haveli Prospect, named for Georgia’s great poet. It has beautiful buildings, wide sidewalks and trees, but its charm lies mainly in its cheerful, sunny atmosphere which throbs with life and activity.

Looking down on the city from Mount Mtatsmind, one can see many new streets and blocks of buildings on lots which were neglected wasteland not long ago. Among them are the Government House, Beria Square, which has been cleared of old buildings and widened, and the new railway station, with its tall metal steeple crowned with a five-pointed bronze star.

A class in the Batumi Pedagogical Institute, Adjarian ASSR.

There is a shady park on formerly deserted Madatov Island in the Kura River. In fact, it is no longer proper to call Madatov an island, since the arm of the river which enveloped it from the right has been filled in and converted into a beautiful riverside street named in honor of Stalin. A similar embankment is being constructed on the opposite side of the river. In the old days, one could see the wooden wheels of water mills revolving over the stone bed of the Kura right in the middle of the city. Now automobiles glide past the trees behind the level parapet on the bank.

Beyond Tbilisi, on the road to Kakhetia, the waterless districts of the Samgor steppes begin. For hundreds of years the Georgian people cherished the dream of irrigating these steppes. This dream is now being turned into reality.

A fanlike network of canals is being constructed to bring water
from the Iora River to the arid districts between the Iora and the Kura. These canals will make possible the planting of vineyards and cotton fields and the construction of hydroelectric stations. As the water flows toward Tbilisi, it will be collected in the depression of the Salt Lakes to form a reservoir with a surface area of almost six square miles. The sun-scorched, rocky landscape in the vicinity of Tbilisi will disappear and be replaced by a forest and a rippling lake, with sailboats and fine beaches.

Before the Revolution, Tbilisi, the residence of the tsarist commissioner for the Caucasus, was a bureaucratic city of officials and small merchants. Its industry was limited to railway repair shops and the semi-handcraft processing of tobacco and leather. There were more police officers and soldiers than workers.

Under the Five-Year Plans the capital of Georgia has developed into an important industrial center, supplying shoes and fabrics as well as modern machines for industry in Transcaucasia.

The city has a rich cultural life, as is fitting for the capital of a state. The Georgian Branch of the Marx-Engels-Lenin Institute, whose splendid building stands on Rust’haveli Prospect, collects and studies documents relating to the revolutionary movement. Its collections include some of Stalin’s most valuable books and manuscripts. The Academy of Sciences, headed by Mushkelishvili, the leader of the Georgian school of mathematics, studies the natural wealth of Georgia and assists in the realization of the five-year plans. Thousands of students attend the higher schools of the republic. Remarkable performances are presented in its theaters.

The city of Tbilisi is living evidence of the progress of culture, national in form and socialist in content, in Georgia. Soviet Georgia has the highest proportion of college-trained persons among the Soviet republics.

There are many memorial plates and obelisks in Tbilisi that bear Stalin’s name. There is the building of the seminary where he studied, and the former geophysical laboratory where he lived and worked. The little house of the famous Avlabar underground Bolshevik printing shop which worked under Stalin’s guidance has been restored.

It was in Georgia that Stalin began his great revolutionary work. He headed the revolutionary movement of the workers of Tiflis (now Tbilisi) and laid the foundation for Bolshevik organizations in Georgia and throughout Transcaucasia.

The city of Batumi is also associated with Stalin’s early career. He founded the Social-Democratic organization there, organized the work of the underground print shop and directed strikes in the local factories. In 1902 he organized and led a political demonstration of the workers of Batumi.
Stalin was born on December 21, 1879 in the city of Gori, which nestles amid orchards on the bank of the Kura River some 45 miles northwest of Tbilisi. Many thousands of people come to this city every year from all parts of the USSR and the world to see the little old one-story brick house with a small veranda where Stalin’s parents lived. The house, which is now a museum, is protected by a pavilion of marble and glass, and everything inside it has been preserved as it was in Stalin’s boyhood.

Gori is a city that is constantly growing in size and beauty. The banks of the Kura are being dressed with concrete and granite, and all of Gori’s streets are being asphal ted and lined with trees. Noteworthy among the new buildings under construction are blocks of textile mills.

The stream of visitors to the museum at Gori was especially great in December 1949, when Stalin’s 70th birthday was solemnly celebrated by the people of the Soviet Union and all progressive mankind.
Azerbaijan SSR

Soviet Azerbaijan occupies the eastern part of Transcaucasia facing the Caspian Sea. It borders on Iran in the south. In addition to Azerbaijanians, who comprise the majority of the population, it is inhabited by Armenians, Russians, Tats and Talysh.

Azerbaijan has a territory of 33,000 square miles and a population of 3,200,000.

In the southwest, beyond the mountains, lies the Nakhichevan Autonomous Republic, which is part of the Azerbaijan SSR.

Advanced large-scale industry has been built up in Azerbaijan under Soviet government; its agriculture has been collectivized and equipped with modern machines, and socialist culture has made great headway in the republic.

Baku was a big oil center even before the Revolution, but it was an isolated islet in a backward peasant country. The Baku oil fields were financed by foreign capital and were more closely connected with London and St. Petersburg than with Azerbaijan.

A great increase in the production of oil was achieved in Baku during the Five-Year Plan periods. Rich new oil deposits have been discovered. Together with the new sources tapped in the old districts they supply more than four-fifths of all the oil of Baku. Oil is also being extracted from the sea bottom in the Baku area. Azerbaijan has considerably increased its oil output during the period of the postwar Five-Year Plan.

Thousands of derricks, close together and 130 feet high, may be seen on the Apsheron Peninsula in the neighborhood of Baku. They are so numerous that they seem to fill the entire territory.

Apsheron Peninsula has exceptionally rich oil deposits. To this day oil fountains begin to gush from the ground from time to time, although oil has been extracted in Baku for more than 70 years.

Before the Revolution oil was extracted from the wells by means of long ladles opening at the bottom. This method has long been replaced in Soviet Baku. Oil is now extracted by means of deep pumps and compressors.
Walking amid the functioning wells, stepping across the pipelines, maneuvering around the cables which hold the derricks, we hear the hum of machinery and the quiet splash of oil. But it is hardly visible: many wells are hermetically sealed.

And there are hardly any workers in sight. The machines rock and bow rhythmically, but only the supervising mechanic moves through the field.

There are more people in evidence in the places where new wells are being drilled. The roar of the drills is heard there.

Nearly all the innovations which advanced the level of the Soviet oil industry were born in Baku. It was there that the turbo-drill and the electric drill were first introduced. The Baku workers were the first to undertake the drilling of both vertical and slanting wells. This means that oil can now be extracted from under buildings and from the sea bottom in the neighborhood of the coast. It is also possible to drill several wells now from one spot at sea.

The Baku workers are drilling constantly deeper and deeper; they are now drilling wells as much as 16,000 feet deep.

The speed of drilling is also being stepped up.

A movement for the highest speed of drilling was initiated by Orlov, a veteran oil worker of Baku. For a long time he held first place in the countrywide socialist emulation movement. Later he ceded it to Fatkuliev, who was in turn outpaced by Djoyev. The speed of drilling
was being steadily raised. Within a short time Djoyev’s achievement was surpassed by Kulikov, who set a new record. Then Fatkuliev again advanced to first place, until he was outpaced by Minasov. Shortly thereafter Medjid Rassulov gained fame by leading not only separate
teams but the whole section in his charge to the use of the fastest methods.

Many other names, the names of new victors in the socialist emulation movement, gained renown in Baku. This example shows that the achievements of the Stakhanovites in the USSR are not the successes of individuals, but a mass movement.

What does it mean in our time to surpass the record established by a fellow-worker and to set a new record in drilling? What must be done in order to make the heavy rotor perform not the usual 200 revolutions per minute but more than 500 revolutions, as the best Stakhanovites do? This cannot be achieved by a simple strain of physical effort. It demands greater technical knowledge on the part of the worker.

Baku was the only big industrial city in Transcaucasia before the Revolution. Its industry was limited to the production of oil, if we discount a small factory for the production of cheap coarse linen.

Oil is not the only product of Soviet Azerbaijan, nor is industry in Baku limited to the big refineries which supply kerosene, gasoline, perfumes, and many other products. The factories of Baku produce such machines as deep pumps, floating cranes and radio sets, as well as chemicals and meat products.

A new industrial city, Sumgait, is growing up near Baku.

Large-scale industry has been developed at Kirovabad, to the west of Baku, which has big textile and cloth mills. The textile industry has contributed a great deal to the emancipation of the women. The Azerbaijani woman has removed the veil and taken her place in industry.

The swift Kura River cuts across the republic of Azerbaijan from west to east, flowing along a level plain to the Caspian Sea.

Along the Kura and in the lower reaches of the Araks, its tributary, where the land is irrigated, lies a district of rich cotton and rice plantations, vineyards and lucerne fields. The climate there is hot, and one comes across such tropical plants as the beautiful rose-colored lotos. Superior varieties of long-staple cotton grow in this area. Irrigation has infused life into this district which was recently a desolate wasteland and many new settlements have been built there.

Cotton cultivation is making steady progress in Azerbaijan. The cotton crop in 1950 was far greater than in the prewar year of 1940.

It is precisely cotton cultivation that has advanced to fame such heroines of the Azerbaijan people as Basti Bagirova. An ordinary peasant woman and collective farm worker, she is a member of the Council on the Affairs of the Collective Farms functioning under the Government of the USSR, and a Deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.
Cotton harvests in the past were never more than 0.6 to 0.7 ton per hectare (450 to 600 pounds per acre), whereas the leading collective farmers have raised the cotton yield to 10 tons (8,947 pounds per acre). Basti Bagirova harvested an average of 10.5 tons of cotton per hectare (9,437 pounds per acre) in 1946. Such harvests are unknown to the fellahs of Egypt, to the sharecroppers of Mississippi, or to the planters in Texas.

However, thus far cotton occupies only a comparatively small portion of the vast fertile, but arid steppes. Work is at present under way with a view to changing the very nature of the region.

The water of the Kura River will be used to create an artificial sea in the heart of Azerbaijan. Canals will conduct water to the arid steppes to irrigate hundreds of thousands of acres. Vast tracts of wasteland will be converted into cotton plantations and wheat fields. An end will be put to the floods which constantly menace the villages on the banks. The stagnant swamps will disappear. A powerful hydroelectric station to be built at Mingechaur will supply electricity to the cities and villages.

But this is not all. Windbreaks, now being planted in the collective farm fields, and shelter belts along the river banks will protect the vast Kura lowland from the dry southern winds and the cold north winds.

In the south of the republic, along the Caspian shore, stretches the narrow Lenkoran lowland protected by the Talyshinskie Mountains. This is a humid subtropical district. The swamps in the lower part of the valley are overgrown with jungles of brushwood, and the mountain slopes are covered with thick impassable forests and the "iron tree," which is known for its exceptional strength. The trees are entwined in lianas. The domestic animal used here is not the horse or the buffalo, but the humpbacked zebu as in India.

This was a wild region in the past. Today it has become an important region of subtropical agriculture. Tea, oranges and lemons are now cultivated in the reclaimed territory of the Lenkoran lowland. Figs and pomegranates grow in the orchards. Tea packing factories have been built. Still newer districts have been brought into being recently. The cultivation of subtropical plants has been initiated in the Kura lowland, as well as in the foothills.

Baku, the capital of Azerbaijan, is one of the most populous cities in the Soviet Union. It is situated on a deep, ice-free bay on the southern coast of the Apsheron Peninsula.

Many relics of the Middle Ages survive to this day in the center of the city. On the slope of a hill stands "Maiden Tower," built of large gray stones. There are the remains of ancient fortress walls. Beyond them is a jumble of cube-shaped flat houses, and the winding
streets are so narrow that in places it is possible to touch one wall with the right hand and the wall across the street with the left hand.

But this part of the city is not characteristic of the appearance of Baku today. Present-day Baku is a city with wide, bustling thoroughfares lined with new public buildings. Its life centers around the new Government Palace and the beautiful museum established in honor of the great Azerbaijani poet and thinker Nizami. There is a bronze statue of the poet on a pedestal of red granite, and blocks of new apartment houses can seen in this area.

Beautiful neat houses have replaced the impoverished soot-stained slums of "Black Town," an old working-class suburb.

Baku is a "city of winds." In the old days, whenever the wind was blowing from the north, it was necessary to use dark glasses to protect the eyes from dust. There is hardly any dust now. The streets are asphalted. During the Soviet period, Baku has acquired trees, squares and parks.

Very soon there will be a belt of olive groves to protect Baku from the winds. The green wall will extend along the whole coast of the Apsheron Peninsula.

CULTURE, science and the arts are flourishing in Soviet Azerbaijan. Illiteracy was as high as 97 per cent among the Azerbaijanians before the October Revolution. Soviet Azerbaijan is a country of total literacy. Baku, where not a single scientific institution existed in the past, is the seat of the Academy of Sciences of the Azerbaijan SSR. The workers of the Academy are developing new methods for the extraction of oil and production of gasoline, breeding new plants and developing new breeds of cattle, and writing books on history, geology and botany. There were no institutions of higher learning in the past, whereas today they number twenty.

The Azerbaijani theater had no permanent playhouse in old Baku, and performances were arranged in private homes. Present-day Baku has several theaters and a theatrical institute.

The Azerbaijani woman was disfranchized and downtrodden; a thick veil was lowered over her sad eyes. There are at present many scientists, engineers and industrial executives among the women of Azerbaijan. Thousands of women are attending college.

The workers of Baku have glorious revolutionary traditions. Baku has always been known for its staunch, militant working class. The Baku proletarians conducted a stubborn struggle against capitalism, and during the civil war they fought heroically against the interventionists. It was Stalin who founded the local Bolshevik organization there half a century ago.
Lithuanian SSR

Soviet Lithuania is the southernmost of the three Soviet republics in the Baltic. In the west, the territory of Lithuania extends to the shore of the Baltic Sea.

With a territory of 25,000 square miles, Lithuania has a population of about 3,000,000. In addition to Lithuanians who comprise the majority, the population of the republic includes Russians, Jews and other nationalities.

Like the other republics of the Baltic, the Lithuanian SSR lies on a level plain, broken only by small flat hills overgrown with woods. There are rivers with marshy banks, and fields of grazing cattle.

The climate in Lithuania is milder than in the central regions of the USSR. The west winds blowing from the sea frequently bring clouds and rain.

Before the First World War Lithuania was part of Russia. After the October Revolution, Soviet government was established there as in the whole of Russia. But during the civil war, the bourgeoisie, with the aid of foreign imperialists, gained the upper hand, and contrary to the will of her working people Lithuania was severed from revolutionary Russia. While formally independent, the bourgeois republic formed there was in reality dependent upon the great powers of Western Europe and America.

In 1940, by the will of her people, Lithuania petitioned the Supreme Soviet of the USSR for admission into the Soviet Union. Since August 1940, the Lithuanian SSR has been a member of the USSR with the rights of a constituent republic of the Union.

Wide prospects for development were then opened before the republic. Industry was rapidly growing, and unemployment was banished. The land was divided among the peasants. Favorable conditions were created for the rapid advancement of field and animal husbandry. Extensive cultural undertakings were launched.

The development of the country was interrupted by the war and fascist occupation. The Hitlerite army caused tremendous damage to the republic. Only six of the 186 enterprises of the dairy industry survived through the German fascist occupation. The cities of Raseiniai and Vilkaviskis were razed from the face of the earth.
Extensive restoration was accomplished in Lithuania under the postwar Five-Year Plan.

A prominent part in Lithuanian industry belongs to the food processing industry and the production of butter and meat. The republic also has woodworking, leather, textile and metal-working enterprises.

The people of Lithuania labored with might and main for the realization of the postwar Five-Year Plan. For Lithuania it was primarily a plan of industrialization.

The old enterprises have been restored and many new ones have been built, primarily for the production of machinery. Lithuania now produces many items which were not manufactured in the republic before the war, as, for example, modern machine tools.

Special attention is devoted in Lithuania to the production of fuel and electric power. The peat industry is being rapidly expanded.

During the period of the postwar Five-Year Plan industry in the Lithuanian SSR has not only regained the prewar level, but has increased production to nearly double that level. At the beginning of 1951 the share of industry in the national economy of the republic was already above 50 per cent, as against 35 per cent in 1945. The number of workers has doubled in the same period.

The Lithuanian city of Sauliai was almost completely destroyed by the Hitlerites. Whatever escaped explosion was burned down by the fascists.

This city nevertheless exists again. Moreover, it is a growing
city, which already supplies a great variety of industrial products. A pedagogical institute has been opened in Sauliai, which had no institutions of higher learning before the war.

In 1939, Hitler seized the old Lithuanian city of Klaipeda, de¬priving the country of its only port. After the rout of the Hitlerites, Klaipeda was restored to the Lithuanian Republic. More than half the city of Klaipeda was reduced to debris by the Hitlerites, who ruined all its industry. It was left with barely 100 inhabitants.

Klaipeda has now been restored. Its population is greater than before the war, and the city has new apartment houses, navigation schools, and Lithuanian and Russian theaters; the old factories have been rebuilt from the ruins and new ones have been erected. Ocean-going vessels are moored in the harbor. Machines, yarn, knit goods, matches, superphosphates, pulp, paper and plywood are now produced at Klaipeda. The fishing industry is also thriving.

Construction continues at Klaipeda and the layout of the city is being changed. Old Klaipeda was turned away from the sea. The windows in the homes of future Klaipeda will have a good view of the sea.

Until recently, agriculture had a greater share in the economy of Lithuania than industry. This relationship is now changing as Lithuania becomes industrialized.

Furthermore, Lithuania's agriculture was extremely backward in the past. At present it is being equipped with modern machines and conducted along scientific lines.

The cereals cultivated in the Lithuanian SSR are rye, wheat and oats. In addition to cereals, which occupy a considerable area, potatoes, flax and clover are also grown. There are many fruit orchards in the villages.

Livestock farming, particularly pig-breeding, occupies a prominent place in agriculture.

Tractors and harvester combines, machines unknown there in the past, are used in the fields.

Their own experience convinced the working peasants of Lithuania that the only road to prosperity lies through collectivization, and they voluntarily formed collective farms. More than 90 per cent of the peasant households had joined collective farms by the beginning of 1951.

VILNIUS, capital of the Lithuanian SSR, stands amid forests and hills on the Neris River, a tributary of the Nieman. It is the ancient center of Lithuanian culture. The city contains many monuments of the past and its university is one of the oldest in Europe.
Vilnius became the Lithuanian capital six centuries ago, in the days of Prince Gediminas. The Lithuanians have always associated their history as well as their national aspirations with Vilnius. But twice in past decades was Vilnius forcibly captured by gentry-ridden Poland. And twice—in 1920 and 1939—was it taken from the Polish gentry by the Red Army and restored to the Lithuanians.

The grim tower of Gediminas has been standing for six centuries on Castle Hill in the city. It was restored in 1949. The red flag flies from the tower; it was hoisted on the day in 1944 when the Soviet Army freed Vilnius from the Hitlerites.

Vilnius was badly damaged by the Hitlerites and construction is now under way in all parts of the city.

A special decision to promote the earliest possible restoration of Vilnius after the war was adopted on Stalin’s initiative. In reply to Stalin’s solicitude, the citizens of the Lithuanian capital promised to contribute 50 hours each to building up the city, and they have done even more than that. They contributed several million hours to assist the workers engaged in restoration. Vilnius has been rapidly raised from the ruins and improved. New streets, bridges and parks are being created in the Lithuanian capital.

Industry in prewar Vilnius was confined to small enterprises of light industry. Machine plants have been built there under the postwar Five-Year Plan. As a result of this plan, the city now has a modern industry.

Culture, national in form and socialist in content, is being rapidly advanced in Soviet Lithuania.

An Academy of Sciences has been founded in the republic, institutions of higher learning have been opened there and Lithuania now has two universities. Two new books a day on the average are published in Lithuania.

Culture is becoming widespread among the peasant masses. There are about 100 people’s universities in the republic. Classes are conducted there by the local school teachers, and scientists from Vilnius frequently come to lecture to the collective farmers.

July 21, 1940, the day when Soviet government was established in the Baltic, is the most shining date in the age-old history of the Lithuanian people. This glorious anniversary is celebrated by the people of Lithuania every summer. The national song festival is a feature of the celebrations held in honor of this date.
Soviet Moldavia is situated in the southwest of the Soviet Union. In the east the territory of the republic extends slightly across the Dniester, and in the west it is bounded by the Pruth River, which separates it from Romania.

Moldavia has a territory of 13,000 square miles and a population of about 2,700,000. It is the most densely populated area of the USSR.

The population of the Moldavian Soviet Socialist Republic also includes Russians and Ukrainians.

Within the boundaries of the Moldavian SSR lies the greater part of Bessarabia. The territory of Bessarabia was forcibly severed from Russia by the Romanian imperialists in 1918; it was restored to the Soviet Union on June 28, 1940 on the demand of the Soviet Government. The Moldavian SSR was formed on August 2, 1940.

Moldavia is noted for its fertile soils and warm climate. The summers are hot and the winters mild.

Most of the villages of Moldavia are big settlements with whitewashed clay huts. There is a garden in front of every house and the jutting roof supported by poles forms a veranda. The windows, doors and corners are decorated with blue or green ornaments. The roofs are made of tile.

Corn stalks are used for building sheds and fences. In general, corn is a very essential element in the life of the Moldavians. The corn plantations are almost equal in size to the wheat fields. Before the establishment of Soviet government wheat was cultivated mainly for export, and corn was the main food item of the Moldavian people.

In the north, in the neighborhood of Beltsy, lies a level or slightly elevated woodless steppe with black soil.

The high hills extending to the south of it are covered with vineyards and overgrown with oak, hornbeam, ash and maple trees. This elevated district of forests and orchards is called Kodry.

Farther south the territory drops again, descending into the level and arid Budzhak Steppe. Forests and brushwood are found only in the marshy river valleys, which are flooded in spring.
Vast tracts in Moldavia are planted under cereal grains, but the main source of the republic's wealth lies in its vineyards and orchards. These grow mainly along the banks of the Dniester and at Kodry.

The vineyards in Moldavia are more extensive than in any other southern republic of the USSR. Long rows of tall vines are supported by poles, and heavy clusters of green and purple grapes can be seen among the leaves.

Vineyards alternate with orchards where apples, pears, plums and walnuts grow in abundance.

The soils of Moldavia are as favorable for viticulture as those of the famous French district of Champagne.

Particularly favorable for the cultivation of grapes are the hill slopes, and the low valleys protected from the northern winds are excellent for fruit orchards.

Many of the orchards and vineyards are new. They have been laid out recently in the areas where the old orchards were cut down by the axe of the fascist barbarians. The orchards and vineyards ravaged during the enemy occupation have been fully restored during the postwar Five-Year Plan period.

The new plantations consist not only of vines, apple trees and pear trees, but also of lemon and fig trees. The latter represent a novel feature in Moldavia, where subtropical plants were not grown in the past. In accordance with the Stalin plan for remaking nature and with the aid of progressive Michurinite science, the Soviet people are pushing cultivation of valuable plants from the extreme south to the north.

Big flocks of sheep and herds of dairy cattle graze in the steppes in southern Moldavia.

The Dniester valley is covered by fertile earth washed down by the Dniester from the Carpathian Mountains. The whole of this area was once a solid tract of swampland. Impassable jungles of thick grass, brushwood, and trees with a tangle of wild vines and hops stretched along the bank of the river. The Soviet people built earthen dams to protect the land from the spring floods and extensive reclamation and irrigation were undertaken, with the result that the gardens, orchards and vineyards of the region now yield unprecedentedly abundant crops.

Under the rule of the Romanian boyars from 1918 to 1940, Bessarabia was reduced to a state of economic degradation. Rapid economic and cultural development began in Bessarabia when it was joined to the Moldavian Soviet Socialist Republic. This progress was interrupted by the war when the Moldavian Republic was occupied by the enemy and badly ravaged. After the liberation of the republic it suffered further great damage from the severe drought which visited it for two years in succession.
Harvesting grapes on Alexander Matrosov Collective Farm.
The Moldavian people, however, successfully coped with all these problems. All the Soviet peoples, and especially the Russian and Ukrainian peoples, came to the aid of their Moldavian brothers.

Agriculture has been completely collectivized in Soviet Moldavia. Immediately after the establishment of Soviet government, the poor peasants in Moldavia received land grants and their hunger for land was banished forever. The working peasants of Bessarabia have learned from their own experience the meaning of a government of the people. They have become convinced that the only way to genuine prosperity, happiness and progress lies through collective farming, and then have firmly taken this course.

Tractors and harvester combines, machines unseen in Bessarabia in the past, are now used in the vast fields of the collective farms. There are many machine and tractor stations in the republic. The power of the tractor park has increased nearly tenfold as compared with 1941.

Collective labor has constructed big reservoirs which preserve moisture for the fields. Shelter belts are being planted.

The Five-Year Plan provisions for increasing the crop yields and gross crop have been considerably surpassed in Moldavia.

The villages have been improved and have received electricity. Clubs with halls containing 300 to 500 seats, libraries, gymnasiums and premises for amateur art activities are being built in the villages.

Moldavia's industry is occupied mainly with processing agricultural produce. Its enterprises supply canned fruit, wine and sugar. Under the postwar Five-Year Plan industry in the republic has not only regained but surpassed the prewar level. In 1950, Moldavia's industrial output was more than double the 1940 volume. Extensive prospecting for coal and oil is also being conducted in the republic.

Kishinev, the capital of the Moldavian SSR, is the biggest city in the republic. It stands on the Byk River, a right tributary of the Dniester.

Extensive construction is now under way in Kishinev, which was badly damaged by the invaders. Blocks of new buildings, a new railway station and many factories have been erected there.

The appearance of the industrial suburbs of Kishinev tells us that the time is past when Moldavia was an agrarian country. Nor is her industry confined to the production of food as was the case in the early years of Soviet government.

Although the food industry is still the principal branch of production, in the postwar Five-Year Plan period Bessarabia has developed a heavy industry. The enterprises of Kishinev are now supplying machine tools, engines, and machines for planting forests.

National cadres of skilled mechanics, foundrymen and machine
builders are being trained in increasing numbers. Thousands of Moldavian workers are becoming experts in the most difficult trades.

Another story told us by the Moldavian capital is that Bessarabia no longer has an illiterate population. Two out of every three people are now studying in the Moldavian republic. Illiteracy has been almost completely wiped out, even among adults.

In five years the number of elementary and secondary schools has increased two and one-half times, and their attendance has nearly doubled. There has been more than a threefold increase in college enrollment.

Institutions of higher learning, among them a university, have been opened in Soviet Moldavia, and a branch of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR has been founded there. This is evidence of the fact that Soviet Moldavia has already created its own intelligentsia, an intelligentsia that comes from the midst of the people.
Soviet Latvia lies on the coast of the Baltic Sea, where the wide Gulf of Riga cuts deeply into the mainland. Latvia has a territory of 25,000 square miles and a population of about 2,000,000. The population of the republic is composed of Letts, who comprise the overwhelming majority, and Russians.

Nature in the Latvian Republic is beautiful, wooded hills alternating with deep valleys and picturesque lakes. The seacoast is also beautiful. Sand dunes overgrown with pines stretch along the shore.

The old landscape of Latvia—rich meadowland, fir, birch and aspen groves and wave-like fields—now exhibits signs of the new times. There are collective farm herds at the streams; tractors, beet harvesting combines and flax pulling machines in the fields; new villages and new homes; and new bridges over the rivers.

The biggest river in the Latvian SSR is the Daugava (Western Dvina). It flows through the republic from the southeast to the northwest, emptying into the Gulf of Riga. Because of rapids the river is only partially suitable for navigation.

There is the Kegums Hydroelectric Station on the Daugava. Its construction was undertaken by Latvian capitalists with the aid of Swedish capital, but they never brought it up to planned capacity. In fact, this construction unbalanced the national economy in bourgeois Latvia. At any rate, the station was destroyed by the Hitlerites during the occupation period.

With the aid of the Leningraders, the Latvians restored and re-equipped the Kegums Hydroelectric Station. They have completed the entire construction and are now converting it into an automatically operated station.

Before the First World War Latvia was part of Russia. There was large-scale industry in the cities, mainly in Riga. This industry processed raw materials imported from foreign countries. It supplied a considerable amount of machinery, railway cars, rubber products and fabrics which were sold on the vast Russian market. Latvia was one of the most highly developed industrial districts of Russia.
Latvian ports Russia shipped a considerable proportion of her exports to foreign markets.

In 1917, the working people of Latvia established Soviet government in their own country. During the civil war, the local bourgeoisie won the upper hand with the aid of foreign interventionists and, contrary to the will of her working people, Latvia was severed from Russia. Latvia thus lost her old market; her industry declined, many factories were closed and the workers were thrown into the ranks of the unemployed. Large-scale heavy industry was replaced by small production of textiles, tobacco and food from local materials. Butter, cheese and cured ham were produced mainly for export. Livestock breeding became the principal branch of economy. Latvia became dependent upon the big capitalist countries.

In 1940, the working people restored Soviet government in Latvia, and in August, 1940, the Latvian SSR became a member of the USSR. Its national economy became part of the united and rapidly growing economy of the Soviet Union.

Much has been done to restore and advance national economy in Soviet Latvia in the postwar Five-Year Plan period. The factories ruined during the war have been restored and new industrial enterprises have been built. The cultivated areas have been expanded. The seaports of the republic are functioning again.

The postwar Five-Year Plan was a plan of industrialization for Latvia. The republic now has a rapidly growing light industry as well as a heavy industry. The production of machines is particularly impor-
tant. The metal working and machine building industries have advanced to the leading place in the republic.

The Five-Year Plan for gross industrial output was completed in Latvia in 3 years and 10 months. In the course of the last five years industrial production has been increased to more than double the prewar volume.

Sea fishing is also being developed. The coast is dotted with fishermen’s settlements. Sprats are now being caught in the stormy sea not by individual fishermen with primitive implements, but by fishermen who have formed new co-operatives. The Soviet authorities have provided them not only with new sailboats, but also with motor boats and trawlers. New fish processing factories have been built all along the coast.

Dairy farming, pig breeding and poultry farming are the principal branches of agriculture in Latvia. Potatoes, fodder grasses, rye and wheat are cultivated in the fields of the republic, and horticulture is well advanced there.

Never before have machines been used in the fields of Latvia in such great numbers as today. There are 100 machine and tractor stations in the republic and their tractor park has grown more than seven times larger during the five-year period.

The peasants of Latvia, on their own initiative, have completely collectivized farming.

Under bourgeois rule the peasants lived in hamlets. This made it easier for the kulaks to ruin and enslave the individual households.

The scattered nature of the farmsteads hinders the advancement of collective farming. It is difficult to conduct co-operative farming if one household is separated from another by five or ten miles. It takes much time to reach the club, lecture hall or library after work, and these facilities have become indispensable to present-day life in the Latvian countryside.

The scattered hamlets will soon become a relic of the past. The lone house on the forest edge is a picture that is vanishing in Latvia.

Consulting an architect, the peasants select a favorable site and, with the aid of the State, they launch the construction of a collective farm village. It is a well planned settlement with livestock ranches, barns and studs, and sheds for hay. Rural hydroelectric power plants are being built. The peasants are building offices for the collective farm administration as well as homes. The houses are either built anew or moved from the farmsteads. Trees are planted along the streets, and fruit orchards are being laid out.

The removal from a hamlet to a new cultured settlement which has a school, nurseries and electric lights is an occasion for celebration in the peasant homes.
Riga, capital of Soviet Latvia, is one of the oldest cities in Europe. Along with blocks of modern apartment houses, the city has narrow crooked lanes, ancient houses with steep tile roofs, old cathedrals and castles that have survived through the ages.

The tall ancient towers seem to be immersed in deep slumber. But the towers of our days, the factory chimneys, are very much alive, puffing up smoke which is swept away by the wind blowing from the sea. The factories of Riga, the biggest industrial center in the Baltic, are working at full capacity.

During the postwar Five-Year Plan period the factories and mills of Riga received the most up-to-date machines from Moscow, Leningrad, Kharkov and other brother-cities of Latvian Riga. The formerly lifeless factories have been revived. Even the Provodnik Plant, once famous throughout Russia but idle and ruined ever since the First World War, has been restored to production. A big new plant now stands in place of the ruins.

Moreover, industrial production supplied by the enterprises of Soviet Riga, the new factories as well as the old ones, is no longer confined to fabrics and confectionery as it was under the rule of the Latvian bourgeoisie. Riga's industry supplies radio sets, telephone equipment, engines, and cars for electric railways. These comfortable coaches are turned out by a factory which before the victory of Soviet government produced locks and horseshoe nails.

Labor productivity in Latvian industry increased two and one-half times in the postwar period.
Latvian workers are rapidly mastering new techniques. And they number thousands of Stakhanovites in their ranks.

Among the popular Stakhanovite workers of Latvia is Emilia Vaghina, a worker of the Bolshevichka Factory. She has completed more than ten annual production quotas in the five-year period.

Asked why she did not work like this in bourgeois Latvia, she replied: “My work today is of interest to the people for whose benefit I am laboring.”

Riga is bubbling with the new Soviet life. The scientific institutes are conducting research on problems connected with the realization of the national economic plans. The theaters are producing plays on current subjects.

Riga is a beautiful city, but it will be made still more beautiful. Latvian architects, in co-operation with the architects of Leningrad, have prepared a project for a new square, to be named Republic Square, on the bank of the Daugava. Monumental buildings for government offices and the Academy of Sciences will be erected in the midst of a park.

The citizens of Riga are continually improving and beautifying their city. From early spring until late in the autumn the air of Riga is filled with the fragrance of flowers. And more flowers are being constantly planted, as well as new trees—lindens, maples and chestnuts.

A park of culture and rest was created in Riga in the summer of 1949. It has been laid out in the midst of a dense pine grove on the shores of the wide Lake Kish.

Other wonderful places for rest and recreation are the seashore health resorts in the neighborhood of Riga.

Culture is being rapidly advanced in Soviet Latvia, which now has an Academy of Sciences. There are seven institutions of higher learning in Riga. The basic works of Marx and Engels and the collected works of Lenin and Stalin are published in Latvia in huge editions.

The national poet of Latvia, Janis Rajnis, the fighter for the people’s happiness, dreamed of “a free Latvia in a free Russia.” The dreams cherished by the finest representatives of the Baltic have come true. Free Latvia, free Estonia and free Lithuania are thriving and flourishing in the free Soviet Union.
Kirghiz SSR

Soviets Kirghizia is situated in the eastern part of Central Asia. In the south and east the republic borders on the west Chinese province of Sinkiang.

Kirghizia has a territory of 76,000 square miles and a population of 1,500,000. In addition to the Kirghiz, who comprise the majority, the population of the republic includes Russians, Ukrainians and Uzbeks.

The Kirghiz national costume consists of a padded jacket, soft boots with leather overshoes and a white felt hat with a black-lined brim. The holiday headdress of married women is a tall turban draped of white linen bands.

Kirghizia is a highland country. Rising gradually from west to east, the Tien Shan Mountains reach a height of more than 23,000 feet above sea level on the border with China.

The Khan Tengri, which rises to 22,944 feet was always considered
the highest peak in the Tien Shan. But a still higher peak was discovered in the neighborhood of Khan Tengri by Soviet scientists in 1943. In order to photograph the peak from the air it was necessary to fly at an altitude of almost 33,000 feet.

The new peak called “Victory Peak,” stands 24,403 feet high. It is one of the tallest peaks on the globe.

The mountains of Kirghizia are covered with snow and glaciers. Excellent alpine pastures stretch along the slopes below the snow line. In the summer, when there is an abundance of sunshine and moisture, the pastures sprout forth with thick tall grasses. The northern slopes are covered with forests of stately Tien Shan firs.

The mountains with their rich grazing grounds occupy most of the territory of Kirghizia. Livestock farming conducted in the highlands is the principal branch of husbandry in the republic.

The cattle, horses, sheep and goats of the collective and state farms graze in the mountains throughout the summer. They are sometimes driven along the steep snow-covered passes to sheltered places between the mountains where natural fodder is available all year. But most of the cattle are driven in winter to the valleys where the settlements are situated. And in the spring, when the snow melts away from the alpine pastures and they blossom out with grasses and flowers, the cattle are taken back to the mountains. The collective farm shepherds follow the herds with portable felt tents borne by pack animals.

There are the summer mountain pastures, with cattle grazing on
the slopes. The horses are kept slightly lower, and the sheep flocks higher up in the mountains.

Tents are pitched near a stream in the valley. Their round wooden frames are draped with felt. In the center of the tent is a bonfire; dry twigs or "kizyak" (dry animal dung) are used as fuel. The beds are made on the floor next to the walls. Felt mats are spread on the floor and the blankets and pillows placed upon them. Hanging on the walls are bridles, hunting rifles and skins with kumys—mare's milk—which has a sour, sharp taste.

Tents like these were used by the Kirghiz in the past when they lived in nomad camps. But what a difference there is now in their whole mode of life, in the entire system of their economy!

Here we may see a small radio station for communicating with the district center by wireless telephone. There are mobile creameries, veterinary hospitals, field stalls of the co-operative shops, dispensaries, tent clubs which conduct educational activities, and even mobile cinemas.

Agriculture is being rapidly advanced in Kirghizia. The cultivated areas in the republic have expanded to nearly double the 1913 size, and a fourfold increase has been effected in the area under technical crops.

Almost all of Kirghizia is highlands. Its surface dropping only in the north, in the Chu and Talas valleys, and in the west, a part of the Fergana Valley. In these lower districts the climate is drier and warmer. The fertile fields in this area are irrigated.

Cotton, rice and fruit are grown in the Fergana Valley. Different
varieties of hemp are cultivated in the Chu Valley. Their fiber is used for the production of sackcloth and rope. The sugar beet has found a new home in the Chu Valley. Although it is a new crop in Kirghizia, the sugar beet yields in the republic are among the highest in the world. Refineries have been built there, and Kirghizia now has its own sugar. Wheat also occupies a considerable area in the Chu Valley.

As in the whole of the USSR, the appearance of the village is rapidly changing in Soviet Kirghizia. The collective farms have doubled their incomes in the course of five years. The result is extensive construction in the countryside.

There is, for example, the village of Darkhany on the southern shore of Lake Issyk Kul. It does not resemble the old Kirghiz village. Electric wires stretch high over the streets. Electricity supplied by the village power plant drives the collective farm sawmill and flour mill and feeds the radio center. The village has a high school, a club and a public park. New cottages, containing several rooms each, are being built for the collective farmers.

Kirghizia's industry has been built almost entirely under Soviet government. There was no industry in prerevolutionary Kirghizia, if we discount 55 primitive handicraft shops. There are at present in the republic more than 400 big industrial enterprises equipped with the latest machines.

Valuable metal ores are mined in the Kirghiz Republic. There are several big coal mines in the Fergana Valley, and the output of coal has grown eightfold in the Soviet period. Oil fields have also been discovered there. The Kirghiz SSR is promoting the production of sugar, wool and silk.

During the postwar five-year period industrial output in Kirghizia has increased to a point which is double the prewar level. The share of industrial production in the republic's national economy has grown to 70 per cent.

The capital of the Kirghiz SSR is Frunze. It is situated in the north of the republic, in the Chu Valley. In the Soviet period the city has greatly expanded. A large-scale industry has been built up there and new railway lines link the city with the railway arteries of the USSR. During the period of the postwar Five-Year Plan, the capital of Kirghizia was linked by railway with the area of Lake Issyk Kul.

In the center of the city, in place of a former wasteland there is a big square with flowers. The asphalted streets are framed in rows of poplars. The meat packing plant, cloth mill, machinery plants and other industrial enterprises built on the outskirts in Soviet years are being steadily expanded.

Frunze is thriving with the rich cultural life of the regenerated Kirghiz people.
In the national theater we may view the Kirghiz opera *Ai-Churek*, let us say, and the Russian opera *Eugene Onegin*. The heroic epic poem of the Kirghiz people, *Manas*, has been recorded for publication: the folk bard Sayakbai Karalayev dictated 379,000 lines of poetry memorized by him.

The authors of Soviet Kirghizia are picturing our contemporary period in their works. Their heroes are people like the former farm laborer Surakan Kainazarova who raised a record crop of sugar beet, the operator Victor Filimonov who brought his excavator to a slope 1,000 feet high in order to clear the site for a railway across the mountains into the heart of the Kirghiz highlands; men like Talgat Begeldinov who during the war against fascism received two awards of the title of Hero of the Soviet Union. A bust of Begeldinov may be seen in Stalin Street of Frunze.

Before the October Revolution, the Kirghiz were dying out. They led a downtrodden existence and lacked a written language. They spent almost all their lives on horseback. They received no schooling and were doctored by quacks. There was not a single college-trained Kirghiz. All this seems incredible at present, when the Kirghiz have promoted from their midst many talented writers, musicians, artists, actors and scientists. And many of these people were born in tents.

The rays of Soviet culture, spreading from the capital to all parts of the republic, kindle the fires of a new life. Sessions of the branch of the Academy of Sciences are held in Kirghiz collective farms; operas are produced on the village stage; there are collective farm cultural centers with libraries and newspapers; and radio broadcasts are heard in the sky-high pastures of Tien Shan, where the age-old quiet was broken in the past only by the whistling of the marmot and the neighing of the nomad’s horse.
Soviet Tajikistan is situated in the southeast of Central Asia, where it borders on the west Chinese province of Sinkiang and on Afghanistan.

The republic has a territory of 55,000 square miles and a population of 1,500,000. The majority of its population is made up of Tajiks, a people who for ages have been leading a settled existence, agriculture being their principal occupation. The population of the republic also includes Russians, Kirghiz and Uzbeks.

Tajikistan is a highland country, its territory rising from the northwest to the southeast. In the lower regions are arid valleys with a hot climate: the Fergana Valley in the north and the Hissar and Vakhsh valleys in the west. Cotton, lucerne, rice, fruit (particularly apricots), and mulberries are grown in the irrigated fields of the oases. The summers are sultry, especially in the valleys which are protected from the north and exposed to the scorching Afghan wind from the south.

This lower part of Tajikistan occupies a comparatively small area but it is densely populated. Irrigated cotton farming is the principal branch of agriculture in the republic.

The irrigated area has been considerably expanded in Tajikistan. The exceptionally high cotton crop harvested in 1950 advanced Tajikistan to first place in the USSR as regards the cotton yield and to second place with respect to the gross crop of cotton.

The gross cotton crop harvested in Tajikistan in 1950 was considerably in excess of the Five-Year Plan provisions.

The formerly desolate Vakhsh Valley has been converted into a flourishing region of cotton in Soviet years. A great modern irrigation system has been built there. The formerly barren sun-scorched area is now a region of fertile fields, new roads and collective farm settlements.

There is a scientific station for dry subtropical agriculture in the Vakhsh Valley. Figs, pomegranates, vines and lemon trees are cultivated in irrigated trenches. In the hot summer days the trenches are covered with gauze or matting.
We may see new subtropical plants not only in the neighborhood of the station, but also on the collective farms in the different valleys of the republic. Lemon and eucalyptus seedlings are brought there by plane from Georgia. And where the winter is very warm we will also find plantations of sugar cane, which is used for making rum. All these plants are new in Central Asia.

Most of the settlements in the Vakhsh Valley are new. The new settlers and collective farmers received loans from the State for building their homes and purchasing cattle.

There are also settlers from the mountains in the new villages of the Vakhsh Valley. Many highlanders have moved down from the deep gorges, where their ancestors fled centuries ago when they were driven from the agricultural plains by nomads.

The elevated southeastern part of Tajikistan occupies a considerable territory, but it is sparsely populated. In the mountains, where rugged rocks alternate with groves of juniper and pistachio trees, the summers are cooler and more humid. Wheat and barley are cultivated in this area. The fields frequently stretch along steep slopes amid the rocks and have been cleared and cultivated by the Tajiks at the cost of tremendous effort. At no other place in the USSR are the fields situated so high in the mountains as here.

Cattle graze high on the mountain slopes in summer and in the valleys below in winter.

Tall mountains are situated in the east of Tajikistan, where the highland region of the Pamirs lies.

Before the Revolution, there were practically no roads in the mountains of Tajikistan, with the exception of the paths followed by pack animals. The region now has fine motor roads and air lines. The planes fly over the mountains or maneuver through the mountain corridors. Collective farmers, agronomists and Soviet officials avail themselves of the regular air services which use planes of the latest models. For its dense network of air lines Tajikistan is well on a par with the other republics of the Soviet Union.

Narrow, deep gorges cut across the west Pamirs. Swift streams rush down through them. High amid the rocks one may see fields, houses built of stone, and occasional mulberry and apricot trees.

In the places situated still higher, the mountain rivers are spanned by swinging bridges built of logs and held in place by rocks. In some parts there are not even any paths among the steep rocks. The only passage is a narrow shelf made up of poles driven into cracks in the rocks and covered with brush and earth. These makeshift bridges are suspended at dizzy heights over the precipices.

The gorges of the western Pamirs are inhabited by Tajik high-
landers. The most ancient inhabitants of Central Asia, they were considered the most impoverished in the past. Their staple food was a pancake bread made of flour in the best times, but more frequently of milled mulberries.

At present there are prosperous collective farms in the region. They breed cattle and cultivate barley, as well as crops which are new to the Pamirs, the potato, for example. Agriculture is being constantly pushed higher up into the mountains.

In the mountains of the west Pamirs, lies Khorog, the center of the Gorno-Badakhshan Autonomous Region. It is a new city, with a high school, teachers’ college, printshop and botanical garden. In the local theater we may attend a performance of Schiller’s *Love and Intrigue*, let us say, in the Tajik language. A hydroelectric station has been built in the neighborhood of the city.

Although Khorog is situated at a height of 6,900 feet above sea level, it lies in a “well,” surrounded on all sides by tall mountains. Planes bringing passengers and mail land there regularly, their wings almost touching the rocks.

In the heart of the Pamirs lies a most inaccessible region of glaciers. Towering in its center, at the crossing of mighty mountain ranges, is the tallest peak in the Soviet Union. Soviet alpine climbers have reached this peak, which rises to 24,574 feet above sea level.

This majestic peak bears the name of Stalin.

Stretching for more than 60 miles through the mountains in the neighborhood of this peak is the Fedchenko Glacier, which looks from the air like a white ribbon with black stripes. It is the largest glacier on the globe outside the Arctic.

Soviet explorers were the first to draw accurate maps of the highland region in the heart of the Pamirs. A hydrometeorological station has been established near the Fedchenko Glacier at a height of 13,776 feet, and meteorologists conduct observations there the year round.

The east Pamirs differ in many respects from the western section. It is an upland with a very high base. There are no deep gorges, and flat cup-like valleys lie at a height of 13,000 feet above sea level.

The valleys of the east Pamirs are inhabited by Kirghiz. Their cattle graze on the mountain slopes in summer as well as in winter. The tall mountains surrounding the east Pamirs block the passage of clouds and there is hardly any snowfall in the valleys, although in the foothills the snow drifts rise to the top of the telegraph poles.

The air in the east Pamirs is very rarified; when walking quickly, one begins to gasp for breath. Because of the low atmospheric pressure, water boils at a temperature below 212° F. In summer, sweltering heat prevails during the day, but the streams freeze over at night. Strong gusts, sweeping sand before them, frequently blow in the
Pamirs. Holes may be seen in the rocks—the work of the wind in the course of thousands of years.

In the old days it took camel caravans weeks to reach places which may now be quickly reached by motor car.

The workers of the scientific station in the Chechekty area have proved that field husbandry is possible in the east Pamirs. Thanks to their efforts, the local Kirghiz collective farmers are now planting fields there.

The land looks more like compact layers of old ashes than soil. And yet it is on this soil, on the cornice of the "roof of the world" that Soviet man has raised roots and sheaves. The more furious the resistance of nature, the greater is the victory over it.

No more than 200 workers were occupied in industry in prerevolutionary Tajikistan. Thousands of workers are now employed in the socialist industry built up in the republic under the Five-Year Plans. There is a large-scale industry for processing agricultural raw materials; textiles are produced at the big mills in Stalinabad, silk is manufactured in Leninabad, and the local canneries supply canned fruit. The production of oil, coal and ores has been promoted, and hydroelectric stations have been built.

The growth of industrial production continued in Tajikistan under the postwar Five-Year Plan, particularly in the ore mining, textile and canning industries. Most of the enterprises of the republic surpassed to a considerable extent the provisions of the Five-Year Plan.
STALINABAD, capital of the Tajik SSR may serve as an illustration of the changes that have taken place in Tajikistan, which has now become a Soviet republic.

In place of the old village of Diushambe with its clay huts stands a modern city with wide asphalted streets, tall buildings, green parks and a large reservoir.

A dance by S. Zadhindova, People's Artist of the Tajik SSR.

Books by the world's classical authors are published in the Tajik language. A Stalin Prize was awarded to the Stalinabad theater for the production of the ballet *Leili and Mejnun* in 1948; the producers and actors were all Tajiks.

Stalinabad is the seat of the Academy of Sciences of the Tajik SSR. A university has been opened there in addition to four other
institutions of higher learning. The university educates geologists, physicists, historians, philologists and lawyers.

The dean of the university, Zarif Rajabov, D.Sc., a Tajik historian, is the son of a peasant. Zarif Rajabov's four brothers received M. S. degrees in chemistry, law, economics and history and two of his sisters have become schoolteachers. All the other members of the family received at least a secondary education. And we must bear in mind that before the Revolution only one out of 200 Tajiks could read and write.

The Tajiks are a people with an ancient culture. Their history contains a record of great agrarian states, big cities, stubborn battles against hordes of conquerors and bold revolts against the feudal lords. This people has given the world many great poets and thinkers, such as Firdausi, author of the immortal Shah Namah.

But the forces of the people were fettered by a heavy yoke. Before the October Revolution the region was the domain of the Emir of Bokhara. He called the land of the Tajiks "Eastern Bokhara" and contemptuously referred to the people as a "herd."

The 72-year-old author Sadreddin Aini, the founder of Soviet Tajik literature, a Stalin Prize winner and president of the Academy of Sciences of the Tajik SSR still has on his back the scars of old wounds. They were caused by blows of the stick administered by order of the emir.

The emir and his district governors left the peasant only a small portion of his meager harvest. The daily budget of many Tajik families was only a few kopecks.

Soviet government brought salvation to the Tajik people. With the assistance of the great Russian people they have advanced to socialism. Tajikistan became a free state. A large-scale industry was built up in a country of impoverished villages. Flourishing fields now stretch in the formerly barren and sun-scorched areas. The advanced collective farms have incomes running into millions of rubles.
Armenian SSR

Soviet Armenia is situated in the south central part of Transcaucasia. It borders on Iran and Turkey.

The Armenian SSR has a territory of 11,500 square miles and a population of 1,300,000. In addition to the Armenians who comprise the majority, the population of the republic includes Russians, Kurds and Azerbaijanians.

Armenia is a country with a very ancient culture. Memorials of ancient times may be seen everywhere in the mountains: old fortresses, ruins of medieval cities, cave abodes and ancient bridges. The ancient temples reflect the specific features of Armenian architecture: solid walls made of colored tiles, small windows, the conic stone cupola, the absence of a projection for the altar, and the refined stone carving done in relief.

Armenia's culture has its source in remote antiquity. The Urartu, an Eastern state which existed thirty centuries ago, one of the oldest states in the world, extended into the present territory of Armenia. Buildings dating from the 4th and 5th centuries, the oldest buildings in the USSR, have survived through the ages in Armenia. The beautiful heroic poem David of Sasun has been recited among the Armenian people for more than a thousand years.

The Armenians have defended their independence in battle against many strong invaders, including the Assyrians, Romans, Arabs, Mongols, Persians and Turks. Time and time again have Armenia's cities been levelled to the ground by enemies who killed the people or made them captives. But the spirit of the people remained unbroken; Armenia's culture survived and produced great masterpieces in literature and architecture, in folk poetry and music.

Only the Great October Socialist Revolution and the formation of the Armenian Soviet Socialist Republic brought independence, freedom and equal rights to the Armenians. Like all the republics of the Soviet Union, it is a country with a modern industry, collectivized agriculture and advanced socialist culture.

A large-scale industry has been built up in Armenia under the
Stalin Five-Year Plans. It is connected with the mining of minerals and with the processing of agricultural produce.

The biggest industrial center of Armenia is its capital, Yerevan. Before the Revolution the only manufactured product of the city was cognac. The plant owned by the merchant Shustov employed only 100 workers. Many big enterprises have been built in Armenia under Soviet government. They produce tires, compressors, cables, electric transformers, woolens, tinned goods, clocks, and turbines for rural hydroelectric stations.

A big industrial center has developed at Leninakan, where big cotton mills and a meat packing plant were built in Soviet years.

The first textile mill was brought to Armenia from central Russia. This initiated socialist industrialization in the city, and was a manifestation of the fraternal aid of the Russian people.

Armenia is outstanding among the Transcaucasian republics for the production of copper.

Rising in the center of Armenia is the tallest mountain in the republic, Aragats, an extinct volcano. Collective farm herds graze on its slopes, and the scientific station established near its summit conducts observations throughout the year. A new industrial city, Artik, has been built at the foot of the mountain. Tufa, a rose-colored, porous stone which lends itself readily to sawing, is quarried in this neighborhood. Artik tufa has been used for many construction undertakings in the

Yerevan, capital of the Armenian Soviet Socialist Republic.
The engine room of the Dnieper Hydroelectric Station is built of tufa brought from Artik. On the other side of the Araks, which is a border river, stands another extinct volcano, the Ararat, still taller than the Aragats.

The Five-Year Plan provisions for industrial production were fulfilled by Armenia ahead of schedule. Gross industrial output increased to two and one half times the prewar (1940) volume, whereas the Five-Year Plan called for an increase of only 2.1 times.

The cables and woolen cloth supplied by Yerevan, the superphosphates of Alaverdi, the canned goods of Oktemberyan and sugar of Amamlu are produced in factories and refineries built during the postwar Five-Year Plan period.

The factories and mills of Armenia receive electric power from hydroelectric stations built on the mountain rivers. Steps have been taken to utilize the resources of Lake Sevan, a big lake high up in the mountains. A part of the water gradually falls from Sevan into the Zanga River on which hydroelectric stations have been built. The water drives the turbines of the stations and irrigates new cotton plantations and vineyards.

Armenia lies on a high upland. Her flat valleys, some rocky, some overgrown with grass, are surrounded by mountain ranges and extinct volcanoes. The mountains bar the way to the moist winds, and the climate here is dry and continental. The summers are hot and the winters comparatively cold.

Livestock farming and the cultivation of cereals are widespread in the highland districts of the republic. The inhabitants of this area breed sheep, make cheese, and grow barley and wheat.

The highlands are sparsely populated, however, unlike the valleys of the republic, where the warm climate combined with irrigation create favorable conditions for raising bumper crops of cotton, grapes and fruit.

The summers are sultry and rainfall is negligible. Where irrigation is lacking, the sun-scorched valleys are lifeless and barren.

But these barren areas are gradually diminishing in size as new canals are built. Highlanders come down from the mountains to settle on the newly irrigated territories. All the low districts of Armenia will be converted into green valleys in the near future.

Armenia has successfully completed the Five-Year Plan provisions for agriculture. The efficiency of her agriculture is being raised from year to year. Cotton, grapes and fruit yield high incomes to the collective farms.

Illiteracy has been wiped out among the adult peasants, and nearly all the young people receive a secondary school education.
The Armenian village is rapidly changing, and construction continues uninterruptedly. The soot-stained and smoke-filled clay and stone huts of the past are giving way to fine cottages with large windows and porches. A village without electric lights is considered backward today. The springs near the roads are encased in beautiful stone or marble niches. Even these country springs tell the story that the pride of Armenia, her ancient stone architecture, is again flourishing. But this art is not dedicated to the kings as it was in the past, but to the people.

The new people's architecture, the social architecture, may be seen in full splendor in Yerevan.

Yerevan, the capital of Soviet Armenia, lies in a valley framed by mountains. It is very hot there at noon but the nights are cool. In the south, the snow-capped Ararat rises beyond the border. It looms white in daylight, rose-colored at sundown and blue in the moonlight. The mountain is 35 miles away, but in the streets of Yerevan it looks as if it towers right over the city.

The changes that have taken place in Yerevan in recent years are perhaps more striking than in any other old city of the Caucasus. The population of Yerevan today is ten times greater than before the Revolution. But the people changed no less than the significance of the city and its appearance.

Old Yerevan was an unsightly town with narrow streets, flat roofs and clay huts. It was called a "clay pot." Present-day Yerevan is a city with beautiful architecture, wide avenues and an abundance of greenery.

Yerevan has new blocks of houses built of rose, yellow, blue, orange, black and silvery stone, and more buildings are being constantly added. There is the majestic Government Building with its great proportions subdued by excellent architecture. The new opera and ballet theater is one of the most beautiful and spacious in the Soviet Union.

A new building is under construction for the Matenadaran, the archive of manuscripts. Its size and architecture make it a veritable palace. The Matenadaran has a collection of about ten thousand manuscripts, which include exceptionally valuable works of scientists, poets and translators of ancient Armenia. Some of the manuscripts are 1,500 years old.

The time-bleached yellow parchments attest to the high level of Armenian culture in the distant past; and the care taken of these manuscripts and painstaking work on them are indicative of the present-day Soviet culture of Armenia, which, while building the future, takes everything that is best from the past.

In order to see this Soviet culture in full flower, we must look into the lecture halls of the higher schools, the auditoriums of the theaters
Restoration of an ancient, decaying manuscript in Yerevan.

and the halls of the Academy of Sciences, which did not even exist in prerevolutionary Yerevan.

The Armenian Academy of Sciences is making studies of cosmic rays and publishing voluminous dictionaries of the Armenian language; the subjects of its research range from Artik tufa to astrophysics. The textbook in astrophysics written by the president of the Academy, Ambartsumyan, is used in all the universities of the world.

Like all the republics of the land of Soviets, Armenia has educated a new generation of innovators in production.

Here is one example. It is 90 miles from Leninakan to Yerevan. Trains covering this distance usually make two stops for water. But if we were travelling on a train driven by Abadzhan, the famous locomotive engineer of Leninakan, the distance would probably be covered non-stop. This worker approaches the engine like an inventor and scientist and makes it perform in a way that the designer did not foresee. He drives his engine all the way to Yerevan with the water supply taken on at Leninakan. This innovator is highly esteemed in Armenia. He is a deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR. Other locomotive engineers are learning from his experience.

The example of Abadzhan, a worker who has risen to the level of a scientist, is illustrative of the gradual obliteration of the distance between manual and mental labor in the USSR.

At Yerevan, which is the seat of scientific institutes, higher schools, theaters, the most up-to-date factories and beautiful buildings, there is
a magnificent monument on the high Kanaker Plateau. On a tall pedestal stands a bronze statue of the man who secured the happiness of the Armenian people, and of all the Soviet people, Joseph Stalin. The monumental statue is visible in the far-away fields and mountains of Armenia.

Thousands of Armenian families who decades ago fled from Turkish terror to different countries of the world are applying for repatriation to Soviet Armenia. The Motherland heartily welcomes her children. Alighting from the trains as they cross the Armenian border, the people kneel down reverently and kiss their native soil.

In their homeland they find every care and attention. Settlements built for them, with fine cottages nestling amid orchards and flowers, may be seen in the vicinity of Yerevan.

Some of these new Soviet citizens join collective farms, while others find employment in industry.

Oppression and suffering have been banished to the realm of the past.

"Only the idea of Soviet government," declared Stalin, "brought peace and the possibility for national regeneration to Armenia."
Turkmen SSR

SOVIET Turkmenistan is bounded by the Caspian Sea in the west and the Amu Darya River in the east. In the south the republic borders on Iran and Afghanistan.

The territory of Turkmenistan, 187,000 square miles, is almost equal to that of Spain. The republic has a population of 1,300,000. The Turkmen make up the majority of the population, but there are also Russians, Kazakhs and Uzbeks in the republic.

In addition to the ordinary European clothes, we may see national costumes worn in the streets of the Turkmenian villages and cities. The tall dark-complexioned men wear long dark red robes and big caps of black fur. Many of the men wear beards. The women wear shades of dark red. Their dresses are trimmed with silver ornaments. Now and then we meet a woman with a tall headdress under the shawl which drops to her shoulders.

Turkmenistan is a land with very little water and much sunshine. Traveling through Turkmenistan by rail, one frequently sees flat-cars with huge tanks in which fresh water is transported to the different stations. There is hardly any rainfall in Turkmenistan during the summer months. And even if a wind brings on clouds the raindrops evaporate before reaching the ground. Sweltering heat prevails in Turkmenistan in summer.

The shortage of moisture and the hot climate convert more than 75 per cent of Turkmenistan into a desolate desert. This desert is the Kara-Kum, one of the largest sand deserts on the globe.

There is nothing but clusters of coarse prickly grass on the cracked, sun parched ground. Here and there one comes across the dry crooked saksaul, a tree which gives no shade. And there are dunes of shifting sand.

At first glance it may seem that there is no place more barren than this sand desert. Get off the hot railroad coach at a station and touch the sand and you will immediately pull back your hand. On a summer day the sand is heated to nearly 185° F.

But the sand desert is not lifeless. It has an energetic life of its
own. When the hottest hours of the day are past, the shining backs of lizards may be seen wriggling in the sand, and birds flutter in the air.

Try to pluck a plant and you will find a very long root, much longer than the stem. Therein lies the strength of life. The long root feeds the plant with moisture which is always present, even under the hottest sand. And where the sand is not torn up by the hoofs of cattle, the desert is covered with grass. True, it is very sparse and dry, but this grass furnishes fodder for the Karakul sheep, which are well adapted to life in the desert and yield valuable skins, and for the camel, that unpretentious animal used in the desert as a beast of burden. Excellent racing horses are also bred in Turkmenistan.

Before the Revolution, the Turkmen led a nomad existence, following their herds through the desert from well to well. They never stocked in hay and were forever dependent upon the desert.

Livestock farming is now conducted along well organized lines. The nomads have settled, and the herds are driven to the seasonal pastures over strictly defined routes recommended by scientists. Special wintering ranches are built and stocks of fodder are prepared for the cattle. New wells are constantly being dug, some of them as much as 600 feet deep. Special state pasture-and-well stations assist the collective farms in digging the wells. Windmills are used on the collective and state farms for pumping subsoil water to the surface.

Today, in the very heart of Kara-Kum, there are cultured settlements where people live and work. They are transforming the desert in accordance with their own will.

In places where the sand has been broken up by irrational methods of pasturing and scattered by the wind so that it menaces the fields and oases, it is reinforced by plants, the seed being disseminated from the air.

The principal occupation in the non-irrigated desert is livestock farming, but field husbandry has been initiated there of late. Special scientific stations have developed agricultural methods for the desert. At Repetek, for example, vines grow five feet high in special trenches, and the yield of watermelons is dozens of tons per acre.

The Kara-Kum Desert occupies the largest area in Turkmenia and the population is concentrated mainly in the irrigated oases. These oases are scattered through the south of the republic, along the railway, where rivers flowing from the Kopet Dagh Mountains and the Parapamiz spurs irrigate sections of the desert; there are also oases in the east and northeast, where the Amu Darya, flowing along the border of Turkmenistan, gives some of its water to the irrigation canals.

Irrigation has been the essential factor in the development of
the principal branch of agriculture in the republic, irrigated cotton farming. Irrigation and an abundance of sunshine create favorable conditions for the cultivation of superior varieties of cotton with a long silky fiber.

Turkmenistan is also famous for its sweet kishmish, a special variety of seedless grapes, and fragrant honeydew melons, called "guliabi," which means "rose nectar."

The valleys in the southwest of Turkmenistan, protected from the north winds, have a subtropical climate and are practically free from frosts. The collective and state farms in these districts of Turkmenia cultivate extensive plantations of olives, fig trees and date palms. Thus far this is the only place in the USSR where the date palm yields fruit. The USSR now has its own dates, which are as sweet as those grown in far-off Arabia.

The irrigated areas have been expanded in Turkmenia, and cotton and livestock farming have been further advanced under the postwar Five-Year Plan. During the last year of this five-year period, the cotton farmers of Turkmenistan raised the highest cotton crop ever known.

The Turkmenian collective farmers are becoming ever more prosperous. Sixty-seven per cent of the collective farms in the republic were on record as millionaires in 1950 (a collective farm whose income runs into millions of rubles is called a millionaire).
Large-scale industry has been built up in Turkmenistan in Soviet years.

Oil is extracted at Nebit Dag, in the west of the republic. A considerable increase in the production of oil was effected in Turkmenistan during the postwar Five-Year Plan period. The provisions of this plan have been considerably surpassed by the oil workers of Turkmenia. An oil refining industry has been launched there.

There has been a more than twofold increase in gross industrial production in Turkmenistan in the five-year period.

In the past, only camel caravans could penetrate into the interior of the desert, whereas today it may be reached by motor car or by air. The plane covers within half an hour the distance which took many days to cover in the past.

In general the airplane has become the most widespread means of conveyance in Turkmenistan. In the old days it took a camel caravan twenty days to cover the route from Ashkhabad to the oasis in the lower Amu Darya area, whereas the airship does it in two or three hours. And it is not uncommon for a collective farm near Tashauz to charter a plane for taking the peasants across the Kara-Kum to attend a performance in the theater at Ashkhabad.

New enterprises have been built in Turkmenistan for processing local agricultural produce. A big textile mill built at Ashkhabad produces fabrics from Turkmenian cotton. Absorbent cotton, wool and silk yarn are supplied by factories in other cities of Turkmenia.

Steps have been taken to tap the resources of Kara Bogaz Gol, a bay of the Caspian Sea. Under the scorching sunshine this wide shallow bay evaporates like a boiling kettle. This evaporation leaves a thick solution of salts, the most important of which is Glauber's salt (sodium sulfate decahydrate). It crystallizes in winter and is swept ashore by storms. There it loses its moisture and piles up in white mirabilite rocks.

Enterprises have been established at Kara Bogaz Gol for exploiting this salt rock, which is used in the production of sulfuric acid, soda and glass. It is collected and delivered to the seaports.

Until quite recently there was a ribbon-like stream of sea water flowing along the narrow bay from the Caspian to Kara Bogaz Gol to replenish the evaporated moisture. This flow of water into the closed bay, which seemed inexplicable at first glance, has earned Kara Bogaz the name "black jaw."

The level of the Caspian Sea however, has fallen of late. Water no longer flows steadily into the bay. The process of crystallization of salts in the bay has changed.

It has become necessary to pump water into special reservoirs.
in order to create the necessary conditions for the crystallization of mirabilite.

Soviet people have come to this utterly desolate, barren area and settled on it. Apple and pear orchards, vineyards and melon plantations have been planted on the sands. The Michurinite farmers are raising watermelons in irrigated trenches, one melon growing to more than 70 pounds in weight.

Other industrial centers are also being developed. Krasnovodsk, for example, has become a big industrial city.

Until recently there was no greenery at all in Krasnovodsk. Its gray houses blended with the rugged mountains in the neighborhood.

Mulberry, elm and other trees may now be seen in the streets and squares of the city. Tall, beautiful apartment houses and palaces of culture have been built around the new factories.

The capital of the Turkmen SSR is Ashkhabad. It stands in the Kopet Dagh foothills on the edge of the desert. Ashkhabad is a big city with wide thoroughfares. In the bright sunshine its houses shine dazzling white amid the greenery. Canals built of concrete in order to prevent the water from trickling through into the sands extend along the streets.

In the early hours of October 6, 1948 an earthquake caused extensive destruction in Ashkhabad. Restoration began at once and with the aid of the entire Soviet Union the Turkmen Republic was in a position to effect the rapid rehabilitation of its capital.

Ashkhabad is the center of the flourishing Turkmenian culture. The six institutions of higher learning and the 29 specialized secondary schools of the republic have an attendance of more than 10,000. Universal seven-year schooling for children has been successfully put into effect.

On Stalin's initiative, a university was opened in Turkmenistan in 1950, and the Academy of Sciences of the Turkmen SSR was founded in 1951.

Only 0.7 per cent of the people of Turkmenistan were literate under tsarism, and total illiteracy prevailed among Turkmenian women. More than a thousand Turkmenian young women are employed as schoolteachers today. About seven hundred Turkmenian women have become doctors, whereas before the Revolution there were only nine doctors in the whole of Turkmenistan.

Many women are employed in industry. Bairam Seidyieva was one of the first to undertake the operation of two reeling looms. Kumysh Mamieva was the first woman to become a navigator and she now stands at the helm of a ship sailing along the Amu Darya.
Many women of Turkmenistan are honored with the proud title of Hero of Socialist Labor. Women are also to be found in leading executive positions; for example, the young Turkmenian woman Asia Atanepasova is Minister of Social Maintenance.

A. Atanepasova was a member of the Soviet delegation to the International Congress of Democratic Women which met at Budapest. And at Peking, capital of free China, her appeal for the struggle for peace and democracy resounded at the conference of women of the Asian countries.

About 4,000 women have been elected to the local Soviets of Working People's Deputies of Turkmenistan and 80 women to the Supreme Soviet of the republic.

The advancement of the women of Soviet Turkmenistan is illustrative of the general advancement and progress of that country.

Great changes will take place in the Turkmenian Republic in the next few years. The Main Turkmenian Canal, to be built by decision of the Soviet Government, will carry water from the Amu Darya to the Kara-Kum Desert; it will extend 680 miles from Cape Takhya Tash on the Amu Darya, through the ancient bed of the Uzboi to the city of Krasnovodsk on the Caspian shore, irrigating vast areas. A hydroelectric station to be built on the dam will block the Amu Darya at Takhya Tash, and two other hydroelectric stations are to be erected on the canal itself. Big irrigation canals branching out from the Main Turkmenian Canal will have a total length of 745 miles. Water mains extending for 600 miles will supply water to industrial enterprises and settlements. In the neighborhood of the canal, Amu Darya water will be used for irrigating about 3,200,000 acres of practically barren land which is to be reclaimed for agriculture, mainly for the cultivation of cotton. Some 17,000,000 acres of grazing land in the Kara-Kum will receive water. About 1,200,000 acres of shelter belts will be planted along the canals. The Main Turkmenian Canal will also be used for navigation, and ships sailing along the canal will connect the Soviet republics of Central Asia with the central regions of the USSR via the Caspian Sea and the Volga.

This gigantic construction undertaken on the initiative of Stalin, was begun in 1951 and it is to be completed in the space of six years. It will radically change the economy and nature of Turkmenistan. Titanic construction of this scope has no precedent in world history. Like all the other great construction works of communism this project indicates that the Soviet Union is concentrating all its efforts on peaceful construction.
Estonia is the northernmost of the Soviet republics in the area of the Baltic.

It has a territory of 17,370 square miles and a population of more than 1,000,000. In addition to the Estonians who comprise the majority, the population of the republic includes Russians.

Flat hills, the remains of glaciers of ancient times, lakes, thickets, rolling meadows, rocks scattered among the fields and the white nights in June give a picture of Estonia.

Estonia is situated on the Baltic coast, between the Gulfs of Finland and Riga. The territory of the republic includes the Moon Sound Islands in the Baltic Sea, the biggest of which are Sareme (Oesel) and Khiuma (Dago).

In the north of the republic lies a level lowland which breaks off abruptly, descending in a steep rocky slope to the Gulf of Finland. In the south the territory is more elevated and hilly.

There are many lakes in Estonia, the biggest being Lake Peipus. Estonia's rivers are short but deep.

The mineral wealth of the republic includes shale deposits, which are found along the shore of the Gulf of Finland, and peat, limestone, blue clay, gypsum and marble.

Estonia has a humid climate. There are many excellent meadows which are suitable for livestock breeding and particularly for dairy farming. There are more meadows and pastures than there are fields, and in the fields considerable areas are planted to fodder grasses.

Before the First World War Estonia was part of Russia and was well developed industrially.

One of the biggest plants in Russia, the Russian-Baltic shipbuilding plant which employed 11,000 workers, was located in Revel (the old name for Tallin), and the Krenholm Textile Mills, which employed 12,000 workers was located at Narva. Revel was an important port of Russia. It compensated for the port of St. Petersburg in winter since it freezes over for a shorter time.

During the civil war Estonia was severed from Russia, con-
trary to the will of the people, as a result of the intervention by foreign imperialists. Estonia’s separation from Russia led to the decline of her industry.

Soviet government was established in Estonia in 1940 and the Estonian Soviet Socialist Republic became a member of the USSR. This was followed by the rapid economic and cultural progress of Estonia.

The republic is throbbing with the energetic pulse of the new life.

Agriculture has been collectivized. Teams of collective farmers may be seen at work in the fields. Many agricultural machines, such as the red-sided self-propelled harvester combine made in Tula and the harvesting machine made in Lubertsy, are used on the farms.

The agricultural machinery plants of Tula and Lubertsy, situated near Moscow, supply machines to all the Soviet republics.

Excavators are also in evidence. Responsive to the operator’s hand, they scoop up the moist peat ground, dig canals through the fields, and straighten river beds. A gigantic reclamation plan, prepared on Stalin’s initiative, is being carried out on the swampland in Estonia. Because of this enterprise, the size of the collective and state farm fields will be doubled.

Livestock farming, the principal branch of husbandry in the republic, is being rapidly advanced.

The majority of the collective farmers in Estonia still live on isolated farmsteads, but these farmsteads are gradually vanishing, as more and more collective farms are undertaking the construction of cultured, well-planned villages. The surveyor with the measuring line, the engineer with blueprints, and carpenters with hammers and saws may be met everywhere in Estonia.

The collective farms are growing, thriving and building.

A book by the collective farmer Raudsepp, On the Road to Communism, is popular throughout the Estonian countryside. Its author, a former middle peasant, describes the organization and life of one of the first collective farms in Estonia, the "Oktoobri Vijt" (October Victory). He is chairman of this farm. The collective farm had many difficulties at the outset, but they were all surmounted. Electric lights and radio have come to the homes of the collective farmers. The farm has its own truck, thresher and many harvesting machines. Four livestock sections have been set up. A club has been built. The collective farmers have decided to undertake the construction of a new village.

Rich crops are harvested in the fields of this farm. Myttus, one of its members, had to make five trips in 1949 in order to bring home
all the grain received by him in payment for work on the collective farm. The Kurg family received about five tons of grain.

Estonia has textile mills, timber yards, metal working plants and small creameries which supply butter and cheese.

The industry of the republic has completely recovered from the
ravages caused by Hitlerite occupation. Industrial output in Estonia in 1950 was three times the volume produced in the prewar year of 1940.

For example, the Baltic Textile Mills, which were practically levelled to the ground by the fascist invaders, have been restored and equipped with looms made in Moscow.

In Narva, on a rocky island between two waterfalls stand the Krenholm Textile Mills, one of the biggest textile factories in pre-revolutionary Russia.

Only 114 out of 3,200 buildings escaped destruction by the Hitlerites at Narva. The Krenholm mills were reduced to such a state by the enemy that their restoration seemed impossible. Nevertheless they have been restored and turn out a greater volume of production than in 1940. Thousands of looms have been installed there.

Estonia is rich in shale, which is used not only as fuel for power stations but also for the production of gas, shale oil, medicines, plastics, artificial ice, and building materials. The streets in the Estonian cities are paved with asphalt made of shale.

In bourgeois Estonia shale was extracted by hand in narrow mines owned by foreign investors. Hewing machines, conveyers and electric engines are used in the big well-ventilated mines of Soviet Estonia.

Rapid methods of construction are used in building cities and settlements for the miners.

Among the meadows we may see rows of cottages and buildings of the mine administrations. This is the pride of Estonia, the "Estonian Donbas."

A gas pipeline 126 miles long has been built to conduct gas from the new plant at Kohtla-Jarve to Leningrad for domestic and industrial use. Nearly 50 per cent of the pipelines have been laid through rocky ground and swamps. Gas will also be conducted to the Estonian capital.

Tallinn, the capital of Soviet Estonia, stands in a deep bay on the shore of the Gulf of Finland.

Traces of the Middle Ages can still be seen there, especially in the upper section of the town of Tompea (Vyshgorod), where ancient towers and fortress walls built of gray stone nestle close to the rocks. There are closely built houses with pointed tile roofs fringed by white borders, coats of arms on the façades, narrow streets paved with stone plates and tall church steeples.

And next to these survivals of antiquity we see a modern port with ships in the harbor, big factories and new buildings with wide windows. The scarlet banner now flies proudly from the "Long Herman," a round tower which has been overlooking the city for seven centuries.

Tallinn is receiving an increasing number of new buildings and new streets. Victory Boulevard is the name given by the citizens of
the Estonian capital to the new avenue which leads from the center of the city to the seashore. A government house, scientists’ club and other buildings are being erected on this street.

The factories of Tallinn, which were lifeless in the period when the Baltic was severed from Russia, have been revived and expanded.

The national culture of free Estonia is also being advanced.

The Academy of Sciences founded in Estonia helps to promote the republic’s national economy. For example, the Academy has recommended new ways of utilizing shale, which is the principal mineral wealth of the republic. A detailed map of Estonia’s soils has been compiled for the benefit of her agriculturists.

The enrollment at the celebrated university at Tartu is now greater than ever before. College attendance in the republic has doubled during the postwar Five-Year Plan period, as compared with the prewar year of 1940.

Noteworthy progress has been made in the publication of books. More than 20 books per capita of population have been published in Soviet Estonia in the brief postwar period.

Estonia has hundreds of People’s Houses, centers of culture in the countryside. This means that culture is becoming increasingly widespread among the masses.
Karelo-Finnish SSR

The Karelo-Finnish SSR is situated in the northwest of the Soviet Union, bounded by the White Sea in the north and Lake Ladoga in the south. It borders on Finland.

The Karelo-Finnish Republic has a territory of 69,000 square miles and a population of more than 600,000. In addition to Karelians and Finns, its population includes Russians.

In times long past, a gigantic glacier sliding down from the Scandinavian mountains passed over this territory from north to south. The traces of its work are still in evidence in the furrowed, hilly terrain and in the numerous depressions which make up thousands of lakes. The lakes are situated at various heights and are connected by short deep rivers. The waters drop along rocky beds, rushing down in noisy seething rapids. The glacier dragged down smooth, polished rocks and scattered them through the fields. A considerable section of the territory is covered with pine forests, the mighty pines frequently growing from crevices in the rocks.

The climate is cool and humid. Field husbandry is comparatively limited and concentrated mainly in the southern districts. But the humid climate is favorable for the growth of fine luxuriant grasses, and livestock breeding and dairy farming are well advanced.

Many inhabitants are occupied in quarrying stone for construction: granite, diabase and marble. The famous columns of St. Isaac's Cathedral in Leningrad are made of the beautiful Karelian stone. This stone is used in construction today, as, for example, in building the underground palaces of the Moscow subway.

The principal wealth of the Karelo-Finnish SSR lies in its forests. Karelian timber is highly valued as material for shipbuilding. It is shipped in large quantities to other republics. Some of the timber is shipped as raw material, and a portion is used on the spot for producing boards, plywood, skis, pulp and paper. A number of big pulp and paper mills have been built in the republic noteworthy among them the mills at Segezh on the Kirov (Murmansk) Railway.
The Segezh Mills are the largest in Europe. Some of the machines used there have a length of 328 feet. The mills supply paper, pulp, rosin, and paper sacks for fertilizer and cement. Sawdust, bark and waste wood are used as fuel for the power plants. Nothing is wasted.

The Segezh Mills, which received an award of the Order of Lenin, have surpassed the prewar production level to a considerable extent. Other pulp and paper mills put into operation are also turning out more than before the war.

Many enterprises of the republic receive power from the hydroelectric stations on the local rivers, which are highly suitable for the construction of such stations.

The timber and paper industry of the republic are of great significance for the whole of the Soviet Union.

Among the distinguished workers of the Karelo-Finnish SSR is the famous Gotchiev, a descendant of generations of lumberjacks. Now operating an electric saw, he was awarded a Stalin Prize for outstanding achievements in production. He organized the work so as to enable his team to prepare about 85,000 board feet of timber a day with one electric saw. It takes four trailer tractors and four trucks in two shifts to bring this timber up to the road and remove it.

Advanced machines are becoming increasingly widespread in the forests of Karelia.

Electric saws are used for cutting trees, trailer tractors for
hauling the timber to the roads, electric winches for carrying it over swampy ground, electric saws for sawing the timber and automatic cranes for loading it onto flatcars.

Two important arteries cut across the Karelo-Finnish SSR from north to south: the Kirov Railway, which connects Leningrad with the port of Murmansk on the Barents Sea, and the Stalin Baltic-White Sea Canal.

Crossing a divide 354 feet high, the canal links the White Sea with Lake Onega, which is connected with the Baltic Sea. There are big reservoirs on the canal amid the forests. The ships are raised and lowered by a system of locks.

During the war the front line passed across the canal. The enemy blasted the dams and put the canal out of commission. But the Soviet people restored it in time for the navigation season in the first postwar summer. The canal has even been improved.

When the Second World War began, the territory of the Karelo-Finnish SSR became a front-line zone. The invaders disrupted the peaceful labor of the people of the Karelo-Finnish SSR and occupied a considerable section of its territory. Since the liberation of the republic, its cities and villages have again been throbbing with constructive, cultured Soviet life. The republic's timber, wood processing and ore mining industries have been restored. In the course of five years its industrial production has surpassed the prewar level.

Petrozavodsk, the capital of the republic, stands on the shore of Lake Onega. Before the revolution it was mainly a city of wooden buildings. Many big brick buildings were built there under the Five-Year Plans, but nearly everything was destroyed during the war by the invaders.

The apartment houses and factories are being raised from the ruins. The whole city is one vast construction site. The streets are receiving asphalted pavements and modern buildings. The factories of Petrozavodsk already supply machinery for the timber industry and semi-fabricated houses.

Petrozavodsk is the center of culture of the Karelo-Finnish people. Literacy was very low among the Karelians before the Revolution. The Karelo-Finnish Republic has raised literacy among her population to 100 per cent. Petrozavodsk has a university, theaters, a branch of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR and a number of higher schools.

Prerevolutionary Karelia was a neglected borderland, despite the fact that it was situated next to the capital, St. Petersburg. The lumber yards yielded huge profits to the industrialists, but the workers received miserable wages. The lumberjacks lived in tents or ramshackle huts. Barley meal adulterated with milled bark was the diet of the
Karelian families. A third of the inhabitants went from village to village to beg for alms.

The Karelo-Finnish SSR is now a cultured country with socialist, mechanized agriculture and a similarly developed timber industry.

There are a number of new cities in the republic, cities born after the Revolution. Sawmills stand in the formerly desolate districts. The Olonetsk plain has been reclaimed and cultivated by the collective farmers.

The entire history of the regenerated Karelo-Finnish people is associated with the name of Stalin. It was in accordance with Stalin’s plan that the Red Army routed the bands of interventionists near the Karelian village of Vidlitsy thirty years ago. It was on Stalin’s proposal that the Baltic-White Sea Canal was built. And it was in accordance with the directives of Stalin, who visited Karelia in 1933, that the construction of big plants was launched in Karelia.

* * *

The USSR is a peace-loving State. Having developed friendship among themselves, the Soviet peoples want to live in peace and friendship with the peoples of all countries. There is not a single Soviet citizen who desires war. This is understandable, because the instigators of war, the exploiting classes were eliminated long ago in the USSR. The people and the Government of the Soviet Union are completely engrossed in great constructive labor; they are working with inspiration on the construction of the new society, on the building of communism.

And that is why the Soviet people support with the greatest unanimity the consistent peace policy of their Government.
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