

RESTRICTED

9 August 1950

MEMORANDUM FOR:

25X1A

SUBJECT: Booklets about the Soviet Union

1. Attached for your retention and disposal are nine booklets concerning the Soviet Union which were published by the Foreign Language Publishing House in Moscow in 1939 for use at the New York World's Fair.

2. The titles of the books are as follows:

- a. Soviet Cities New and Renewed
- b. Industrial Progress in the Soviet Republics of the Non-Russian Nationalities
- c. Machine and Tractor Stations
- d. Children and Art in the USSR
- e. Palaces of Culture and Clubs in the USSR
- f. Waterways and Water Transport in the USSR
- g. The Kolkhoz
- h. Children in the Land of Socialism
- i. Magnitogorsk

3.

They are overt and may be treated as free when detached from this memo.

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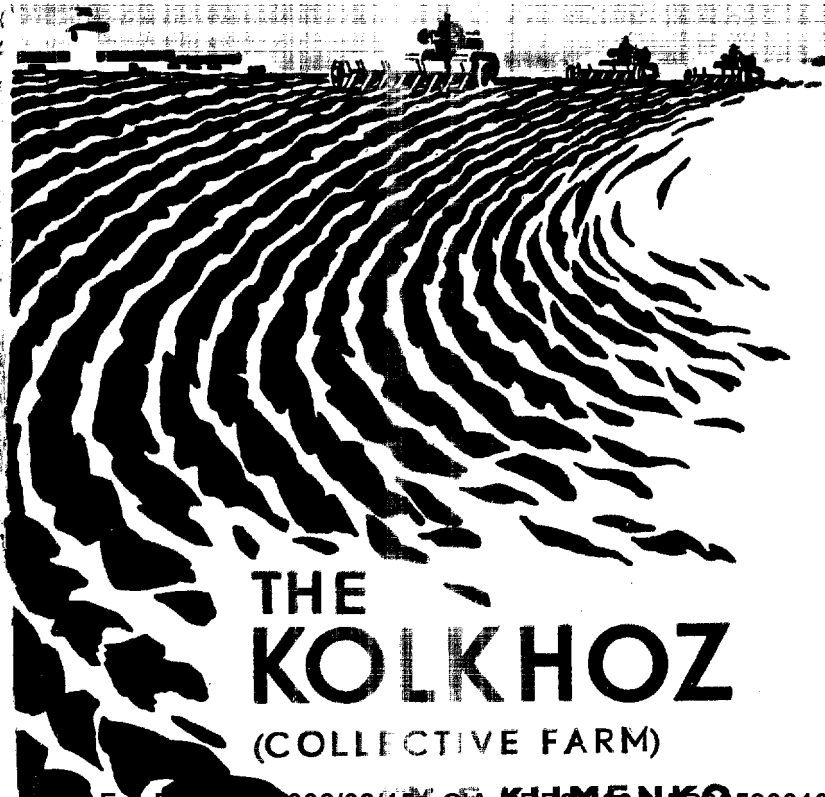
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Encl: Nine as listed above

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THE
KOLKHOZ
(COLLECTIVE FARM)

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THE KOLKHOZ
(COLLECTIVE FARM)

BY F. KLIMENKO

ORDER OF LENIN
CHAIRMAN OF THE STALIN COLLECTIVE FARM,
GENICHESK DISTRICT, UKRAINE
MEMBER OF THE SUPREME SOVIET
OF THE U.S.S.R.



FOREIGN LANGUAGES PUBLISHING HOUSE
MOSCOW 1939

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ARTIST: B. SCHWARTZ

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I N tsarist Russia the 28,000 landlords owned 167,000,000 acres of land and the 10,000,000 peasant households 197,000,000 acres, of which the most fertile sections were owned mainly by the kulaks. Huge tracts of the best land were the property of the royal family and of the monasteries. The landlords and kulaks, who constituted somewhat over 13 per cent of the population, controlled 71.6 per cent of all the grain marketed.

The old villages were poverty-stricken and squalid: 65 per cent of the peasant households were made up of poor peasants; 30 per cent had no horses and 34 per cent no agricultural implements, being obliged to hire them from the kulaks if they wanted to cultivate their

tiny allotments or the plots they managed to rent from the latter or from the landlords. Most of the harvest went to pay for these services, leaving a bare pittance for the peasant's family. Fifteen per cent of the peasants did not have the wherewithal to sow any crops whatever. For many peasants a piece of unadulterated bread made of pure grain was a rare feast, since most of the year they ate all sorts of substitutes.

Every year 2,000,000 poor peasants left their homes to work on the landed estates and kulak farms in the Kuban and the Ukraine.

Yuzkui, the village where I was born, can serve as a vivid illustration of the backward and impoverished condition of the peasants before the Revolution, and the brutal exploitation to which they were subjected.

There were 3,000 households in our village. The best lands belonged to the landlords Virkentin and Fischer, and were worked by hands hired in our village and the nearby villages and by landless peasants from other parts of the country who were driven by poverty and hunger from place to place in

search of work and bread. The peasant allotments in our village were only about five or six acres, and never more than eight.

The land was worked in an extremely primitive way: a piece of land was sown, the crop harvested and then was left to lie fallow while another plot would be cultivated. Crop rotation and scientific farming had never even been heard of. No fertilizers were used on the land. Selected seed was quite out of the peasant's reach. Only very few among the peasants owned metal plowshares or reapers. Most of the Yuzkui peasants used antiquated wooden plows and flails. Nor did every peasant have a horse. Those few who could boast of one, for the most part possessed only some sorry old nag. It is small wonder then that the grain yield on the peasants' land was generally from 0.15 to 0.2 tons per acre, and decreased with every year.

Land hunger drove the peasants into kulak bondage. Here is the story of Ivan Ponomarenko, a former farmhand, now a collective farmer: "My father was a cowherd for twenty years on the estate of a big landlord named Fischer. We were a big family, thirteen of

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us, all huddled together in a little mud hut. We never had a horse or a cow; our livestock consisted of half a dozen hens. On the 1.3 acres of land we had, we planted potatoes. During the war I worked on the estate of Grand Duke Michael, the brother of Tsar Nicholas. I earned around forty rubles a year. Cabbage soup and millet was what I fared on. It was only on big holidays that I tasted meat."

This is how the poor peasants lived in tsarist Russia; nor were the middle peasants much better off.

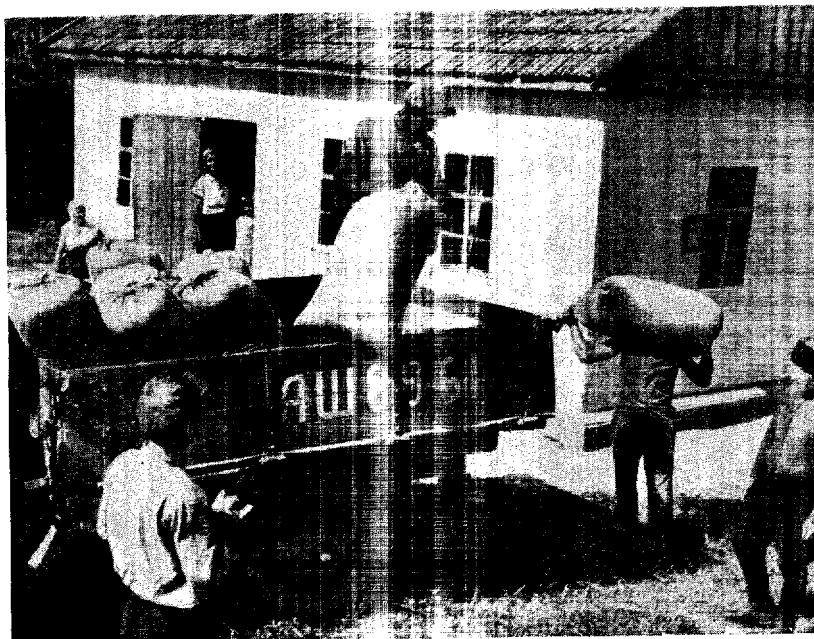
In November 1917 the workers and peasants drove out the landlords and capitalists, put an end to private property in land and turned over the big estates and the monasterial lands to the working people. The countryside began to emerge from its age-old ignorance and to refashion its life along new lines.

The Communist Party and the Soviet Government showed the peasants that the only way they could put an end to kulak exploitation and, with it, to poverty, was by passing from petty individual farming to

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Collective farmers receiving their share of the grain (Protochnaya Village Krasnodar Region)

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large-scale socialized farming. The Soviet peasantry adopted this way and began to set up artels—associations for the joint cultivation of the land—and in some cases an even higher form of collective farming—agricultural communes.

In 1921, our village of Yuzkui organized a commune which we called "Equality Commune." It was started by a number of Red Army men who had returned to the village after the Civil War—Nikifor Sologub, Ivan Chaplyga, Yegor Simonenko, Pavel Chernenko, Afanasy Pivovarov and my father, Nikita Klimenko, all former peasants of Yuzkui. Originally the Commune included eleven families. They received land that had formerly belonged to one of the landlords' estates, pooled their horses, cows and agricultural implements, and, disregarding the kulaks' venomous threats and dire prophecies, set to work.

At first things were quite difficult. The Commune had no seed, only five horses, and nothing but a seeder and a buckler as regards equipment. But the government gave us a helping hand, and the Commune began

the Soviet Union, having restored its economic life after the devastation of the imperialist war and the Civil War, was developing industry at a rapid pace. The countryside was supplied with thousands of first-class agricultural machines. The collective farms expanded and took firm root. In 1930 their number increased to 85,900, and by 1934 it had reached 233,300.

At the end of 1929 the various small kolkhozes and communes in our village, including our Equality Commune, merged to form the big new Stalin Commune. Our crops increased every year; we acquired new machinery and equipment; our income grew steadily.

It was not entirely smooth sailing, however. Not every member of the Commune came to work on time, nor did everyone work equally well. Yet all the members shared the benefits of the Commune equally.

At the Congress of Kolkhoz Shock Workers our chairman, Pivovarov, had a talk with Stalin. Stalin asked him many questions about our Commune. He wanted to know whether the members had cows, pigs

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The Herd of the Valarsk Collective Farm,
near Elista, Kalmyk A.S.S.R.

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the specified day's quota of work the collective farmer is credited with one work-day unit.

If in the course of the day a kolkhoz member performs more than the specified quota, he is credited correspondingly with more than one work-day unit. Thus his share in the collective farm income depends on the quantity and quality of work performed. The work-day units are calculated and recorded by the head of the brigade in which the collective farmer works and by the quality inspector, after the work has been inspected.

This distribution of income according to the work performed helped to improve discipline and increase labor productivity. The farm began to develop even more rapidly.

The collective farm Rules definitely specify that on entering a kolkhoz the peasant must hand over to it the land he has been using, and also his draft animals and agricultural equipment. Cows, domestic animals and poultry are not subject to socialization, nor is the peasants'

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personal property. The public buildings of the collective farm—stables and sheds for its livestock and poultry, granaries, clubs, etc.—are in the collective use of the farm. In addition, every kolkhoz household is allotted a plot of land for personal use, where a truck garden or orchard can be cultivated for the personal use of the household.

To assist the collective farms, the Soviet Government has established machine and tractor stations all over the country. At present there are 6,350 such stations in the Soviet Union. At the end of 1938, 483,500 tractors, 153,500 harvester-combines, 195,800 trucks, hundreds of thousands of tractor-drawn plows, seeders, cultivators, complex threshers and various other up-to-date agricultural machines were employed in the Soviet fields.

The attention accorded the peasants by the Soviet Government, its constant concern for their welfare made possible the successful introduction of universal collectivization and the transformation of the U.S.S.R. from a country of small-scale, backward agriculture into a land of

mechanized agriculture on the largest scale in the world.

In the U.S.S.R. today there are 243,300 kolkhozes, which unite 18,800,000 peasant households, or 93.5 per cent of all the peasant households in the country.

Our collective farm numbers 674 families, 518 of which were formerly families of poor peasants. Nearly 30,000 acres of land have been reserved to us. The farm includes 1,480 acres of hayfield, 8,980 acres of pasture, 104 acres of woods which serve to protect the fields from winds, and 1,081 acres of truck gardens and orchards. Besides this, several hundred acres of land constitute the plots in the collective farmers' personal use.

The kolkhoz management board is elected at a general meeting of the membership. Important matters, such as the distribution of income, capital construction and large purchases, are decided on only by the general meeting.

In most of the collective farms the members are divided into brigades. We have twelve production brigades, whose heads

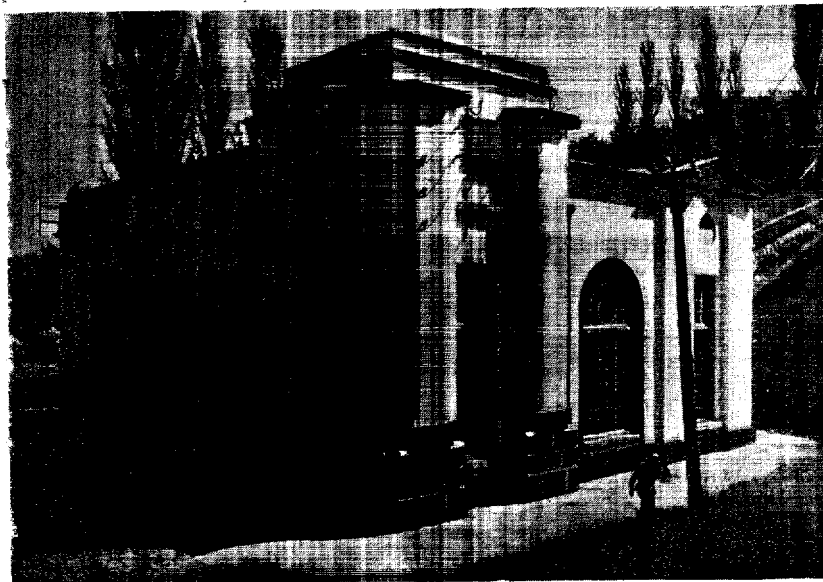
are elected by the general meeting. We also have an agronomist, several breeding experts, and a veterinarian.

We have 13,830 acres under field crops, 60 per cent of which are grain. Industrial crops are raised on 1,270 acres, cotton occupying 1,185 acres. The rest of our land is sown to fodder, vegetables and gourds.

Our collective farm is located in the South of the Ukraine, by the Sea of Azov. This region is rather arid, but we are learning to master nature, and our farm has large harvests of all crops every year. Despite the exceptional aridity of the summer of 1938, our average grain yield was 1,456 lbs. per acre, and the yield of non-irrigated cotton, the cultivation of which we first introduced five years ago, amounted to 715 lbs. per acre.

Scientific methods of farming and mechanization are helping us to combat drought. We are extending the area of autumn and early spring fallow for grain crops, plowing the fallow in good time, and weeding it by tractor as often as six times. We plow by tractor to a considerable depth—8-9.5

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Power House on a Collective Farm at Verkhny
Akbash, Kabardino-Balkaria

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inches, and use large quantities of potassium, phosphate and nitrate fertilizer in addition to manure. We sow only high-grade selected seed. For our spring crops—cotton, oats, barley and the rest—we always plow the land to a good depth in the autumn or early in the spring. We are boldly applying the latest discoveries of agronomy and the experience of the foremost Stakhanovites on our fields. Thus, for instance, vernalization methods recently evolved by Academician Lysenko have enabled us to increase the yield of cereals and cotton by 135-180 lbs. per acre.

Mechanization is a most important factor in increasing the yield in our collective farm. The entire spring and autumn plowing is done exclusively by tractors. In 1938, 97.7 per cent of the area under grain was harvested by combines. All the land left fallow for the 1939 crop was tractor plowed, as was 77 per cent of the land plowed in the autumn. Weeding, harrowing, clearing the field of stubble, and other processes have also been mechanized.

The number of our livestock is increas-

ing as well. Our collective farm now owns 800 head of cattle, 460 horses, 7,000 sheep and 360 pigs, exclusive of the animals that are the personal property of the collective farmers themselves. The livestock is kept in light, warm and airy buildings, which have running water and are always clean and orderly.

Big progress in stock-raising has been made throughout the country. In 1938 alone, the number of horses in the kolkhozes increased by 8 per cent, the number of colts by 9 per cent, of sheep and goats by 19 per cent and cattle and pigs by 6 per cent.

The increasing yields and growing productivity in stock-raising are accompanied by an increase in the wealth of the collective farms and in the material well-being of the collective farmers themselves.

Whereas in 1930 the gross income of our kolkhoz was 424,000 rubles, by 1938 it had reached 3,300,000 rubles.

The greater part of the income is distributed among the members in accordance with the number of work-day units credited to them; 4.3 per cent goes for government

payments, 0.8 per cent for managerial expenses. We also spend large sums for developing the farm and providing conveniences for our members. When the Commune was first organized, we did not have a single decent building, not a single machine of any kind. Now our streets are lined with well-built houses. We have 8 power engines and 9 trucks. Every brigade has its silo. The animals are housed in newly-built modern sheds and stables. Our buildings, tools and machinery total a value of nearly 2,000,000 rubles.

In 1933 every collective farm household in the grain regions received on the average of 1 ton of grain clear for the year. By 1937 this amount had risen to 2.36 tons. The total cash income of the collective farms of the U.S.S.R. has increased during the same period from 5,661,900,000 rubles to 14,180,100,000 rubles.

In 1938 our kolkhoz distributed 1,960,000 rubles in money as the share due for work-day units. The income in kind is also divided in accordance with the number of work-day units, after grain deliveries to

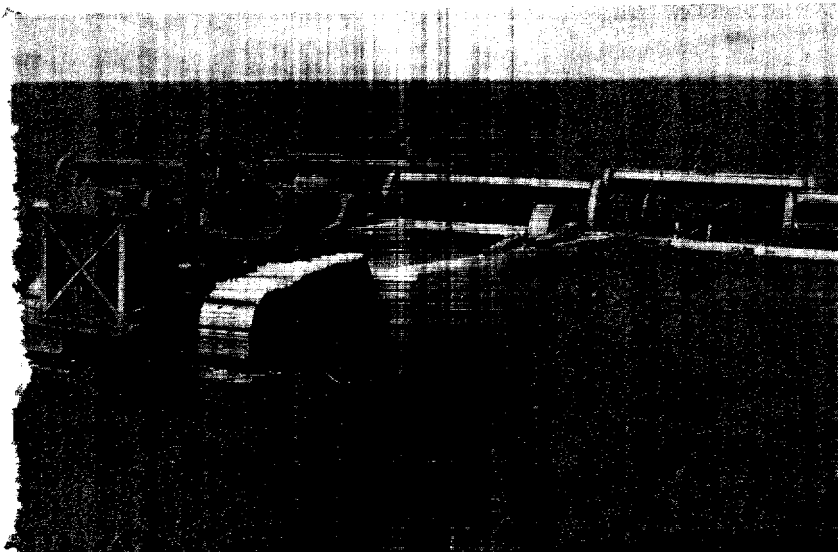
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the state have been made, payment has been rendered the machine and tractor stations for their services, seed has been set aside for the next sowing and fodder has been provided for the collective farm cattle. In 1938, our kolkhoz members received 11 lbs. of grain and 5 rubles 10 kopeks in cash for every work-day unit. Take collective farmer Borodin's family. This family received 6.7 tons of grain and 6,932 rubles in cash as their share of the collective farm income. Collective farmer Ponomarenko's family received 6.2 tons of grain and 6,326 rubles in cash. K. Pakhomenko, a Stakhanovite, received 5 tons of grain and 5,120 rubles in cash. Most of our collective farm members received similar incomes.

A life of prosperity brings culture with it. The tsarist government did its best to foster chauvinism and dissension; it incited the Russians against the Ukrainians, the Ukrainians against the Jews, the Georgians against the Armenians, and so on. In the U.S.S.R., with its Socialist culture, a great and inviolable friendship and

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Spring Sowing on the Michurin Collective Farm,
Stalingrad Region

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amity exists between the various peoples and nationalities.

Russians and Ukrainians, Jews, Gypsies and Poles live and work in complete harmony in our collective farm.

Khalil Saitov is a Gypsy. He spent most of his life wandering over the steppes. His children were born in a cold, wind-beaten covered wagon. Now his family is happy and prosperous.

Mikhail Piznoy is a Jew. He is in charge of one of our brigades and commands the respect and affection of all our members. His brigade has secured the high yield of 0.9 tons of grain per acre.

Boody, a Moldavian, was for many years a shepherd in the sun-scorched steppes; he worked for next to nothing for the kulaks. Now he is a well-to-do collective farmer, and is in charge of a section on our farm.

Some twenty-five years ago, before the Revolution, it was no easy matter to get permission to open a school in the countryside, and most of the children went without any schooling. Now we have plenty of schools. The kolkhos also has a

moving picture theater for showing sound films, several clubhouses, a good library, a radio broadcasting station for local purposes, and a power plant. This year the members subscribed to 24,000 rubles' worth of books and periodicals. We have a maternity home, a nursery, a good public bath and a barber-shop.

The collective farmers' homes are lighted by electricity and comfortably furnished. Nearly 3,000 of our members have bicycles. The young people go in for sports (300 of our members have received the Voroshilov Badge for marksmanship), and are enthusiastic members of the club dramatic, singing and music circles. There are no illiterates in our farm. Eighty per cent of our members have had an elementary or secondary education, and 20 of the members have had a university education. Over 500 children attend the ten-year secondary school. Twelve of our young people have graduated agricultural or industrial training schools.

Hundreds of people who formerly went unnoticed have developed into capable

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executives in government and public bodies. A. Pivovarov, formerly chairman of our kolkhoz, is now chairman of the executive committee of the District Soviet and has been awarded the Order of Lenin by the Government. N. Pikulsky is manager of the repair shop at our Stalin Machine and Tractor Station. P. Letugin took a post-graduate course at the Institute of Agricultural Economics and now occupies an important post in the People's Commissariat of Agriculture of the U.S.S.R. P. Ponomarenko is in charge of one of the biggest state farms in the Zaporozhye Region. I. Ivanov, a former member of our kolkhoz, is the chairman of a district executive committee in the same region. The names of Feshchenko and Valovaya, brigade leaders outstanding for the big harvests they secured, are known far beyond the bounds of our region. Grigory Koshka, one of our shepherds, is an outstanding Stakhanovite who gets letters from collective farms all over the U.S.S.R. He has achieved a record increase—over 140 lambs for every 100 ewes—in the size of his flock.

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The collective farm system has opened broad prospects for the peasant woman both in production and in public life. It is helping to efface the distinction between town and country. Remoulding economic life in the villages, it is radically refashioning the people as well.

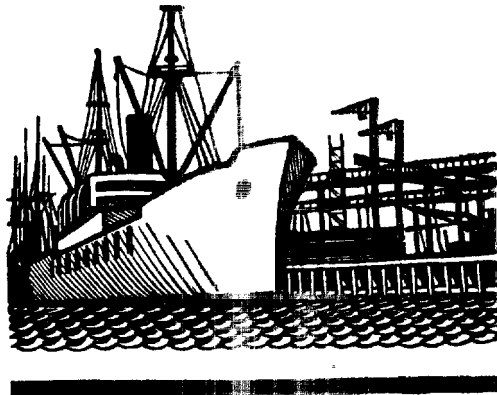
In February 1939 our collective farm was awarded the Order of Lenin by the Government for its outstanding achievements.



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WATERWAYS
AND
WATER TRANSPORT
IN THE
U.S.S.R.



BY A. BLIDMAN

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**WATERWAYS AND
WATER TRANSPORT
IN THE U.S.S.R.**

By A. BLEHMAN

ORDER OF LENIN
STAKHANOVITE MEDAL



FOREIGN LANGUAGES PUBLISHING HOUSE
MOSCOW 1939

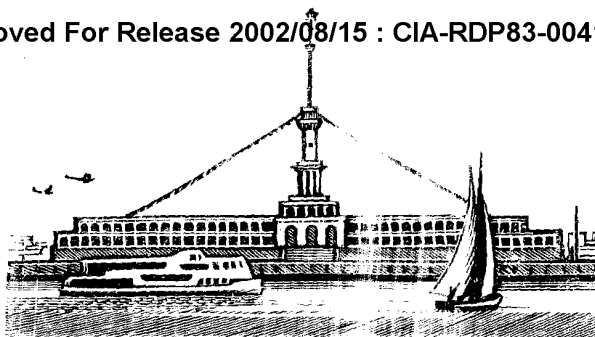
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TWO oceans and twelve seas wash the shores of the Soviet Union. Its seacoast stretches for 26,703 miles. The vast expanse of the country is intersected by 500,000 rivers; its inland water surface includes two seas and 180,000 lakes. No country in the world can compare with the U.S.S.R. in the number and might of its navigable inland waterways which aggregate 248,400 miles.

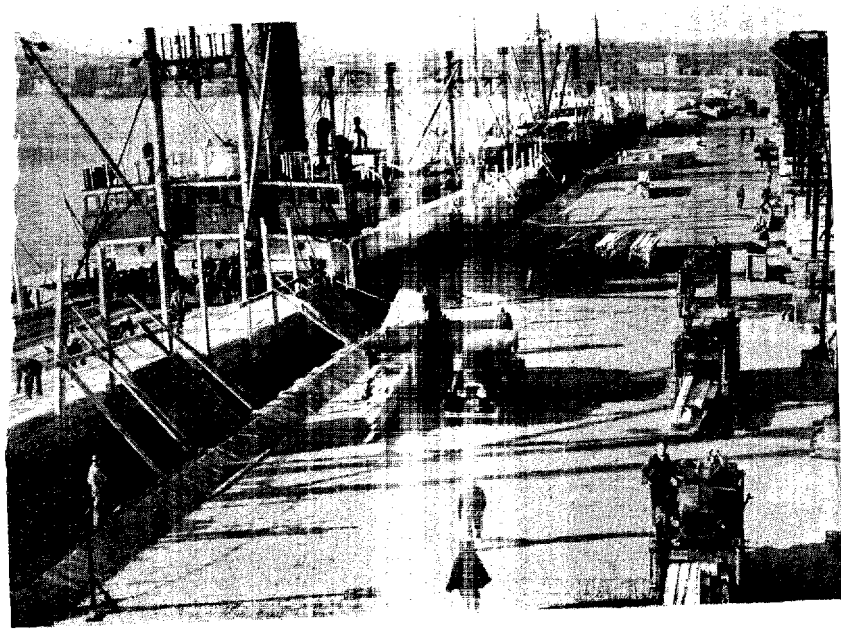
In the Russia of the tsars the length of

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the navigable waterways open for traffic (excluding rivers serviceable for floating timber) was 27,915 miles. But only 22,356 miles were equipped with flash signalling installations for the guidance of mariners (buoys, beacons and so forth) which were of a primitive quality hardly comparable to the installations now in use. Under the Soviet Government the length of the navigable waterways (excluding those serviceable for floating timber) has increased by 37,881 miles and now comprises 65,826 miles.

The rivers of the Soviet Union are important not only as a means of traffic, they are at the same time a mighty source of electric power supply. As early as 1919, when the Civil War was raging all over the country, work was begun on the first Soviet hydro-electric power plant on the Volkhov River, not far from Leningrad. During the First Five-Year Plan period a gigantic dam was built across the Dnieper River, in the Ukraine, which raised the level of the river by 123 feet. Prior to this the Dnieper rapids barred navigation over a

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Timber Port, 1968-69

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considerable stretch of the river, but with the completion of the dam the rapids disappeared and the river became navigable from its upper reaches to the Black Sea. A triple chamber lock allows for the passage of craft. The Dnieper Hydro-Electric Power Plant with a capacity of 558,000 kilowatts generates more electric power than did all the electric power plants in tsarist Russia.

Dams have been built on the River Svir, near Leningrad, where a powerful hydro-electric power plant is now operating. Another hydro-electric power plant will be built here during the Third Five-Year Plan period.

In Karelia, cutting through granite hills and virgin forest, a canal, 141 miles in length, was built in twenty months. This canal links the White Sea with the Baltic Sea.

Another feat of engineering, but far more complicated, was the building of the Moscow-Volga Canal. Two hundred large works had to be built along its route of 79.5 miles.

These works include eleven locks, eight earth filled dams, seven spillways, six floodgates, five pumping stations, eight hydro-electric power stations, seven railway bridges and twelve bridges for other traffic. The whole scheme was completed in four years.

In the building of the canal 170 excavators were employed, hundreds of locomotives, motor-shunters, concrete mixers, hydro-monitors, thousands of conveyors and electric engines. Volga River water now washes the walls of the Kremlin in Moscow. Formerly the Moscow River was very shallow and hardly suitable for river craft. Now it has been linked up with the great Volga thoroughfare. The water course from the capital to Leningrad has been reduced by 685 miles and the distance to Gorky—by 68 miles. The largest vessels can now sail the canal which can handle annually some 15,000,000 tons of cargo in any given direction.

The amount of capital invested in water transport is increasing with every year.

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Loading the contents of a 5-ton truck according to stevedore Henkin's method

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Under the First Five-Year Plan 1,258,000,000 rubles were assigned to this branch of the national economy. The sum appropriated under the Second Five-Year Plan was 2,852,000,000 rubles. These sums were expended on building a modern, technically well-equipped fleet of river and ocean going vessels, on refitting existing vessels, on the construction of new ports and reconstructing existing ports. New shipbuilding yards and dockyards were built in various parts of the country, while new equipment was installed in the existing yards, thus placing them on an equal footing with the up-to-date enterprises.

The Soviet salvage organization, Epron, has been doing excellent work these last fifteen years in raising shipwrecked or sunk vessels from the beds of seas, rivers and lakes. Many a vessel that was sent to the bottom by the foreign invaders during the Civil War has been given a new lease of life due to the efficient work of Epron and is now ploughing the rivers and seas under the flag of its Socialist country.

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The fleet of the Soviet merchant marine is rapidly increasing in size thanks to the new vessels that have been built for it by the home yards. Many vessels were also ordered to be built or purchased abroad. The tonnage of the Soviet merchant marine has increased nearly three and a half times between 1923 and 1937. These vessels differ radically from the type of vessel formerly in use. In 1914 the deadweight of a sea-going vessel averaged 1,150 tons. At present the average deadweight is around 3,000 tons.

The Soviet Government has created a large and modern tanker fleet in the Caspian and Black Seas. The fleet of Soviet icebreakers is the largest and most powerful in the world. In the winter months these vessels ensure a free passageway for ships entering and leaving all icebound ports and also maintain a regular service between Murmansk and Vladivostok along the Great Northern Sea Route.

The Soviet river flotilla is practically new. During the two Five-Year Plan pe-

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riods, i.e., 1928-37, the carrying capacity of the fleet of river steamers and motor ships has almost doubled, while that of barges has trebled.

Many new vessels have been added to the river transport service. These include steamers and motor ships ranging from 150 to 1,200 h.p., cargo-passenger boats from 200 to 800 h.p., steamers having a deadweight of from 1,750 to 3,000 tons, refrigerators and numerous motor boats. Many new barges have been built for carrying oil in bulk and dry goods with a carrying capacity of from 1,000 to 4,000 tons. The Moscow-Volga Canal maintains its own fleet of comfortable passenger motor ships of from 280 to 700 h.p. The fleet of small draft motor boats for the lesser rivers is constantly growing.

This has considerably enhanced river and sea shipments. In comparison with the pre-war period the cargo carried by the Soviet water transport system during the Second Five-Year Plan period has increased 300 per cent. The freight turnover of the

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Soviet water transport system aggregated 43,000,000,000 ton-miles in 1937.

In 1924 the freight turnover of sea-going vessels aggregated 3,900,000 tons. In 1937 it already exceeded 29,000,000 tons. During the last ten years shipments of timber have increased eleven times. In 1938 some 19,000,000 tons of oil were shipped by Soviet tankers.

The Soviet merchant marine has considerably increased its relative standing in the import and export trade. In 1929 Soviet vessels carried 10.3 per cent of the country's foreign trade. By 1936 this had already grown to 35.9 per cent.

The Soviet flag can now be met in every port of the world and along all the main ocean and sea routes. Regular sailings are maintained between the U.S.S.R. and the U.S.A.

The importance of the water transport service as a means of conveying passengers is borne out by the fact that in 1938 the fleet of Soviet river steamers alone carried some 67,000,000 passengers.

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71
87

Chief Engineer Shvyreva (right) and Yevdokimov, Superintendent of River Section, inspecting suspension conveyor line

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During the last few years almost all the previously existing seaports and river wharves have been thoroughly reconstructed and brought up to date. Ports like Leningrad, Odessa, Novorossisk, Murmansk, Nikolayev, Poti, Mariupol, Baku, Makhach-Kala, Vladivostok and Archangel have been fitted out with new moorings, portal cranes and other modern port facilities, not to mention elevators and cold storage plants. New ports have come into being such as: Onega, Soroka, Kandalaksha, Igarka, Naryan-Mar, Nogayevo, Kara-Bogaz-Gol, Port Ilyich and Otchemtchiry.

Antiquated river wharves and moorings have been rebuilt and fitted out with new and up-to-date equipment. Such river ports as Gorky, Stalingrad, Kiev, Dniepropetrovsk, Astrakhan, Rostov-on-Don, Perm, Novosibirsk, Archangel, Moscow and Zaporozhye have changed beyond all recognition. Of the new river ports, Lenin Harbor on the Dnieper River, in the vicinity of the hydro-electric power station, deserves particular mention.

The new mechanical appliances with which the ports and harbors have been fitted have made the work of the stevedores much easier. In 1938 fifty per cent of all river vessels were loaded by mechanical means. As a result the labor productivity of the stevedores increased many times over.

The new machinery installed in the ports and harbors has promoted new vocations: crane operators, conveyor belt operators, engine men, electricians, chauffeurs, mechanical engineers now supplant the longshoremen of former days. Engineers, technicians and executive personnel for the river and sea transport service are being trained by the Academy of the Water Transport System, three engineering colleges, 29 technical training schools and 20 workers' colleges. The number of people enrolled in these schools and colleges totals 32,000. Apart from these educational establishments 60 schools are giving special vocational training to juveniles. A large network of central and local courses for Stakhanovites are training or raising the quali-

fications of machine operators, foremen, stevedores, dispatchers and wharf superintendents.

With machinery as an auxiliary, the water transport workers are improving this machinery, making it work better, quicker, in a word, squeezing out of it all that is possible.

During the 1936 navigation season I was working in the coal harbor of the Kiev port. The loading was done by means of a "Yanvarets" conveyor belt. The loading capacity for this type of conveyor was fixed at 32 tons per hour. But owing to various slight defects it was never possible to load more than 28 tons. I made a careful study of the conveyor belt. A simple innovation, proposed by me, had an immediate effect. The brigade to which I belonged began to fulfill the scheduled rate 100 per cent. Further improvements which I introduced enabled us to increase the coal loadings to 40 tons per hour. Naturally, our earnings increased accordingly. We began to make 6.35 rubles an hour.

Continuing the work I had begun of improving the conveyor belt, I succeeded in bringing our loadings up to 50 tons of coal an hour. The conveyor belt hardly managed to cope with the amount of coal the men were shovelling into the loading funnel. What I then did was to increase the speed of the conveyor belt from 2.95 feet per second to 3.9 feet. change the sheaves and lengthen the funnel. The result was that our loadings again began to grow—as much as 70-80 tons per hour.

I was bent, however, on improving this. I proposed a drive for 100 tons an hour. Doubting Thomases did not believe that this was possible. But I was convinced that it was. All that had to be done was to speed up the conveyor belt, install a more powerful motor and enlarge the loading funnel so that it would be possible to shovel coal into it from three sides instead of one.

The day after this innovation was introduced the loadings jumped up to 120 tons per hour, and in the presence of a special commission sent to test my innovation the

result shown was 147 tons. Small craft which usually took about 40-50 tons of coal were now loaded inside half an hour.

I then began to test my innovation with sand loadings. Success was assured from the very outset. Loadings jumped up to 290 tons per hour.

Our earnings also showed a considerable increase. Although we were making record loadings we were not in the least tired and would go home from work happy and jolly.

The press began to take an interest in our work. At first items began to appear in the paper published by the port authorities. Then articles began to be published in the Kiev papers and finally in the newspapers of the capital. In the Soviet Union inventions like mine, or for that matter any scheme for rationalizing industry, serving to make it more productive, are not the private trade secret of any individual or enterprise. They are immediately made public and introduced all over the country. The Stakhanovites of the Dniepropetrovsk port asked us to give them the details about

our innovations. A brigade of Kiev stevedores immediately left for Dniepropetrovsk to demonstrate our methods to the local stevedores. After this the Kiev stevedores challenged the Dniepropetrovsk men to a Socialist competition.

We were bent on showing record results. We fixed up two additional conveyors of the "Samarets" type and linked them up with the main line. This enabled us to feed the main conveyor right from the coal dumps. The loadings jumped to the record figure of 214 tons per hour.

At a rally of inventors which was held in Moscow in the winter of 1936 I undertook to increase the productivity of my conveyor to 300 tons per hour. The actual results, however, during the 1937 navigation season were far beyond my fondest hopes. Our loadings rose to 382 tons per hour.

In the autumn of 1937, together with a group of Kiev stevedores, I was sent to study at the Leningrad Water Transport Academy. The daytime I devoted to study, but at night I worked out the details of a

plan for bringing loadings up to 500 tons per hour.

In the spring of 1938 I was in Dniepropetrovsk. Last year's record established by my brigade had already been topped by another brigade—their loadings being 392 tons. I decided to give a hand to the brigade that was lagging most behind. In a short while this brigade, which had always shown the poorest results, was loading 435 tons, beating the records set by the best brigades. A few days later my plan of 500 tons per hour became a reality—in one hour my brigade loaded 504 tons of coal.

The very next day another brigade also topped the 500 ton mark, loading 500 tons of salt. But soon this high level was left behind. My brigade began loading 630 tons per hour. In other words we were fulfilling 20 normal loading quotas. The conveyor was moving at the rate of 11.4 feet per second. Other brigades were also showing good results.

By the end of 1938 even this high level had been surpassed. Our loadings were now

1,059 tons of coal an hour. In 1939 I have pledged myself to bring up the coal loadings on the existing equipment to 2,000 tons an hour.

Every port, every wharf has its own Stakhanovites, its own inventors, its own rationalizers. The names of Petrash and Henkin, Stakhanovite stevedore men from the port of Odessa, are familiar all over the Soviet Union. At the present moment Petrash has been promoted to superintendent of one of the largest ports in the country—the port of Baku. Henkin, who is a foreman stevedore, was elected a member of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.

Captain Tchadayev, master of the *Stepan Razin*, was the first to begin towing larger caravans of barges. His vessel began towing barges loaded with 40,000 tons of oil. Captain Kalmykov increased the number of barges attached to his tug boat to 22 units. In every basin of the Soviet Union people began to emulate the example set by Captains Tchadayev and Kalmykov. They are raising the productivity of labor

Two-thirds of all the workers in the ship-building and repairing yards are on a seven-hour shift. The rest are on an eight-hour shift, with the exception of stokers, boiler-men and all categories of hazardous trades, who are on a six-hour shift.

Clubs, libraries, theaters, moving picture theaters, stadiums, sports grounds and yacht clubs are at the disposal of the transport workers and their families. The Water Transport Workers' Union has splendid rest homes and sanatoriums in some of the most beautiful spots in the Crimea and the Caucasus. These annually accommodate some 50,000 people.

Before the Revolution the water transport system could boast of only 12 second-rate hospitals. By the middle of 1937, 127 hospitals, 270 clinics and dispensaries, 268 first aid stations (located directly in the yards, wharves, etc.), 247 feldsher stations, 42 health centers for children were at the service of the water transport workers.

While the adults are busy at work loading, manning, building or repairing vessels

their children are looked after in 400 kindergartens. The best of everything is ensured to the children, who are under the constant observation of trained nurses and doctors and experienced pedagogues. In the spacious rooms and playgrounds of these kindergartens the children find interesting pastimes in collective games, music, singing and drawing. In the summer time the kindergartens leave for the countryside.

Under the Third Five-Year Plan (1938-42) the water transport system will play a still more important role in the economic life of the Soviet Union. The fleet of river and sea vessels will be considerably improved from the technical standpoint and will be supplemented by new and still better vessels. The plan provides for the construction of new ship-building yards. The freight turnover of river transport is planned at 36,000,000,000 ton-miles for 1942 and that of sea transport at 32,000,000,000 ton-miles.

New water arteries are to be opened during this Five-Year Plan period and these will increase the length of the inland waterways

from 63,342 miles (the total length at the beginning of 1938) to 76,015 miles.

Of the Volga projects the Uglich development and Rybinsk development will begin to function during this period, while the year 1942 will see the completion of the Rybinsk and Uglich reservoirs. This will increase the depth of the river between Rybinsk and Ivankovo from 4 feet to 16.5 feet. At Kuibyshev work is under way on the largest hydraulic engineering scheme in the world—two hydro-electric power plants of an aggregate capacity of 3,400,000 kilowatts. The dams here will raise the level of the river for a stretch of 1,242 miles and this will allow the passage of ocean-going vessels, provide cheap power to factories and works along the Volga, the South Urals and Moscow, besides irrigating 7,410,000 acres of arid land.

The general plan for the reconstruction of the water arteries of the U.S.S.R. provides for the construction of eight hydraulic engineering development schemes on the Volga River alone, including the three now

under construction. Preliminary work has already begun on the Kama River development scheme near Solikamsk, in the Urals, one of the four projects that will be built on this river. Powerful hydraulic engineering projects will also be built on another tributary of the Volga—the River Oka. A canal at Stalingrad will link up the Volga and the Don rivers. This will give the Volga an outlet to the open sea, connecting it with the Sea of Azov and the Black Sea. With the completion of the Volga-Don Canal, Moscow will become a port of five seas.

The reconstruction of the Volga-Baltic waterway will also be undertaken during this period and will transform this route into a deep watercourse linking up the Volga with the White Sea and the Baltic Sea.

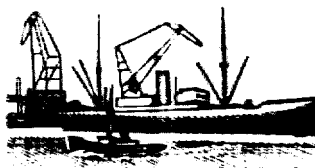
The Kama-Pechora-Vycheгда watercourse will link the Volga with the rivers of the North giving it an outlet to the Arctic.

By the end of the Third Five-Year Plan period the Northern Sea Route from Murmansk to Vladivostok will function as a

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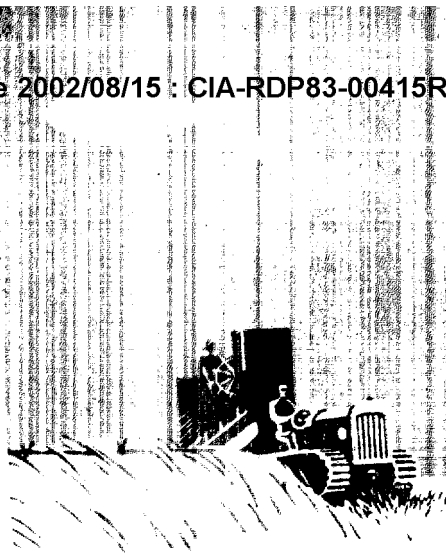
normal route ensuring regular scheduled shipments to and from the Far East.

The Soviet merchant marine, furnished with new, first-class vessels, will ensure still cheaper and quicker shipment of raw materials for the needs of industry, agricultural produce, manufactured goods and consumers' goods produced by Soviet works and mills, along the waterways of the U.S.S.R.



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MACHINE AND TRACTOR STATIONS

BY A. OSKIN

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MACHINE
AND TRACTOR
STATIONS

By A. OSKIN
ORDER OF LENIN
HARVESTER-COMBINE OPERATOR
MEMBER OF THE SUPREME SOVIET
OF THE U.S.S.R.



FOREIGN LANGUAGES PUBLISHING HOUSE
MOSCOW 1939

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On November 8, 1917, one day after the establishment of Soviet power in Russia, the Council of People's Commissars issued its decree on the land.

Under this law private property in land was abolished for all time and the land was declared state property, the property of the people. More than 370,000,000 acres of land formerly comprising the estates of the landed proprietors, the monasteries and the royal family were added to the peasants' holdings.

The Soviet Constitution declares:

"The land occupied by collective farms is secured to them for their use free of charge and for an unlimited time, that is, in perpetuity." (Article 8.)

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. . . The years passed. The Soviet Union completed two Five-Year Plans of economic development. In the space of ten years (1929-1938) large-scale industry in the U.S.S.R. increased its output by almost 400 per cent. A new array of mighty industrial plants, mills and factories arose throughout the country.

The Rostov Agricultural Machinery Plant alone produces more machines per year than were produced by all the agricultural machinery plants of tsarist Russia.

Great tractor works were built at Stalin-grad and Chelyabinsk, plants for the production of harvester combines were opened at Saratov, Zaporozhiye and Rostov. In machine building and tractor production the U.S.S.R. advanced to first place in Europe and second in the world while in output of harvester combines it rose to first place in the world.

Thanks to large-scale socialist industry the Soviet Union was able to reorganize agriculture on completely new lines. By now, 18,800,000 peasant households, 93,5 per

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cent of the total number, had joined collective farms. The Soviet government supplied the collective farms with hundreds of thousands of tractors and harvester combines, a vast number of motor trucks, tractor-drawn farm implements and other machines.

This equipment, the last word in technical progress, is concentrated in the Machine and Tractor Stations (M.T.S.), which have become the principal state enterprises in the countryside, servicing over 250,000,000 acres of collective farm land.

In 1930 the U.S.S.R. had 158 Machine and Tractor Stations. By the beginning of 1939 their number had increased to 6,350, a great network extending from the White Sea to the Black Sea, from the Western frontiers to the Far East. In 1938, the Machine and Tractor Stations serving the collective farms had 130,000 harvester combines, 160,000 motor trucks, 105,000 threshing machines and 394,500 powerful tractors, and their number is steadily increasing. In addition there are hundreds of thousands of other machines and mechanical appliances

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in the Machine and Tractor Stations as well as a large number of well-equipped repair shops.

The Machine and Tractor Stations are financed by the state, and have no farms of their own. In 1938 alone the state assigned 7,000,000,000 rubles to the Machine and Tractor Stations. The work of each M.T.S. is planned in conformity with the work of the collective farms which it serves.

The stations work on the basis of a standard contract with the collective farms in their area.

Under this standard contract, which is legally binding, the particular M.T.S. undertakes to do certain work of a definite quality by a definite date in the given collective farm. On the other hand, the collective farm has specific agrotechnical and other duties to perform. It must do part of the work, mainly of an auxiliary nature, and provide draft animals for hauling supplies of fuel for the tractors, and other purposes.

Through the Machine and Tractor Stations the state plans the process of production

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Living Quarters and Tractor Park for one of the Brigades of Drivers
Sent Out from the Protochnaya M.I.S. (near Slavyansk, Krasnodar
Territory)

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and the introduction of the latest scientific farming methods on a wide scale, thus insuring big harvests regularly.

The work performed by the Machine and Tractor Stations is paid for in kind by the collective farms according to the rate fixed for each class of work. Thus, for threshing, the collective farm gives the M.T.S. from 4 to 6 per cent of the grain threshed by M.T.S. threshers.

The Machine and Tractor Stations render the entire proceeds to the state.

The Machine and Tractor Stations are well staffed with engineers, mechanics, agronomists, expert bookkeepers and accountants, land reclamation experts, hydraulic engineers and other trained men. Here we might add that the Machine and Tractor Stations are bound by contract to train a regular contingent of the collective farmers for skilled work.

During eleven months in 1938 the amount of tractoring performed in the collective farms by the Machine and Tractor Stations came to the staggering figure of 481,150,000

acres of conventional ploughing.* Collective farm harvests have increased correspondingly. In tsarist Russia the harvest of grain crops never exceeded 80,000,000 tons, while in 1937 the grain harvest in the U.S.S.R. reached 111,500,000 tons.

Before the revolution the cultivation of tea, citrus fruits, soy beans, kenaf, hemp, sesame, and rubber plants was unknown in the Russian countryside. Now, with the help of the Machine and Tractor Stations the collective farms are making splendid progress in the cultivation of these and many other plants.

The concentration of machines in the Machine and Tractor Stations and the merging of the peasant farms into collective farms controlling vast areas of land have made it possible for machinery to be used in agriculture to the utmost advantage.

In 1938 the average area farmed per M.T.S. tractor was 1,015 acres.

* *i.e.*, ploughing plus all forms of tractor work (sowing, harvesting, etc.).

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Collective-Farmers Attending Class at the M.T.S.

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Stakhanov tractor drivers cultivate as much as 5,000 acres with wheel tractors and up to 12,500 acres with caterpillar tractors.

The tractors on the collective farm fields do not work singly, but in teams consisting of a number of tractors with the requisite outfit of appliances and agricultural machines. The work of these teams is directed by mechanics and agronomists. Skilled men from the M.T.S. repair shops see to it that the machines are kept in good order. The M.T.S. tractor teams are attached to a definite collective farm for the whole season to complete all the work undertaken in the contract.

Through the Machine and Tractor Stations the collective farms are also served with harvester combines which have become the principal harvesting machines in the U.S.S.R. harvesting about one-half of the total collective farm area.

In one season, harvester combine operator Borin of the Steinhardt Machine and Tractor Station, in the Krasnodar Territory, harvested 4,940 acres of land under cereals, an

average of 185 acres a day. 2,950 tons of grain passed through his bunker.

Thanks to such thorough mechanization, farm jobs take much less time than formerly, and the collective farmers are able to get the sowing and harvesting done quickly without losses.

Prokhorov and Susopatieva of the Red October Collective Farm, Vozhgal District, Kirov Region tell us what a difference the Machine and Tractor Station have made.

"In the old days the peasants had to sweat blood for every pood of grain. We got from 300 to 375 pounds from the acre. Now we have the Machine and Tractor Station to help us. In 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ hours a tractor ploughs 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ acres, and a combine harvester harvests 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ acres in half an hour. The yield per acre has increased to 1,500 and 3,000 pounds."

The figures for 1937 show that collective farm labour is six times more productive than was farm labor in tsarist Russia. Up-to-date mechanization is making agricultural labour more and more like industrial labor.

The collective farms have their own

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Tractor Ploughing in a Collective Farm

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electric power stations, clubs, theaters and moving picture houses, laboratories, schools, nurseries, kindergartens, hospitals, athletic fields and radio centers. Farm life is rapidly coming up to urban standards.

Thousands of peasants' sons and daughters are studying in universities. Last year alone agricultural colleges gave the Machine and Tractor Stations and collective farms 12,732 experts in agronomy, veterinary science, scientific animal husbandry, irrigation, hydraulic land reclamation, mechanics and surveying. Every year about a million persons take courses in mechanics.

In the village of Moskovskoye, Izobilensk District, Orjonikidze Territory, there are five schools, with a total attendance of 1,600 children and a teaching staff of 43. There are six stores, a hospital, a clinic, a drug store, a club with a library, a central school for collective farmers from the surrounding districts and, of course, a Machine and Tractor Station—the industrial center of the new, collective farm village.

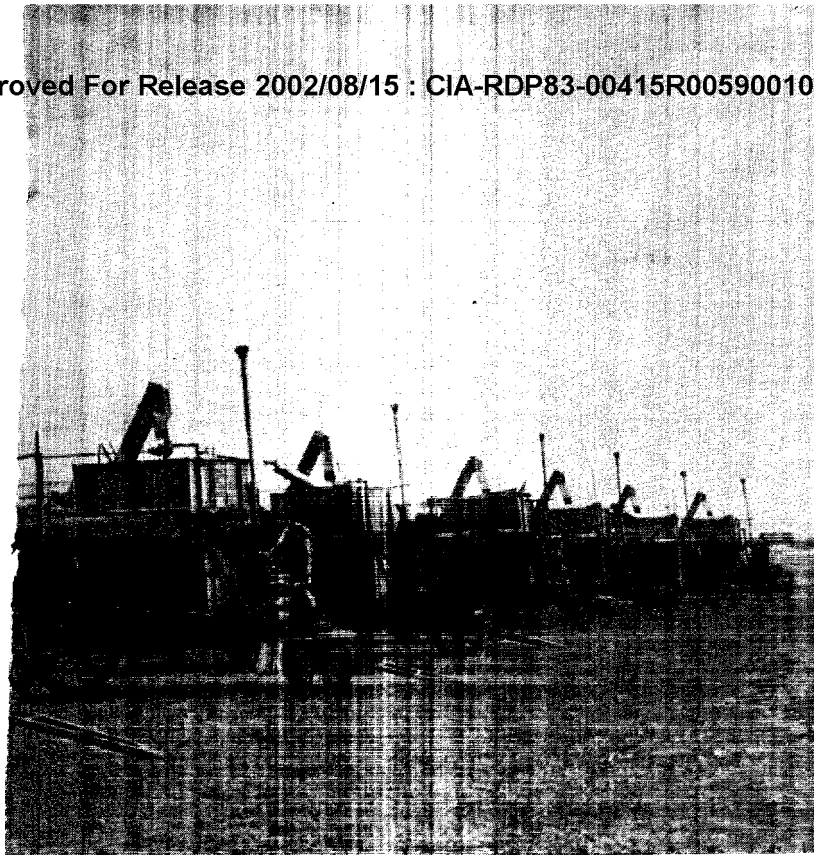
The number of professional people in

Moskovskoye is constantly increasing. Two local peasants have become professors, seven—doctors, thirty-six—teachers, twelve—agronomists, eight—engineers, and ten hold commissions in the army. Before the advent of collectivization the two brothers, Michael and Alexei Tolin worked as farm hands for kulaks. Now Michael is a colonel in the Red Army and Alexei is a doctor. Ivan Chaiko, formerly a poor peasant, is now a scientist and lectures at a college in Leningrad.

Or take another village, Koltsovka, Vurnarsk District, Chuvash Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic. Not so long ago the chairman of the local collective farm was Korotkov. He proved to be a capable executive and was promoted to a higher post. Now he is the People's Commissar of Agriculture of the Chuvash Republic.

There are many villages like Moskovskoye and Koltsovka in the U.S.S.R. Collective farmers become People's Commissars, tractor drivers become academicians, milkmaids become members of the government. Such

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Harvester Combines at the Romadanovo M.T.S.
(Mordov A.S.S.R.)

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are the opportunities open to all in the collective farm villages.

In the old days there was no mass training of technical personnel for work in the countryside, there were no schools for young talent like the machine and tractor stations which are now training skilled labor for our socialist farms. New figures have appeared on the rural scene, people with semi-industrial professions formerly unheard of in the countryside. By the most modest estimates the Soviet countryside has 1,500,000 tractor drivers and harvester combine operators, 124,000 truck drivers, 240,000 collective farm chairmen, over 535,000 field foremen and approximately 264,000 stock-farm managers and foremen.

This vast army of skilled people is working hard to increase the productivity of farm labor. In its front ranks are the Stakhanovites, people who know their work to perfection, people who have introduced new methods and efficient organization of work.

Take the Stakhanovites of the Kaganovich

M.T.S. in the Krasnodar Territory. At this station, which employs 25 tractor teams, there are 200 tractor drivers. A hundred and forty-eight of them fulfil their assignments 200 per cent and over. Five of these teams consist entirely of Stakhanovites. Each tractor driver in these teams ploughs 18 acres with three-coulter plows to a depth of 7.9 inches. And the assignment is 8.6 acres.

The assignment for harrowing is 98 acres but these tractor drivers do 195.5 acres. The assignment for scarifying is 42 acres; they do 138.8 acres. The days' assignment for combine-harvesting is from 19 to 22 acres. Some of our Stakhanovite combine operators harvest 1,730 acres of grain, in the 22 days of the harvesting season.

Thousands of Soviet combine operators harvest from 2,500 to 5,000 acres in one season.

The Stakhanov movement in the countryside is advancing by leaps and bounds.

Millions of peasant families receive from 16 to 25 and more tons of grain a year in their collective farms. In addition to this income in kind the collective farmers re-

ceive cash. Exceptionally large money incomes are received by the collective farmers in the cotton, flax, stock-raising, sugar beet-growing and citrus fruit districts.

Before the advent of collectivization, Gerassimov, now a member of the Dimitrov Collective Farm in the Narimanov District, Stalingrad Region was a poor man. In the collective farm he became an expert farmer, a Stakhanovite. In 1938 his share of the collective farm income was 14,000 rubles plus several tons of grain, vegetables and other produce.

In 1938 in the Khanlar District of the Azerbaijan S.S.R. the Thaelman Collective Farm, consisting of Germans, received 4,450,000 rubles for its produce. The family of Robert Schmidt received 7,500 rubles in cash and 4,700 rubles worth of farm produce. In 1938 this collective farm spent 778,000 rubles on building extensions and cultural service for the collective farmers.

There are tens of thousands of collective farms like this one in the U.S.S.R.

In 1938, with my brother Arkhip, a com-

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bine operator like myself I harvested the collective farms in the Ileik District of the Chkalov Region. In 41 days the two of us together harvested 12,933 acres. Our earnings came to 42,315 rubles.

More and more collective farms are getting the benefit of M.T.S. service, and increasing their incomes beyond the million ruble mark. In the Nikolaev Region in the Ukraine 35 collective farms have become millionaire farms. In the Temruk District, Krasnodar Region 20 collective farms each receive incomes of over a million rubles. In the Ferghana Region, Uzbek S.S.R. in 1938 the number of millionaire collective farms rose to 320.

Under the collective farm system life in the villages of the U.S.S.R. has become prosperous and cultured. Socialist industry and collectivized agriculture complement each other, each assisting the other to attain further progress.

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**INDUSTRIAL PROGRESS
IN THE SOVIET REPUBLICS
OF THE
NON-RUSSIAN NATIONALITIES**



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By M. Ranyan

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**INDUSTRIAL PROGRESS
IN THE
SOVIET REPUBLICS
OF THE NON-RUSSIAN
NATIONALITIES**

By M. POPYAN

VICE-PRESIDENT OF THE PRESIDUM OF THE
SUPREME SOVIET OF THE U.S.S.R.
CHAIRMAN OF THE SUPREME SOVIET OF THE
ARMENIAN SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC



FOREIGN LANGUAGES PUBLISHING HOUSE
MOSCOW 1939

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MORE than three-quarters of the entire industry of tsarist Russia was concentrated in its central provinces, in the Ukraine and in the Baku oil district.

The non-Russian borderlands of the empire were looked upon by Russian and foreign capitalists alike as nothing more than sources of raw material and markets for the sale of manufactured goods.

When it came into power, the Soviet Government abolished the regime of national oppression and established the equality of all nationalities. To give effect to this national policy, it had to put an end, in the shortest possible time, to the economic

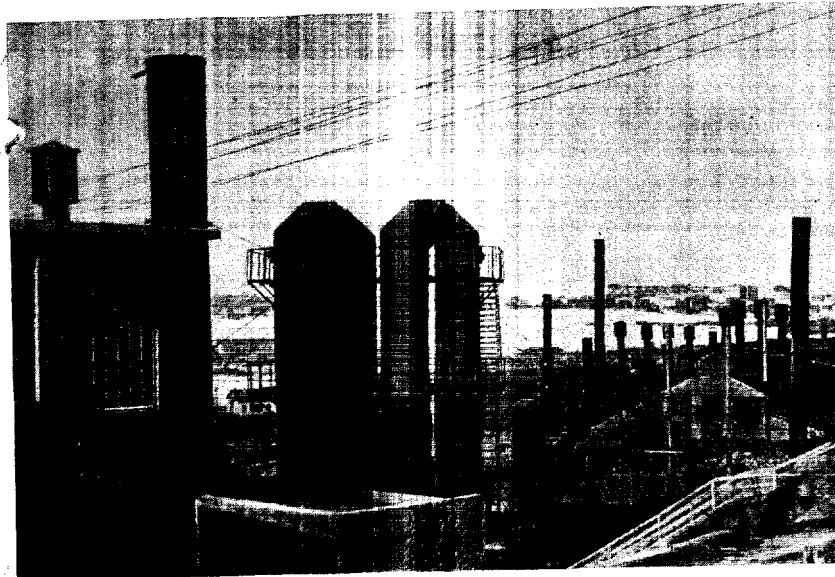
and cultural backwardness of the nationalities formerly oppressed by tsarism.

Accordingly, the Communist Party and the Soviet Government designed and enacted a series of measures which enabled the districts inhabited by the backward nationalities to overtake the more developed central regions of Russia.

Many industrialization measures were included. During the first two Five-Year Plan periods (1928-37) the former "borderlands" of the country witnessed the construction of numerous industrial establishments and the growth of large forces of workers and professional people of native stock. Without all this, national equality would be but a sham, an empty, meaningless phrase.

The republics of the non-Russian nationalities comprised in the U.S.S.R. have fundamentally reorganized their national economy and have attained gigantic industrial expansion. From agrarian adjuncts serving as raw material bases for the industries of Russia proper, they have been

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Lead Works of the Ridder metallurgical plant
in Kazakhstan

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turned into mighty centers of Socialist industry. Vital centers of the iron and steel, coal, oil, machine-building and electric power industries have sprung up in the Soviet East.

There is no republic or region of a non-Russian nationality in the U.S.S.R. that has not founded its own industry during the last ten years. This is equally true of both the large and the small republics and regions.

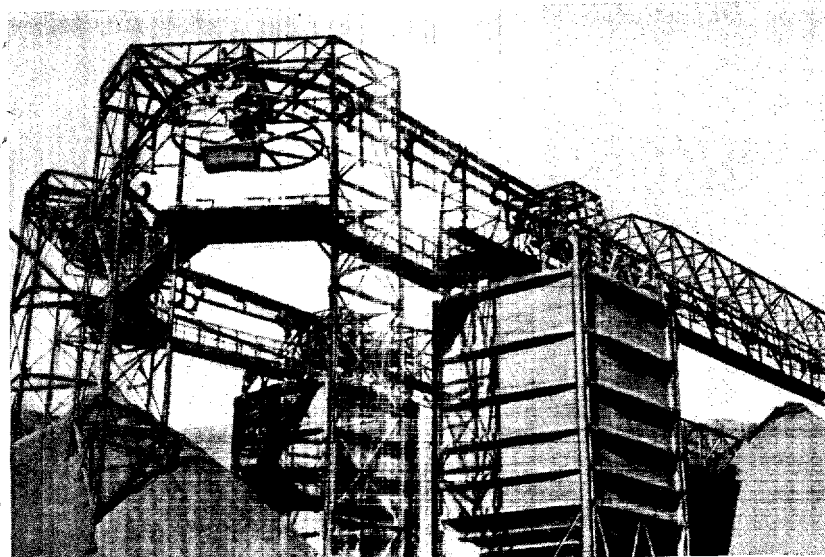
Let us, for example, consider the Bashkirian Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic, whose dimensions are relatively small. The funds invested in the national economy of *Bashkiria* in 1932 alone equaled the total sum invested in this region by tsarist Russia in half a century. During the Second Five-Year Plan period (1933-37) capital investments in the national economy of this republic exceeded 1,000,000,000 rubles. Bashkiria, which before the Revolution had practically no industrial enterprises at all, has now built up scores of new factories, including the well-known

Ufa Motor Works and an oil cracking plant. The Beloretsk and Baimak Works have been totally reconstructed and transformed into modern enterprises. This republic has also been found to contain oil, and the Ishimbai and Tuimazy oil fields are already being successfully operated.

Let us now turn to another republic—*Kazakhstan*—one of the eleven constituent republics of the Soviet Union. This is a vast country, occupying a territory of 1,060,000 sq. miles, and is exceedingly rich in valuable minerals. It includes the huge Emba oil fields, second in size to the Baku fields. Its copper deposits constitute 60 per cent, and nickel deposits 50 per cent of the total known deposits in the U.S.S.R. Kazakhstan also has huge coal deposits. Recent prospecting revealed immense phosphorite deposits and new chromite beds. They are among the richest in the world. The metal content of the Altai gold, silver, zinc and copper ores is of the highest.

Yet, until the Revolution, all these

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Mechanized loading of manganese at the Chiatura
mines in Georgia

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riches lay buried in the ground untouched. Kazakhstan was a backward region whose nomad population engaged almost exclusively in rather primitive cattle breeding. Meat and leather were the sole products they provided for Russia's central regions. There were no industrial enterprises of any account, no railroads and no telegraph or telephone service.

Today the Kazakh Soviet Socialist Republic represents a land of new constructions. A large coal industry has been created here, with Karaganda as its center. Numerous oil fields are being exploited, the erection of the gigantic Balkhash copper smelting works has been completed, the Ridder Lead Works has been entirely reconstructed, and a huge lead factory, the giant of the Soviet Union's lead industry, has been erected at Chimkent, while several new chemical and other works have been added to the republic's industrial plant.

The tempestuous rate of development of the republic's industries may be judged by the fact that during the years of the

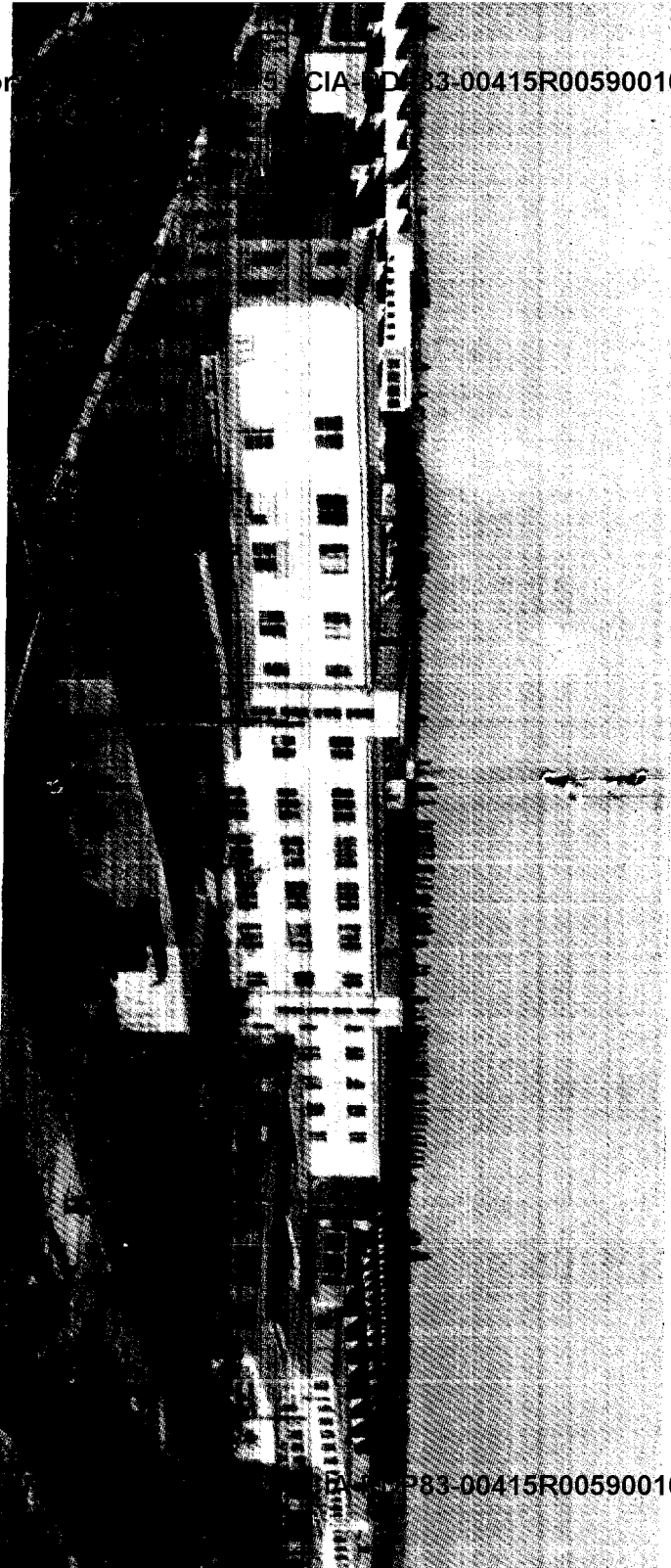
Second Five-Year Plan lead smelting in Kazakhstan increased twelve-fold and in 1937 constituted 75.3 per cent of the total lead smelted in the Soviet Union, as against 30.2 per cent in 1932.

A roadless country in the past, Kazakhstan under Soviet rule has been covered with a whole network of overland communication lines, including numerous railroads whose trackage totals 4,160 miles, while 3,700 miles of waterways have been made available for navigation.

Bordering on Kazakhstan is *Uzbekistan*, one of the Soviet Socialist Republics situated in Central Asia. In the past, this republic, like all the other borderlands inhabited by non-Russian peoples, was a tsarist colony. It supplied the central regions of the empire with cotton, which the tsarist authorities did not allow to be woven or even spun in the regions which produced it. Today, Uzbekistan has a number of big textile mills. Special mention must be made of the huge plant in Tashkent, the republic's capital, which is equipped

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The Stalin Textile Mills in Tashkent, Uzbekistan



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with 112,000 spindles and 3,246 looms. A second section of this plant is now under construction, upon completion of which the plant will have in operation 211,000 spindles and 6,952 looms. Many electric power stations, plants manufacturing agricultural machinery and implements, silk reeling mills, clothing factories and other industrial establishments have also been built in Uzbekistan. Not far from Tashkent, on the banks of the Chirchik River, a combined plant producing electricity and chemical products is now under construction. It consists of a hydro-electric power station with a capacity of 270,000 kilowatts, which will supply cheap energy to the industrial establishments of Tashkent, and of a fertilizer factory whose products will go to enrich the republic's cotton fields.

The industrial development of Uzbekistan has led to a considerable increase in the number of the republic's native workers and professionals. Over 100,000 people are now employed in its large-scale industries and on construction. More than half of these

are skilled and semi-skilled Uzbek workers. An Uzbek technical intelligentsia—technicians and engineers—has also come into existence.

Similar records of achievements may be exhibited by the other non-Russian nationalities of the U.S.S.R. Industry is rapidly expanding not only in those republics which formerly were agrarian colonies pure and simple, but also in Azerbaijan and the Ukraine, which even before the Revolution had quite a few industrial establishments.

In *Azerbaijan*, the old Baku oil industry, dating back to pre-revolutionary days, has been entirely reorganized. As a result, the annual oil yield has increased 3 times in comparison with 1913, the gas yield 69 times and the production of gasoline 48 times. In recent years a number of new oil fields have been prospected and are now extensively exploited. In 1938 the new fields and the new wells on the old fields accounted for 83 per cent of the total oil output.

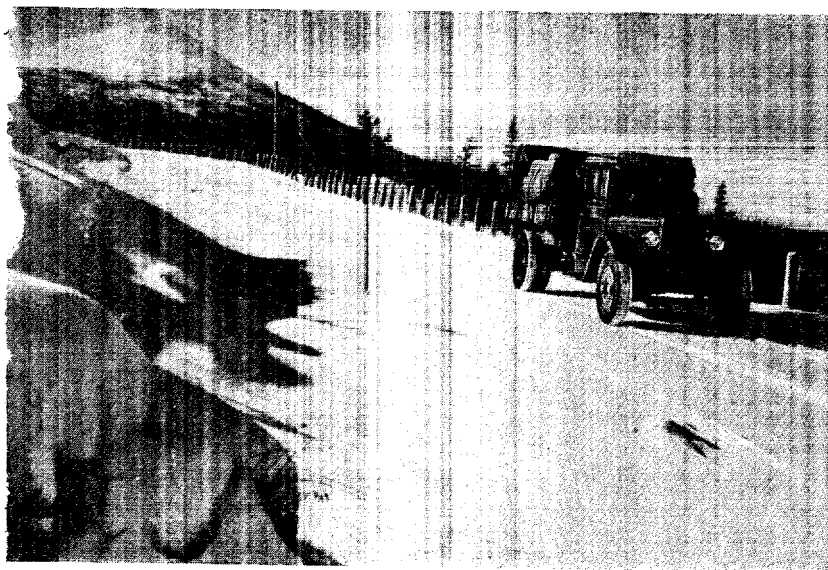
The Donetz coal basin, the chief pur-

veyor of coal for the whole country before the Revolution, is located in the *Ukraine*. Now, with the development of the Kuznetsk coal fields in Siberia, the Karaganda coal fields in Kazakhstan and local coal fields in Central Asia, Georgia, the Far East and in other districts, the Donetsk basin's proportionate share in the Soviet Union's output of coal has, naturally, diminished. However, as far as absolute figures go, the mining of coal in the Donetsk basin is increasing from year to year and has more than tripled in comparison with pre-war times. Today, the Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic produces twice as much coal as all of Poland.

The Ukraine also had an iron and steel industry before the Revolution. This, too, has been thoroughly reconstructed during the years of the Soviet rule. In place of the old blast and open-hearth furnaces and of the old rolling mills, new, thoroughly modernized equipment has been installed.

Many first-class new works, such as the Zaporozhye Steel Mill, the Azov Steel

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The new mountain highway leading to the Aldan
gold fields in Yakutia

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Mill, the Krivoy Rog plant and others, have been erected. During the years of the Second Five-Year Plan alone (1933-37), the Ukraine's output of pig iron was more than doubled. One plant--the Kirov iron and steel mill in Makeyevka--produces twice as much pig iron as all the iron and steel mills in Poland put together. During this same period the production of steel in the Ukraine almost tripled. Ukrainian mills produce as much steel annually as Japan, Italy and Poland put together. In comparison with 1913, the machine-building industry in the Ukraine has grown thirty-fold and the generation of electric power 18.5-fold. The Lenin Hydro-Electric Power Station on the Dnieper, built under Soviet rule, alone supplies more electric power than did all the power houses of tsarist Russia in the aggregate.

The author of these lines is an Armenian, and it is therefore only natural that he should want to illustrate the industrial expansion in the republics of the non-Russian nationalities by the example of Armenia.

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Until 1914 the industry of *Armenia*, in the main an agrarian country, was extremely backward and even primitive. Its few factories were hardly more than handicraft shops.

Most developed at that time were the copper industry, the production of alcoholic beverages, and cotton ginning by handicraft methods.

The inexhaustible natural resources of this mountainous country, with its rivers and lakes and its colossal reserves of valuable minerals, were practically unexploited.

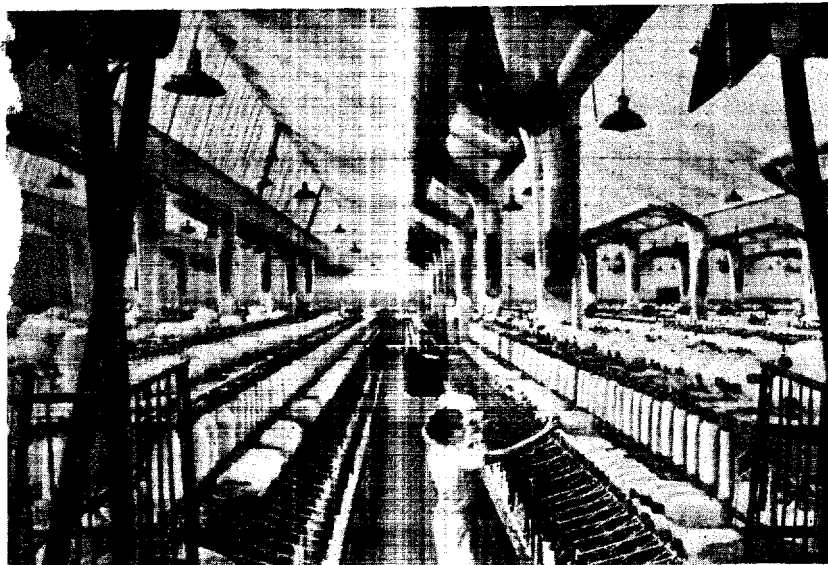
All the electric power in Armenia used to be supplied by two hydro-electric power stations with a total capacity of 250 kilowatts.

During the World War (1914-18) and the years in which the Armenian counter-revolutionary Party of the Dashnaks was in power (1918-20) Armenia's weak industry was altogether ruined.

Only Soviet rule, established in Armenia on November 29, 1920, put an end to its economic prostration. The initial period of

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One of the departments of the Orjonikidze Textile
Mills at Kirovabad, Azerbaijan

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economic revival has been followed by the Socialist industrialization of its national economy.

A number of hydro-electric power stations, with an aggregate annual output of 350,000,000 kilowatt-hours, have been built. All these power houses are linked up into a single chain, which makes it possible to regulate the flow of electric power.

Extensive work is now under way to utilize the abundant waters of the huge Sevan Lake, situated high in the mountains, for which purpose a number of hydro-electric power stations are being erected on the cascade system along the Zanga River.

When construction of the cascade is completed, leaving the lake and its innumerable fisheries intact, Armenia will annually be supplied with more than 3,000,000,000 kilowatt-hours of cheap electric power.

At the same time the water discharged by the turbines will go to irrigate more than 321,000 acres of fertile soil.

Construction of power plants has made possible the extensive development of in-

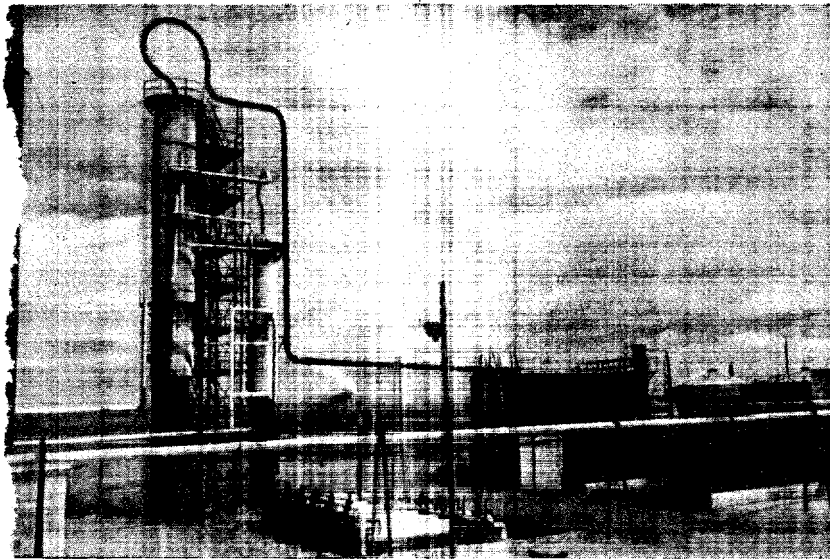
dustry. New branches of industry have been launched, and the old branches have been fundamentally reconstructed. Armenia's copper industry has made big strides. At present the annual output of the Alaverd and Kafan copper smelting works amounts to 10,000 tons.

The republic also has large chemical works. In Erevan, the capital of Armenia, a huge synthetic rubber works has been erected. Some time ago a new cement factory, producing 111,000 tons of high-quality material annually, sprang up on the Davalin sands, at the foot of a long range of mountains rich in limestone.

A machine-building plant manufacturing engines and compressors is another addition to the Republic's industries.

A new tobacco factory manufactures 1,700,000,000 cigarettes a year. Armenia's canneries yearly put out 20,000,000 cans of preserved fruits and vegetables. The output of wine presses and distilleries, meat packing plants and other establishments of

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Cracking plant at Neftedag, a new oil center in
Turkmeni-tan

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the food industry has also increased to a marked extent.

Two cotton ginneries have been built to take care of the rich cotton crops. Their capacity is 22,000 tons of cotton annually.

A huge textile plant, with large new spinning and weaving mills, forms the nucleus of a regular little town of its own within the city of Leninakan. This plant has 117,000 spindles and produces 33,000,000 yards of textiles a year.

The leather and shoe industry has also undergone considerable development.

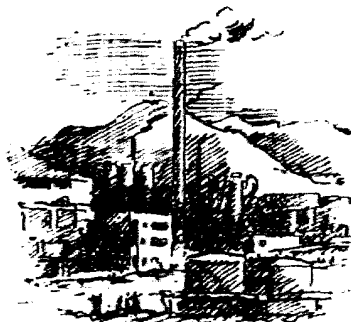
Erevan, which only recently used to amaze the foreign tourist by its winding, typically Asiatic streets and clay hovels, has been transformed into a beautiful, well-planned city really deserving of being a capital.

Under capitalist conditions nations required whole centuries to attain to modern modes of production.

With the impetus given them by the October Socialist Revolution, our formerly backward nations needed little more than

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a decade to develop into flourishing Socialist republics, where exploitation of man by man and national oppression have been wiped out once and for all, where advanced Socialist industry and large-scale Socialist agriculture hold undivided sway.



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By ACADEMICIAN A-BA KOV

Magnitogorsk

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Magnitogorsk

By A. BAIKOV

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FOREIGN LANGUAGES PUBLISHING HOUSE
MOSCOW 1939

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ARTIST A. ZHITOMIRSKY

PRINTED IN THE UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS

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THE URALS-KUZBAS PROBLEM

Tsarist Russia was an agrarian country with a backward industry. But even that industry was extremely unevenly distributed throughout the country. Textile mills, for instance, were built only in the central districts, far from the sources of raw material. Oil extraction was concentrated almost entirely in Baku, and coal mining in the Donetz Basin (Ukraine). The principal iron and steel plants were concentrated in southern Ukraine. This was practically the sole coal and iron and steel producing center of tsarist Russia: it accounted for nearly 90 per cent

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of the coal mined in the country and about 75 per cent of the pig iron produced.

This uneven distribution of industrial enterprises and their remoteness both from the sources of raw material and from the consuming districts caused heavy losses to the national economy of the country. Naturally, the Soviet Government, which has set itself the aim of developing the productive forces of the country according to a definite plan and along strictly scientific lines, has from the very outset dealt with the question of the rational distribution of industry throughout the country.

Lenin dealt with this problem as early as 1918. It was he also who at that time put forward the idea of building up a new coal and metallurgical base in the east of the U.S.S.R.—what was known as the Urals-Kuzbas problem. The project visualized the creation of a powerful iron and steel industry based on the iron ore deposits of the Southern Urals (principally of Magnitnaya Mountain) and the coal deposits of the Kuznetsk Basin.

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This idea was further elaborated and put into practice on the initiative of J. V. Stalin.

Both the iron ore deposits of Magnitnaya Mountain and the coal deposits of the Kuznetsk Basin are extremely rich, and of a very high quality. The distance between them is about 1,250 miles, and, in order to utilize them to the best advantage, it was necessary to build two large industrial centers; an iron and steel and ore mining center in the Southern Urals, and an iron and steel and coal mining center in Western Siberia.

This vast project was realized during the period of the First Five-Year Plan. An official decision was promulgated by the Soviet Government on January 16, 1929, providing for the construction of the Magnitogorsk Iron and Steel Works on the basis of the previously drawn up plans. On March 10 of the same year work was started on this construction, and on February 1, 1932 pig iron began to flow from blast furnace No. 1 of Magnitogorsk.

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Simultaneously with the building of the Magnitogorsk plant, construction was going on on the Kuznetsk iron and steel works which started operation somewhat earlier than the former.

Professor Davis, an American engineer, wrote *à propos* of the Urals-Kuznetsk project at the time that, according to preliminary data, the iron ore deposits discovered in the Magnitnaya Mountain district in the Southern Urals are the richest in the world. A considerable part of these ores do not even require concentration. Professor Davis pointed out that the Soviet government's plan to combine the exploitation of the Ural ore with that of the Kuznetsk coal, with the construction of two gigantic iron and steel plants at both ends, was one of the boldest and most stupendous projects ever undertaken in the history of the iron and steel industry.

This plan of the Soviet Government, which Professor Davis characterized as a bold and stupendous project, has now materialized.

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Magnitogorsk. Coke-Chemical Plant.

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The Magnitogorsk Combine mines iron ore for its own plants and for the Kuznetsk Combine.

The Kuznetsk Combine, on the other hand, while receiving iron ore from Magnitogorsk, supplies the latter with coal mined in the Kuznetsk Basin.

The Magnitogorsk Works consists of a number of plants organized as a single administrative and economic unit with a huge output of iron and steel.

The central feature of the Combine is the iron and steel works with blast furnaces (production of pig iron), a steel smelting plant (production of steel in open hearth furnaces) and rolling mills, as well as a number of auxiliary shops.

Immediately adjoining the iron and steel works are the powerful mines where the iron ore is extracted and worked up. The neighboring districts abound in deposits of limestone, dolomites, quartzite and fireproof clays.

A special coke-chemical plant has been built for the production of coke.

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The Combine includes also a plant for the production of fireproof materials (Dinas clay and chamotte) adjoining the iron and steel works.

THE SUPPLY OF RAW MATERIALS

The principal source of the iron ore is Atach Mountain, one of the four peaks of Magnitnaya Mountain, rising 2,017 feet above sea level. Its western slope is rich in magnetite deposits representing a huge lode amid the volcanic rock formations.

The presence of iron ore in Magnitnaya Mountain was known long ago. Ore in small quantities was extracted here as early as 1747. But at that time nobody had a clear idea of the significance of these deposits. The Mountain attracted very little attention. It was situated in a sparsely inhabited steppe region devoid of any forests, and there were no railways. The little ore that was mined was carted by horses to the Byeloretsk Works situ-

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ated about sixty miles from Magnitnaya Mountain.

Prior to the World War of 1914-18 the output of ore on Magnitnaya Mountain never exceeded 50,000 tons a year. In those times all the Ural industries used only charcoal, and this necessarily limited the output.

All this has changed with the introduction of mineral fuel from the Kuznetsk Basin. The Kuznetsk coals coke well, have a small ash and sulphur content, and their known deposits reach hundreds of billions of tons. As a result, Magnitnaya Mountain has assumed a tremendous significance

Thorough geologic surveys have established the amount of the ore deposits and their composition. It has been brought to light that Magnitnaya Mountain contains 450,000,000 tons of magnetite ore with an average content of iron amounting to over 60 per cent.

Due to the processes of erosion the top deposits have been largely transformed

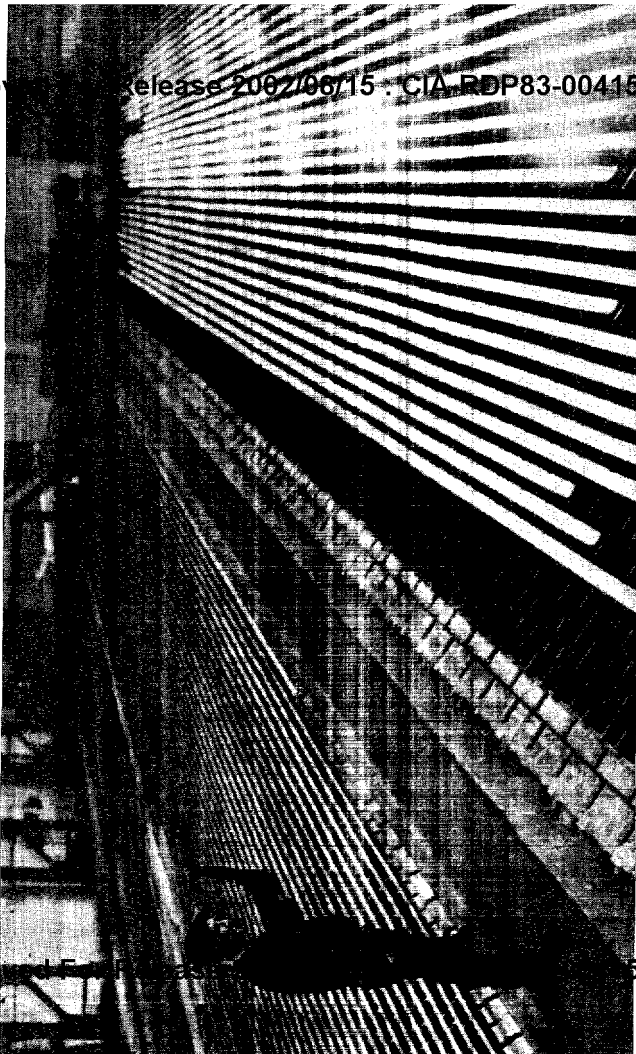
into easily restorable martite with a small-sulphur and phosphorus content. Its average composition is the following: iron 64.47 per cent, sulphur 0.19 per cent and phosphorus 0.015 per cent. The deeper deposits contain more sulphur and less iron (an average of 58.34 per cent) but their phosphorus content is also small.

One of the largest ore mining enterprises in the world has been built up on the site of these deposits. The mine is well equipped with modern machinery. All the processes of ore extraction are a hundred per cent mechanized. There are also crushing, washing, sorting and agglomeration plants attached to the mine.

In the past seven years the mine supplied 30,000,000 tons of ore to the Magnitogorsk and Kuznetsk Iron and Steel Works. At present it supplies annually 6,500,000 tons of ore ready for the blast furnaces. This represents 18 per cent of all the iron ore mined in the U.S.S.R.

In addition to the Magnitnaya Mountain deposits, the Combine has at its disposal

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Refrigerating Room in the Rolling Mill of the Stalin Iron and Steel Works.

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the Komarovo-Zigazinsk iron ore, the known deposits of which reach 150,000,000 tons, and manganese ore deposits estimated at 2,600,000 tons.

The districts in the vicinity of the Combine abound in valuable minerals which are used as fluxes and fireproof and building materials.

The known deposits of these minerals include:

Limestone	289,000,000 tons
Dolomite	2,700,000 „
Quartzite	6,000,000 „

The known deposits of fireproof clays and moulding sand reach scores of millions of tons.

Thus nature has fully provided the Magnitogorsk Iron and Steel Works and all its auxiliary plants with an abundant and uninterrupted supply of all the necessary raw materials for a long time to come.

INDUSTRIAL PLANTS

The *Coke-Chemical Plant* consists of four batteries (276 ovens) of the Koppers-Becker system and covers the entire chemical cycle. At the same time it provides an enormous amount of high-caloried gas which is utilized for the open-hearth furnaces and for other purposes.

The *Iron and Steel Works* includes four blast furnaces with a volumetric efficiency of 41,670 cu. ft. each. The output per day of each furnace is over 1,000 tons of pig iron.

There are ten stationary open-hearth furnaces of 150 ton capacity each and four of 350 ton capacity each with a total hearth area of 9,648 sq. ft. Two more open-hearth furnaces of 350 ton capacity each are now under construction.

The plant is equipped with a powerful blooming mill with two continuous billet-mills and six of the most up-to-date automatic merchant mills, including a wire-drawing mill of a design which is unique in the world.

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Reading Room in the Workers' Club of the Stalin
Iron and Steel Works
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Another powerful blooming mill is provided with a continuous billet-mill "720."

The huge Iron and Steel Works has its own:

- Central electric power plant;
- Steam power department;
- Mechanical shop, forge-shop, foundry and repair shop;
- Chamotte and Dinas brick plant;
- Chemical, electrotechnical and thermo-technical laboratories;
- Railway, automobile and other transport facilities.

A huge reservoir, formed on the Ural River by the building of two dams, supplies the Works with water and feeds the water supply system which has a daily capacity of 132,000,000 gallons of water.

The Magnitogorsk Combine covers an area of 27 sq. miles in the valley of the Ural River.

By September 1, 1938, expenditures on the construction of the first section of the Combine amounted to 1,322,500,000 rubles.

The Combine employs 26,000 workers, engineers and technicians.

In the seven years following the beginning of its operation the Combine produced:

Over 30,000,000 tons of iron ore;
10,500,000 tons of coke;
8,200,000 tons of pig iron;
5,600,000 tons of steel;
4,400,000 tons of rolled steel.

The Iron and Steel Works has been gradually increasing production, while the construction of the Combine has been going on all the time. At present the first section of the Combine is nearly completed.

The following figures indicate the nature of its work in 1938:

Output of pig iron—1,796,000 tons;
Co-efficient of volumetric efficiency of blast furnaces—0.90;

Average annual output of pig iron per blast furnace—449,000 tons;

Output of steel—1,580,000 tons.

The output of pig iron at the Magnitogorsk Iron and Steel Works amounts

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Magnitogorsk. A School Building.

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to nearly a half (42 per cent) of the total output of pig iron in tsarist Russia.

THE SECOND SECTION

When the second section of the Magnitogorsk Combine is completed within the next few years, it will include the following:

A mining enterprise consisting of three powerful crushing plants, a washing and a concentrating plant, an agglomeration plant and a number of auxiliary plants;

A coke-chemical plant with eight batteries (544 ovens) covering a complete chemical cycle;

Eight powerful blast furnaces;

Three steel-smelting shops with 29 stationary open-hearth furnaces (ten of 150 ton capacity and nineteen of 350 ton capacity);

Two blooming mills with continuous billet-mills "720," "630" and "450";

Six merchant rolling mills;

A rail and beam rolling mill.

The Combine will produce annually:
8,500,000 tons of sorted iron ore;

Over 4,000,000 tons of coke;
4,500,000 tons of pig iron;
5,000,000 tons of steel;
4,000,000 tons of rolled steel.

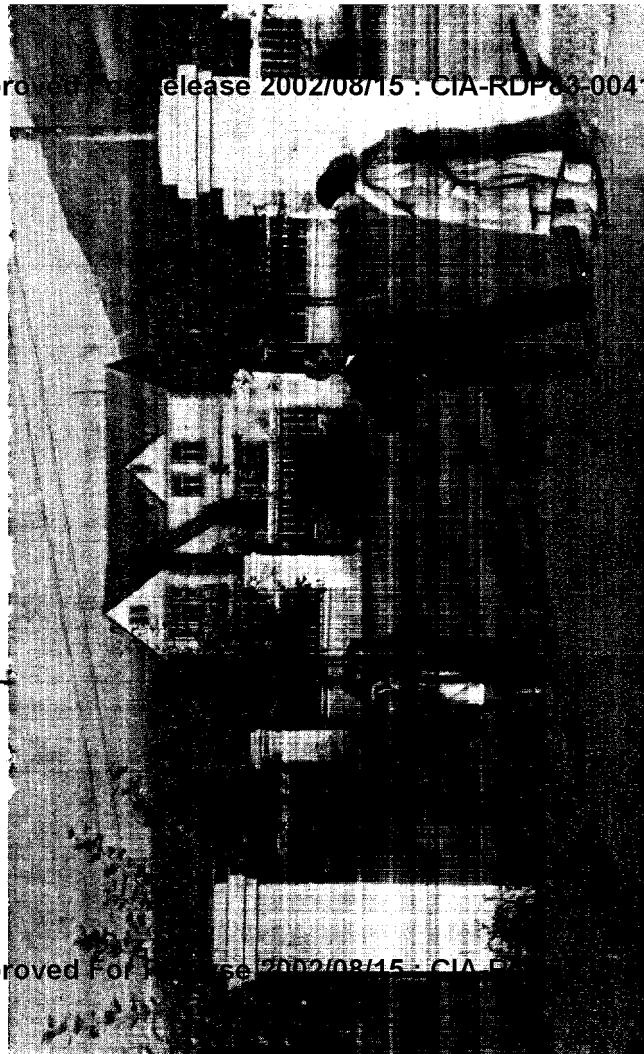
When thus completed the Magnitogorsk Combine will be the largest iron and steel enterprise in the world. Its annual production of pig iron will exceed that of all the iron and steel plants of tsarist Russia taken together.

THE CITY OF MAGNITOGORSK

In the beginning, when the construction of the Magnitogorsk Works first started, a camp town of white tents sprung up at the foot of Magnitnaya Mountain on the banks of the Ural River. In these tents lived the builders of "Magnitka"—engineers, technicians, workers. Soon, however, the tents were replaced by wooden barracks, and these have in their turn been replaced by brick buildings.

Today Magnitogorsk is a city of hundreds of tall well-appointed houses, with a popu-

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Magnitogorsk. Entrance to a Workers' Settlement.

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lation of 250,000, an electric power plant, waterworks, scores of wide streets, squares, boulevards, parks, streetcars and a good autobus service.

In 1938 the expenditures provided for in the city budget of Magnitogorsk included 8,856,000 rubles on educational purposes, and 19,185,000 rubles on public health.

An additional sum of 13,500,000 rubles was expended on education, public health, sports and social maintenance out of the budget of the factory committee of the iron and steel workers' union. Large sums are spent on these purposes by other public organizations, such as the trade unions of the building workers, miners, etc.

Magnitogorsk has two higher educational establishments: a mining and metallurgical institute and a pedagogical institute, forty secondary schools with 25,000 pupils, and pedagogical, industrial and medical training colleges.

In addition to these a variety of training courses function in the Works, such as courses for providing higher qualifications,

factory apprentice courses, courses for the training of Stakhanovites, university and college preparatory courses. More than 60,000 workers completed these courses in the past six years. A sum of over 42,000,000 rubles has been expended on the maintenance of these courses.

The four main libraries of this new city have 230,000 volumes.

The city of Magnitogorsk boasts a fine theater with a seating capacity of 1,000, eighteen moving-picture houses, a circus, a large number of clubs, including the splendid iron and steel workers' club, which has a large stage and in which concerts are held regularly. Besides concerts by local musicians, recitals are given here by singers and musicians from the largest centers of the country, such as Moscow, Leningrad, Kiev, Tbilisi, Baku.

The population of Magnitogorsk, like the population of all towns and villages of the Soviet Union, receives expert medical aid free of charge. The city has seven

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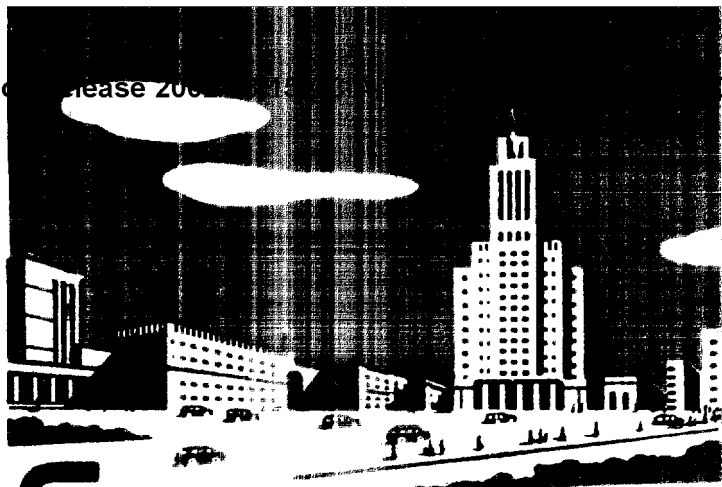
polyclinics, six general and lying-in hospitals, 26 children's nurseries, a special children's polyclinic, ten women's and children's medical consultation centers, dispensaries, a camp-sanitarium for adolescents with accommodations for six hundred campers at a time, scientific sanitary stations, etc.

The City Soviet of Magnitogorsk devotes a great deal of attention to the development of sports. The facilities that have been provided for sports activities include two stadiums with a seating capacity of 16,000, an aquatic sports station on the Ural River, nine gymnasiums, a hunters' stand, and skating rinks in the winter. In the aeronautical club young people receive training in parachute jumping, gliding and flying.

This, in brief, is the story of an industrial giant and a large flourishing city that have sprung up in the course of a few years in a desolate and practically uninhabited district.

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S
SOVIET
CITIES
NEW
AND RENEWED

BY PROF. I. GOLOSSOV

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S **SOVIET**
CITIES
NEW
AND RENEWED

By PROF. I. GOLOSSOV



FOREIGN LANGUAGES PUBLISHING HOUSE
MOSCOW 1939

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ARTIST: B. SCHWARZ

PRINTED IN THE UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS

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FROM the Black Sea to the Arctic Ocean, from the western frontiers to the maritime regions of the Far East, hundreds of new industrial centers have arisen in the last twenty years where once was virgin steppe, dense forest and mountain desolation. Thousands of settlements, built up to modern urban standards, are thriving in districts previously considered uninhabitable.

Two hundred and thirty new cities have been built in the U.S.S.R. since the Revolution. In these same twenty years the old cities have changed beyond recognition under the hand of the architect and the builder

creating new apartment houses, factories, schools, theaters, hospitals and public libraries.

Who would recognize Hughesovka, a humdrum industrial town of tsarist Russia, in the city of Stalino, the centre of the Donetz coal fields? Grimy, gritty Hughesovka, whose population was 40,000 in 1913, had no electricity, no water mains or sewage system. A street-car service to take people to work was a Utopian ideal. Now it is a handsome, thriving city of 462,000 inhabitants, with new apartment houses containing over 10,000,000 sq. feet of living space, with 40 miles of water mains, 22 miles of sewage pipes, 25 miles of tram lines and 1,642 acres of public gardens and boulevards.

Equally vast improvements have been made in other humble townships and mining villages of the Donetz district, to name only Gorlovka, Makeyevka and Lugansk (now Voroshilovgrad).

Take another of the innumerable examples, Chelyabinsk, in the heart of the Urals, once a second-rate town of little impor-

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Offices of the Council of People's Commissars of
the U.S.S.R., Okhotny Ryad, Moscow

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tance except to the merchants and government officials who dominated it. Its name was aptly derived from the Bashkirian word "chalyaba," meaning "a hole." Now Chelyabinsk is one of the great industrial centers of the U.S.S.R., a city of handsome buildings, many stories high, standing on wide thoroughfares and spacious squares. Sverdlovsk and Novosibirsk are two of many more cities with a similar history.

Hundreds of the mediocre cities of old Russia have changed just as radically. Take as an example Minsk, now the capital of the Byelorussian S.S.R. During the Civil War it was half demolished by the invading Poles. Whole districts were burnt to the ground. Now Minsk is a large modern city, with pleasing prospects of asphalted avenues, fine architecture and beautiful parks.

An essential element in all Soviet town planning is a central square, bright and spacious, with the best and handsomest buildings to surround it. Minsk, Kharkov, Tbilisi and many other Soviet cities have been re-planned with this principle in mind.

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On this central square depends the aspect of a city, the lay-out and character of its streets.

Like all Soviet cities, the capital of Byelorussia has been reconstructed in conformity with a strict plan. Minsk has acquired no small number of fine buildings in the last few years: a Government House, a fine opera theater, university extensions, a Conservatory of Music, a Red Army Club, etc.

In 1920 Stalingrad had 90,000 residents. Now it is a great industrial center, with a population above 445,000. Miles upon miles of new industrial enterprises, including a tractor plant, an iron and steel works, an oil refinery, a great saw mill, power stations, shipyards, wharves, warehouses, offices and apartment houses--such is the panorama that meets the eye on the outskirts of this rejuvenated city.

Astonishing changes have taken place in the republics of Central Asia, once crown colonies under the heel of tsarism. In present-day Alma-Ata, the picturesque garden city and capital of the Kazakh S.S.R.,

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Tbilisi Branch of the Lenin Museum

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there are more inhabitants (231,000) than there were in all Kazakh towns put together when the first census was taken in Russia (1897). In 1913 the paltry sum of 6,000 rubles was assigned for the improvement of this city, which was then called Verny. The "city fathers" spent the whole sum on repairs to the local jail and the residence of the governor. In 1938 investments in the development of Soviet Alma-Ata came to above 90,000,000 rubles. Alma-Ata now has a street-car service, a modern sewage system and water supply system. The dark, tortuous streets of the past have given place to asphalted avenues, brightly lit with electricity. Alma-Ata is now entering a further phase of development with a great plan of construction that includes a Government House, a new opera theater, a house of culture, a palace for Young Pioneers, schools, moving picture theatres, hospitals, kindergartens, nurseries, and many new apartment blocks.

Then there is Stalinabad, the beautiful capital of Tajikistan, which has sprung up

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on the site of three wretched hamlets. Ashkhabad, formerly a small, nondescript place, half village, half town, has become a large modern city, the capital of the Turkmen S.S.R. Another forlorn country town, Pishpek, has emerged from its obscurity transfigured as the city of Frunze, capital of the Kirghiz S.S.R. A notable feature of urban developments in the republics of Central Asia is the new architecture, incorporating elements of the national styles.

Erevan, now the capital of Armenia, is a city of modern, Socialist culture, where extensive industrial development and housing construction go hand in hand with landscape gardening. Erevan has a population of 200,000. Like changes have taken place in Baku, the oil city, capital of the Azerbaijan S.S.R., and in Tbilisi, capital of the Georgian S.S.R., one of the most ancient of Soviet cities, founded about 2,000 years ago.

Under the First Five-Year Plan (1928-32) 54,000,000 rubles were invested in the municipal improvement of Tbilisi. Under

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the Second Five-Year Plan (1933-37) this item was increased to 280,000,000 rubles. The assignment for 1937 alone was 72,000,000 rubles. The main street of the city has been thoroughly reconstructed; new embankments have been built; the River Kura has been spanned with a new bridge; a palatial Government House has been erected.

The sea-side resorts of the Caucasus, Sukhumi and Gagry, have altered beyond recognition.

Even vaster changes have been made in Sochi, another Caucasian resort, famous for the Matsesta medicinal springs nearby. Formerly a tiny health resort, frequented by the wealthy few, Sochi has now become the health center of the Soviet Union, a city of immaculate asphalt and green parks, where tens of thousands of working people spend their vacations and undergo treatment every year. The magnificent highway skirting the Black Sea coast is lined with palatial sanatoriums, which, like the new hotels in the city, contain all the comforts and conveniences that modern arti-

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rice can provide. Among the many handsome buildings newly erected is a splendid theater with a large seating capacity.

But the model city for Socialist reconstruction on a large scale is undoubtedly Moscow, the capital of the Soviet Union, the population of which, since 1926, has increased from 2,029,000 to 4,137,000.

Since the Revolution over 65,000,000 sq. feet of housing space have been built in the capital of the U.S.S.R. Many of the old streets have been remodelled, new thoroughfares and squares have been laid out. New districts have sprung up all round Moscow. The embankments of the Moscow River have been faced with granite. The river is spanned with beautiful new bridges, among the largest in Europe. Some of them have a width of 130 feet. In a short space of time a splendid subway has been built, and the shallow Moscow River has been connected with the mighty Volga by a great canal. Now the waters of the Volga lap the walls of the Moscow Kremlin. Numerous public buildings have been erected: Palaces of

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Hotel in Ashkhabad, Turkmen S.S.R.

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Culture, colleges, research institutes, hospitals, theaters and clubs. Hundreds of schools, kindergartens and nurseries have been built. In 1938 two hundred and fifty apartment houses, with a total housing space of 2,690,000 sq. feet, came into occupation. In the first three months of 1939, 38 apartment houses, with a total space of 646,000 sq. feet, were completed.

This great work of construction follows a general plan coordinating the part with the whole, the house with the street, the apartment block with the district, the district with the city, to create a flawless architectural ensemble.

The intrinsic features of the architecture of the capital of the U.S.S.R. are bright idioms and light but majestic forms, reflecting the spirit of the Socialist era. The elements of classical architecture are used in organic synthesis with the themes of the Socialist era. This principle will be brilliantly materialized in the Palace of Soviets, the great monument to Lenin to be erected in the center of Moscow.

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Leningrad, too, is being reconstructed on the same grand scale. Classical St. Petersburg, built in the eighteenth century from the designs of the best architects of the time, was a city of perfect architectural lines, noble proportions, clear perspectives and masterly planning. But this, one of the finest cities in the world, bore the marring imprint of the capitalist age. The magnificent districts in the center were hemmed in by pestilent slums. This hideous contrast is now a thing of the past. There are no more slums in Leningrad.

This great city on the Neva is still developing rapidly. Under the Second Five-Year Plan no less than two billion rubles were invested in the municipal improvement of Leningrad. In these years 7,680,000 sq. feet of housing space and 170 schools were built. In some districts, the Volodarsky and Kirov, for instance, new housing forms almost half of the total accommodation. The numerous historical buildings of the city are being restored and renewed. In the last six years 500,000,000 rubles have been

spent on capital repairs to the old housing accommodations. Wide new avenues and squares are taking shape. New embankments are being built. The right bank of the Neva and the Obvodny Canal have been clad in granite and concrete. Two new bridges have been built across the Neva. By January 1, 1939, 18,300,000 sq. feet of streets and squares had been asphalted.

The scale of the Socialist reconstruction of old cities can be seen from the following figures. By January 1, 1937, the Soviet Government had built about 646,000,000 sq. feet of housing space in cities and towns, which amounts to more than 40 per cent of the total municipal housing accommodation. This new floor space cost 12,000,000,000 rubles. In Moscow 30.8 per cent of the total housing accommodation is newly built, in Gorky 55.2 per cent, in Stalingrad 69.6 per cent, in Chelyabinsk 79.1 per cent.

On the territory of the R.S.F.S.R. before the Revolution there were 156 cities with water mains, while in 1937 there were 260.

In the old days only 18 cities had sewage systems. In 1937 there were already 71. Formerly only 23 cities had street-car services; in 1937 there were 46.

The geography and topography of the country is changing. Where once was dense forest, desert, uninhabited mountains, virgin steppe, tundra and Arctic waste, we now see the glittering lights of new Soviet cities. Magnitogorsk, Stalinogorsk, Zaporozhye, Berezniki, Stalinsk, Kemerovo, Prokopievsk, Karaganda, Komsomolsk, Magadan, Kirovsk, Monchegorsk, Elista, Balkhash, are but the largest of a long list.

The Kola peninsula in the Far North was an uninhabitable region used by the tsarist government as a place of exile for revolutionaries. Now these voiceless wastes have been awakened to life by the will of the Soviet people. A great wealth of minerals—apatite and nepheline—has been raised from the bowels of the earth. Outposts of civilization have arisen where human foot never trod. Great mines and elaborate plants for concentrating apatites have been devel-

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Vorovsky Street, Chelyabinsk

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oped, and with them the new Socialist city of Kirovsk, which has a population of about 50,000. Market gardens thriving in this land of Arctic night supply them with radishes, cauliflower, cucumbers and tomatoes.

To the west of the Khibini Mountains, beyond Lake Imandra, in the tundra, is the new city of Monchegorsk, an important nickel-producing center.

In the north of the Murmansk peninsula the new city of Murmansk has developed from what only a few years ago was a fishing village. Now this is one of the main centers of the Soviet fishing and ship building industries, an ice-free port through which all freights to western Europe pass in the winter time. From here the Soviet Union exports apatites for the world market. Eight years ago Murmansk had a population of 21,000. Now it is 117,000.

New cities have also been built in the Far East of the U.S.S.R., thousands of kilometers from Moscow. One is Komsomolsk-on-Amur, a large industrial center built by

the hands of our young generation. Another is Lesozavodsk, which has arisen on the banks of the River Ussuri. A third is Magadan, a neighbour to the new port of Nogayevo, on the north shores of the Sea of Okhotsk. This is the center of Soviet Kolyma—a territory abounding in natural wealth.

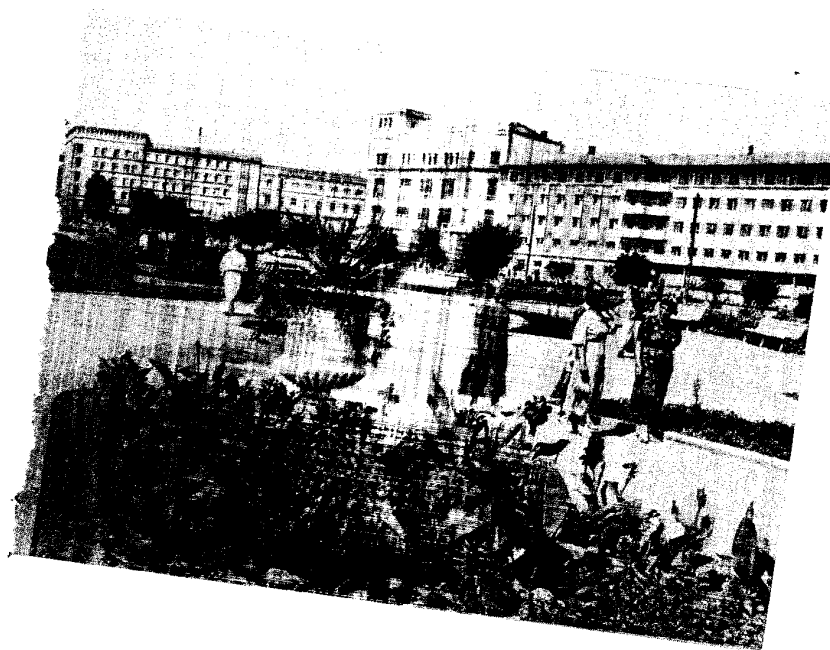
The map of the U.S.S.R. shows us the new Volga city of Elista, situated in the Kalmyk steppes in the south. This is the center of Soviet Kalmykland. In the old days there was not a single town here.

In the Kazakh S.S.R., whose capital, Alma-Ata, we have already mentioned, the large industrial city of Karaganda has developed. This is the center of a recently developed coal district.

Such is a brief account of Socialist construction and reconstruction in the field of urban development. Care for the individual, his comfort and convenience is the first consideration of the builder.

A special body, the Government Planning Commission, coordinates the construction of

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Fallen Heroes Memorial Square, Stalingrad

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new Socialist cities and the reconstruction of the old with the general program of economic development. The Soviet Government firmly discourages the tendency there has been to build oversized industrial enterprises, and forbids the construction of any large factories within the boundaries of the larger cities, such as Moscow.

The renewal and extension of old cities, the choice of sites for new cities and their construction must conform to the general economic development of the country and definite hygienic standards. The plan principle in this work of construction makes it possible for the Soviet Government to build cities in which each small part harmonizes with the whole, where the location of districts, thoroughfares, streets, squares, parks, monuments, etc., is given mature thought.

In planning future cities the state bodies prescribe the hygienic standards, the architectural ensemble, and the storey limits. The drawing up of the general scheme of construction of a new city is preceded by a

careful survey of the area. Then a complete plan is worked out in which the location of the industrial enterprises, roadways, and branch railway lines is indicated definitely.

The Third Five-Year Plan (1938-42) provides for the installation of water mains in fifty cities, sewage systems in 45, and for the development of tramway services in eight cities.

The plan also provides for extensive developments in municipal gas supply.

The third section of the Moscow Subway, eight and a half miles long, will be completed during this period.

The bulk of the work on the construction of the Palace of Soviets is also to be completed by the end of the Third Five-Year Plan.

For the practical architectural designing and town planning the state maintains a large number of institutions employing the best architects, engineers and technicians. They make the plans, whether for whole cities, apartment blocks, or separate buildings. But Soviet architects do not seclude themselves in their studios, away from the

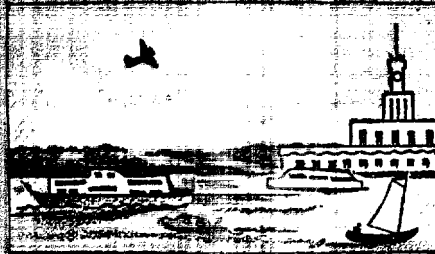
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noise and bustle of the building site. They are expected to have an all-round knowledge of constructional engineering and take part in the effectuation of their plans.

This rational organization of work, in which the smallest details are considered and provided for, is one of the factors ensuring the success of the great work of construction and reconstruction undertaken by the Socialist state.

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**CHILDREN AND ART
IN THE U.S.S.R.**



BY S. MARSHAK

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CHILDREN AND ART
IN THE U.S.S.R.



BY S. MARSHAK
Order of Lenin

FOREIGN LANGUAGES PUBLISHING HOUSE

Moscow 1979

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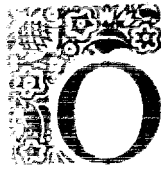
ARTIST: D. BASHANOV

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ne day a boy of eight or nine appeared at the Child Art Center carrying an enormous roll of paper under his arm. Set on end it would have stood half as high again as the youngster himself.

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He unrolled it.
"What's that you've got there?" he was asked.

"A Socialist City," he replied briefly.
The immense scroll was a patchwork of several pieces. The young artist had evidently drawn his many-tiered city in parts and then pasted them together.

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The parks, squares and underground roads and elevated ways had been planned with equal care and thought.

The drawings of Soviet children, like their games, reflect the great work of construction and renewal going on in their country.

That is quite natural. Children of all ages and all countries have always responded to the life going on around them.

We who were born in tsarist times, at the end of the last century, also reflected the ways of our adults in our childhood play. Of political events we knew very little. True, the Russo-Japanese War figured in our games; but it was usually the doings and happenings of our own street or city that appealed to our young imaginations. We put out fires, saved drowning men, buried each other in turn, played at being stall-owners in the market, tracked down robbers.

More often we were Red Indians, whom we read about in books, or played the traditional childish games invented by our distant forefathers.

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We added little to the range of make-believe the previous generation had left to us.

We were so brought up as to be almost incapable of reacting intelligently to the big events of our times, of reflecting them in our drawings, games and songs.

But Soviet children are generously endowed with this gift.

They play at airmen flying across the North Pole, at frontier guards protecting the Soviet borders, at Asturian grenade-throwers. Their drawings and verses depict the building of the Moscow Metro, the search for the crew of the *Rodina* in the taiga, the work of the deep-sea divers, the celebration of revolutionary holidays on the Red Square in Moscow.

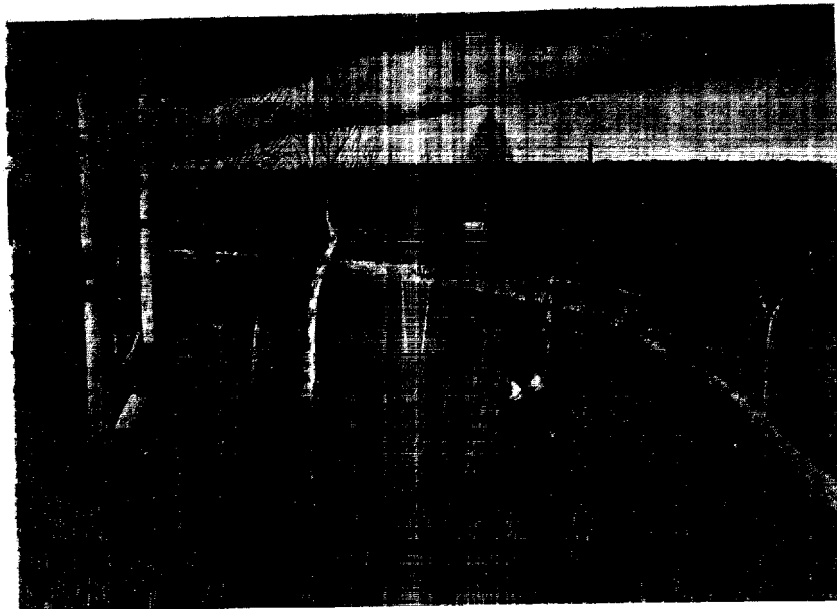
When the four plucky explorers, Papanin, Krenkel, Shirshov and Fyodorov, were drifting down from the North Pole on their ice-floe, two Moscow schoolchildren, Nick and Serge Bobin, expressed the emotions of thousands of Soviet youngsters in the following appeal to the "Papaninites":

We, too, would like to visit
The frozen Pole, and land
By the earth's jutting axis
And feel it with our hand.
Too small, too small, dear children,
Is all the answer we get.
There are no Pioneers camping
Around the North Pole yet!
But if we do not hurry,
And wait until we're men,
All Poles will be discovered—
What will there be left then?
We'll wait on one condition.
Sergei and I implore:
Leave us undiscovered
One spot at least to explore!

This humorous appeal was written when there were still no grounds to fear for the safety of the men on the icefloe. Cheerful messages were being received from the "North Pole" station almost daily.

But their icefloe began to break up. The country was plunged in alarm. Airplane expeditions were fitted out to help the intre-

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AUTUMN
BY GENE CHESNAKOV, aged 15.

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pid explorers; the ice breakers *Yermak* and *Taimir* were sent to join the work of rescue.

The general anxiety and concern was expressed by Sergei Feinberg, a fourteen-year old schoolboy, as follows:

. . . And then the country in a trice
Its planes and ships sent forth
To save its heroes from the ice
Adrift in the perilous North.
O happy hour, when the valorous four
Saw the lights of the *Taimir* gleam
And through the murk of the Arctic night
Spied the *Yermak's* wandering beam.

These schoolboy verses very well express the emotions experienced by the whole Soviet country in those days in the early spring of 1938.

* * *

There are preserved in the Palaces of Young Pioneers and the child art centers many thousands of notebooks and sheets

filled with verse and prose composed by schoolchildren.

The Main Child Art Center in Moscow received in one year alone about 20,000 letters from young authors all over the Soviet Union. The majority of them contain eager requests for advice and counsel and for a critical opinion of material sent.

Youthful authors—especially of verse—were not rare in Russia even in pre-revolutionary times. Nearly every college had its “poet laureate” who would recite his own compositions at school festivals and celebrations. Nor was it rare for college boys to bring out amateur magazines in manuscript form where the literary novice could test his pen.

And some of these beginners were really talented youngsters. But how pallid, unsubstantial and anemic does this hothouse college literature seem compared with the writings of schoolchildren in the U.S.S.R. today! How much more vigorous is the latter's sense of reality, and how richer their knowledge of practical life! They write with

a surer pen and greater independence. They set themselves weighty and difficult tasks; they are careful observers and students of reality, and delve into historical documents for material.

And the chief thing is that they know what they want.

They are convinced that creative labor, and nothing but creative labor, is the basis of human society; they look upon work as a matter of honor, a matter of valor and heroism.

They are strong in the opinion that racial enmity should be banished from earth.

A ten-year old youngster writes:

All Soviet children are happy and gay.
All children are equal in our land today—
Chinese, Japanese and Malay . . .

They are equally convinced that there will be a wide sphere for their activities when they grow up. It never enters their heads that circumstances might force a man to choose a lifetime occupation which he dislikes. They have no misgivings for the mor-

row. So much wonderful, useful and necessary work is going on around them, and so much remains to be done--it cannot be that no use will be found for their hands, brains and energies!

This conviction is the source of the optimism which inspires the writings and verses of Soviet children.

Nowhere in the poems and stories with which these thousands of notebooks and sheets are filled will you find any impotent whining or fruitless complaining. None of these young authors regards himself as superfluous and useless in the world.

And they speak of their country as only its future full-fledged masters can speak of it.

* * *

Of course, the verses of hundreds and thousands of young poets cannot be of equal literary value. But a careful study will disclose that they all possess certain common typical features. These are the features of their time and country.

The character of the poems varies considerably. You will find among them a ballad on Chapayev, the national hero; a long poem about Lomonosov, the poet and scientist and the first of Russia's academicians; a lyrical composition in which descriptions of urban or rural scenes alternate with the reflections and sentiments of the poet. You will also find school satires, epigrams, addresses to friends, and so on.

But however varied these youthful poetic efforts may be, they are all profoundly realistic, specific, even concrete. They offer a striking contrast to the lyrical imitations—the romantic poems about knights and ladies, corsairs and nuns—the vague effusions and lamentations with which the adolescents and youths of earlier generations filled the pages of their cherished diaries.

Whatever may be the subject of the young Soviet versifier—whether an historical ballad or a poem to a modern hero—he will always strive for precision of imagery and vitality and truth of action.

An eleven-year old youngster writes:

So far we have been speaking of young poets.

But are there no Soviet children and adolescents who display their literary gifts in the field of prose?

Of course there are. We find in their school notebooks and the productions of their literary circles stories of Young Communist airmen or heroic frontier guards, and sometimes whole novels—short ones, it is true—on the subject of future war or inter-planetary flights.

But the young authors feel more at home in verse; there they display greater variety and achieve greater finish and perfection.

Stories and novels written by children in all times have for the most part borne the stamp of naiveté and childish immaturity.

But young folk are more successful in certain fields of prose than others.

Such is the essay—about an excursion or journey, for example, which the young author has undertaken, a city which he has visited, or local customs which he has observed.

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In this branch of literature children are sometimes very felicitous. Here they are aided by their adolescent inquisitiveness, their fresh perceptions and retentive memory, and most of all by that earnest attitude to life which is fostered in Soviet children by the fact that from their earliest conscious moments they are witnesses of epoch-making events.

Another branch of literature in which the young author is often very successful is the satirical or fantastic tale.

But, after all, the short tale stands on the border line between poetry and prose, and often contains more of the poetical than verse itself.

A little while ago I happened to read a short tale of a page or two written by Vladimir Petrov, a boy of thirteen, who lives in a colony for waifs and strays. Here it is:

* * *

There was once a boy who lived in a children's colony. He was called Foolish Ivan.

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SHCHORS AT THE APPROACHES TO KIEV

BY VLADIMIR SHUZHENKO, aged 15.

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During one dictation lesson he managed to make thirty-two mistakes.

One day he wandered into a clearing in the forest and fell asleep. He was awakened by a rustling noise. He rummaged in the bushes, and out jumped a fox. Scarcely had the fox made off when a lovely white goose strutted out of the bushes with her little goslings.

"Good morning, Ivan," said the goose. "You have saved me from cruel Reynard, and I am going to reward you. What would you like? Speak!"

At this moment the goslings began to squeak in their shrill little voices:

"Mama, mama, we know what he needs. He needs a magic quill so as not to make mistakes in dictation."

"Very well, Ivan, don't blush." And she led him to the goose kingdom, the capital of which is Goosehurst.

There, in the central square, was a blue lake, in which many geese and ducks were paddling about with their young.

"Good morning, Ivan, good morning!" was heard on all sides.

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And Ivan had all he could do turning from left to right, bowing and answering:

"Good morning, citizens!"

At this moment a peacock with real peacock's feathers in its tail came striding out of the park. The peacock thanked Ivan and ordered that he should be given a magic quill which would write without a single mistake.

The goose stretched her wing, and said: "Choose!"

Ivan pulled out the end feather. To his surprise he found that it had already been made into a pen and even dipped in red ink.

Foolish Ivan returned to the colony.

"Don't think I am a fool now," he told his schoolmates. "I know more than you do. . . . And I can write better than the lot of you."

Next time they were given dictation Ivan did not make a single mistake. He rose to the top of the class. Now he was called Clever Ivan.

At first they all wondered why he wrote with a goose quill; but then they got used

to it. After all, Pushkin and Krylov wrote with quills!

In the autumn, Clever Ivan and some other of the best pupils were sent to a university preparatory school.

But on the way a misfortune occurred: a strong wind rose and carried away the magic quill! Clever Ivan again became Foolish Ivan. . . .

* * *

Authors know how difficult it is to write a tale containing all the elements of folklore—bold ideas, vivid and fluent language, and fresh and unexpected humor. They know how hard it is to avoid the dangers of allegory and of ponderous didacticism.

But this boy has successfully coped with the task. He instinctively felt that the essence of a fable lies in the ease of its language and the simplicity and unobtrusiveness of its moral.

* * *

Young writers of poetry and prose of former days would scarcely have taken upon

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themselves the difficult and complex task undertaken in our days by Soviet schoolchildren of the Arctic city of Igarka.

This city, lying on the border line between taiga and tundra, is only ten years old. It is younger than many of the schoolchildren living in it, who have seen its port and sawmill after sawmill spring up under their very eyes.

These schoolchildren of Igarka decided to be the chroniclers of the life and manners of their city and region. They conceived the idea of writing an account of the taiga and tundra, and of how this port city, to which ocean steamers come from all parts of the world, arose in the Far North on the banks of the broad Yenisei.

Such a work could only be done collectively.

Before setting about their task, the children wrote to Maxim Gorky telling him of their idea. Gorky, a great writer and warm friend of children, lived at that time at the other end of the country, in the Crimea. He replied in the most cordial terms and outlined a rough plan for the book.

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The children assigned among themselves the subjects for the stories and articles, and set to work with a will.

Over one hundred children contributed to the book, and practically every schoolchild in Igarka took part in the discussions of its form and contents.

The work is now finished. *We in Igarka* has been published. Its concluding chapter is called "A Great School of Life." This might well have been the title of the book itself.

It recounts what these historians of ten to fifteen have witnessed. Some of the older ones were present when the first steamers arrived and landed the first parties of builders on the marsh and wilderness of the Yenisei's banks.

The aspect of the city has changed, and is changing now, with every year and every month. Houses and factories spring up; theaters, cinemas and clubs are built. In the open air and in hothouses, vegetables are grown which had never been heard of here in the Arctic circle, and hitherto unknown flowers blossom in the gardens.

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With what pride these children tell of the new buildings springing up in their city of Igarka, and of the new automobiles appearing in its streets.

They keenly detect the peculiarities which make their city different from all others in the world.

They describe the reindeer sleds on which their neighbors, the Nentsi, drive into Igarka. They tell how in the wood-paved streets huge timber trucks will sometimes encounter harnessed reindeer, their branching antlers tossed back, and teams of shaggy, noisily barking sled-dogs.

But the biggest event in the life of this Arctic port is the arrival of the annual Kara Sea expedition, the caravans of ocean vessels, escorted by ice breakers, that come for cargoes of Yenisei timber.

The youngsters talk like experts of the sorting, stacking and loading of timber. And they have a fair knowledge of ships and their ways. They know which of the steamers has recently been in drydock, and which is badly in need of it. Their eye at

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THE HUNCHBACK HORSE
BY TANYA BRZHESKAYA, aged 7.

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once detects any disarray in the toilet of a *Queen Olga* or a *Good Hope*, such as damaged rails or peeling paint.

But they become genuine poets when they speak of the wild and stern majesty of their region. They are profoundly acquainted with its natural life and scenery. They are all hunters, fishers and naturalists. Their skis have laid tracks to many an unvisited part; their canoes have shot many a rapid in the turbulent rivers.

They know what a stern struggle their fathers and brothers waged to conquer the savage, unpeopled North, extending the boundaries of their country without war and bloodshed.

They too are training to continue this intrepid conquest of the Arctic; they are impatient to be grown up.

On one of the concluding pages of the book, the hero of the tale says to his friend, a schoolboy like himself:

“. . . When you have learnt everything and are sure of yourself, you will enter life a staunch Young Communist. Then your

elder comrade--the airman, the captain of an ice breaker, the geologist or the hydrologist--will turn over his job to you with a smile, confident that it is in safe hands."

* * *

Many children have a leaning for literary composition.

But far more love to draw, and are able to draw.

Long before the child begins to clumsily trace the letters of the alphabet he can already draw a house with its chimney, the sun in the sky, a leafy tree and a girl holding a balloon by a thread. Give a child a sheet of paper and a thick red and blue pencil and he will be happy.

And there is no child in the world who does not know how to play.

In the old days, before the revolution, when people who are now nearing the thirties were children, their play and their drawing did not receive much encouragement from adults. The young artist or play-

actor of five or six was allowed to indulge in the delights of imagination only if he did not spoil too much paper or make too much noise.

And if a lad of nine happened to take up a colored crayon, or arm himself with a stick to play at being a robber chieftain, he would be told reproachfully:

“You had better be doing something useful than playing like a baby.”

But the majority of children at that age never had any time for play. Vanka Zhukov in Chekhov's tale had already been “placed” at the age of nine. In the daytime he was run off his legs as an errand boy in a shoemaker's shop; in the evening he would rock the cradle of the boss's baby; and all the pay he got was to have his ears boxed, or his head cuffed, or his face swiped with a raw herring.

Only the children of the rich, or at least the well-to-do, had any real childhood, with games, stories, theatricals and colored crayons.

Today, every one of the millions of young

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inhabitants of the Soviet Union has the right to real childhood.

The point is not the number and magnificence of the toys they have to play with, but the fact that child labor in the Soviet Union is absolutely forbidden.

All children attend school. A country which was so recently universally illiterate is now universally literate.

Every child enjoys the legitimate and inalienable right to play, sing, dance, draw, model and find an outlet for his aptitudes and tastes.

Adults are imbued, and become more imbued every day, with respect for the child's play and the child's exercises in imagination.

Family, school and kindergarten eagerly foster and encourage any aptitude shown by children for drawing, music or dancing.

In every part of the country there are Palaces of Young Pioneers, clubs, and child art centers with studios, classes and circles of all kinds.

No conditions are set for admission to the

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art, music, dramatic or dancing classes; any child can join who wishes.

Take any youngster who joins one of these art classes, a Chekhov Vanka Zhukov of our day. He has everything at his disposal, all the paper, crayons, paints and modeling clay his heart may desire. Side by side with him there are other boys and girls who draw, model and make toy airplanes and gay masks and carnival costumes. He has instructors to advise him how to use his material, to suggest an interesting theme and unobtrusively to direct the lively imaginative play of the young pupil into artistic channels.

As the children grow older their aptitudes begin to differentiate. As a rule, the child of seven to nine shows an equal interest in drawing and modeling, in making an amusing toy or a fearful mask for a children's play. But gradually his taste turns into a definite channel. He undertakes tasks of increasing complexity. And if he is not armed in good time with a certain knowledge and skill, and if his imagination is not sup-

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plied with richer nourishment, his young talent may be extinguished.

At this stage the studio comes to the child's aid. This is not a professional art school; its chief purpose is to foster the child's creative activity; but it definitely sets out to arm the child with a certain knowledge, proficiency and skill.

For children who display definite talent there are the junior departments of the schools of art.

These classes and studios, and numerous contests and expositions, are designed not only to discover and develop gifted children but also to raise the general artistic level of the rising generation.

Of course, by no means all the children who exhibit talented work at contests or expositions will become professional artists. But one thing, at least, is certain: they will grow up with a genuine appreciation of art and a keen faculty of observation of the life around them.

Seven-year old Tanya Brzhevskaya, drew an illustration to the fairy tale "Konyok Gor-

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bunok" ("The Hunchback Horse"). Against a deep blue sky, thickly studded with golden stars, flies a snow-white horse, mounted by Ivan the Fool, sitting back to front and clinging to the horse's bushy tail. Both lower corners of the drawing are cut by steep hillsides running down to a rippling sea. One of the hillsides is all white and is covered by a scattered design of dark trees, bulbous and mushroom-like. The other hillside is black and forms the background for the white gleaming walls of a row of peasant huts.

When you examine this picture you feel convinced that a child who displays such a sense of rhythm and poetic feeling, such a faculty of imaginative description and brevity of expression must possess considerable artistic powers. We cannot say whether Tanya will be an artist (it is too early to predict anything of a child of seven), but one thing is clear: whatever she does when she grows up she will do with imagination, boldness and taste.

But of fifteen-year old Gene Chesnokov,

a youngster from the Niva Collective Farm in the remote forest region of the Kirov Territory, it may already be said with reasonable confidence that he has a big artistic future before him.

One glance at his water color, "Autumn," shows that.

It is not because his picture is good that we can say that Gene Chesnokov is an artist; his picture is good because he is a real artist.

Only an artist can display such a peculiar feeling for the stern yet delicate charms of Russian scenery, and design his composition with such harmony and simplicity. The whole landscape seems to be centered around two small boys intently gazing up at some birds perched on the thin branches of a naked birch. The boys take up so minute a space in the painting, yet they are the real focus of the composition. Without them the spacious autumn landscape would seem cold and lifeless.

In this water color a keen eye is happily combined with profound poetic feeling.

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THE ATTACK ON THE WINTER PALACE
BY ANATOLE KSENOFONTOV, aged 13.

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This same combination of sober observation with a poetic sense is to be detected in depictions of battle scenes by young artists.

All boys of twelve and thirteen love to draw infantry attacks, cavalry charges, air battles and sea engagements.

But the young artists we are speaking of display specific characteristics. They not only strive for military romanticism, but for genuineness of heroic type, historical truth, and vitality and precision of action.

Take for example, a drawing by a thirteen-year old artist, Anatole Ksenofontov, called "The Attack on the Winter Palace."

A slanting rain, a slippery, slushy road. Serried ranks of armed workers, soldiers and sailors move towards the palace. The drenched banners flap heavily. The old houses of St. Petersburg cower apprehensively in the gloom.

No one who recalls the events of 1917 in Russia can be left unmoved by this picture. And very few of the eye-witnesses of those events could convey with such conviction and fidelity the stern and tense spirit

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of battle which led to the victory of the October Revolution.

Here is another drawing: "Shchors at the Approaches to Kiev."

The artist is Vladimir Shulzhenko, a schoolboy of fifteen.

It would be quite excusable in a boy of that age to be carried away by outward effect, by the spectacular aspect.

But what interests young Vladimir is not theatrical effect but genuine types and faithful description.

He does not want his Shchors to be an abstract military chieftain imitated from the pictures of others, but that live partizan whom the revolution turned into one of its most famous military leaders.

* * *

We have mentioned only a very few of our young poets and artists.

The fact that we have singled them out from among numberless others does not mean that we consider them the most gifted.

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We selected these poems and drawings because we considered them most typical and most indicative of the tastes and aspirations of Soviet children.

It would be impossible to mention here, even briefly, all the boys and girls who have attracted attention at our numerous contests and expositions of young artists.

Six thousand youngsters sent in drawings and pictures to one exposition alone—in commemoration of the death of the poet Pushkin.

As to the poems and stories dedicated by children to Pushkin on the anniversary of his death, their number is countless.

But in addition to poets and artists, there are numberless gifted young musicians, actors, reciters and dancers.

There is hardly a music, dancing or dramatic class in the Palaces of Young Pioneers and clubs scattered all over the country where you will not find children who delight us by the freshness and richness of their talents.

What is the reason for this unusual art-

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istic activity displayed by Soviet children?

Firstly, the fact that they enjoy real childhood.

That whole period of life in which the human mind and organism grows and develops, they are able to devote to study, play, growth and development.

None of them has to bend his back in tailor's shops or shoemaker's shops; none of them has to run about all day delivering purchases; none of them has to spend his time sweeping the floors of barber shops.

But that is not all.

Just as the schools are free, so are the music, art and dramatic circles, studios and clubs.

And these circles, studios and clubs are to be found everywhere, in big cities, small towns, factory settlements and collective farms, in the center of the country and in its border regions.

Everywhere the child is provided with paper, canvas, crayons, paints, costumes and a stage.

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There is a veritable army of trained men and women to guide the artistic education of children. There is always an older comrade to whom the child can turn for help and advice.

Even children in the most remote and sparsely inhabited parts of the country do not feel alone and isolated. They may send their verses and drawings to Moscow, Leningrad, or the nearest city. A skilled adviser from the child art center or the Pioneers' club will reply at length to his letter, giving an opinion of his work and advising him what to do next.

Such an exchange of letters will often be carried on regularly for several years, constituting in its way an art correspondence school. Sometimes the young aspirant is invited to Moscow or Leningrad to meet his advisers and to be shown round the town and its museums.

All music schools and academies of art have their junior departments, where gifted children are instructed by the best teachers and professors.

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Theaters in the Soviet Union give regular children's performances with a carefully selected repertory.

In addition, there are special children's theaters. In the twenty-one years, 1918 to 1939, 138 children's theaters have been opened in the various national republics of the U.S.S.R. They perform in twenty different languages.

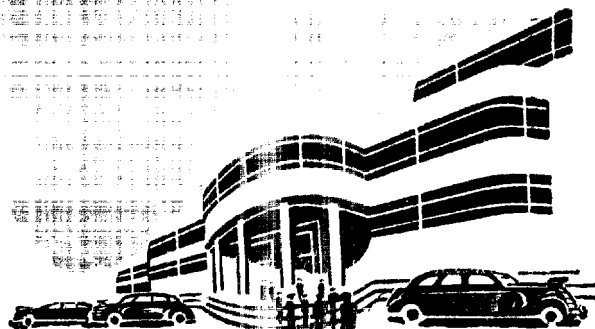
Nobody is out to turn these theaters into money-making enterprises. The cost of their maintenance, like the cost of public education, is borne by the state.

In the U.S.S.R. the artistic development of the child is part and parcel of the general system of producing well-educated men and women and good citizens.

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PALACES
OF
CULTURE
AND
Clubs
IN THE
U.S.S.R.



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By M·KUZNETSOV

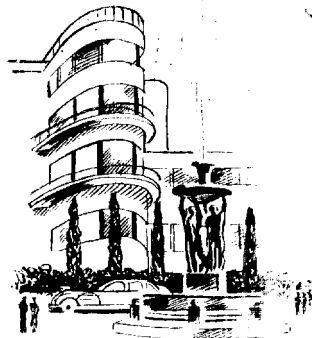
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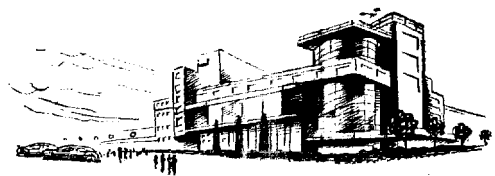
Head of the Cultural
Department of the
Central Council of
Trade Unions of the
U.S.S.R.

MOSCOW 1939

FOREIGN LANGUAGE PUBLISHING HOUSE

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WORKERS' clubs and palaces of culture play an important part in the cultural development of the U.S.S.R.

In the first years following the Revolution, the Soviet Government placed at the disposal of the trade unions and other public organizations the palaces and mansions formerly belonging to the royal family, the capitalists and the landowners. It was in these palaces that the first workers' clubs, museums, libraries and rest homes were organized. These buildings, however, soon proved inadequate and the construction of

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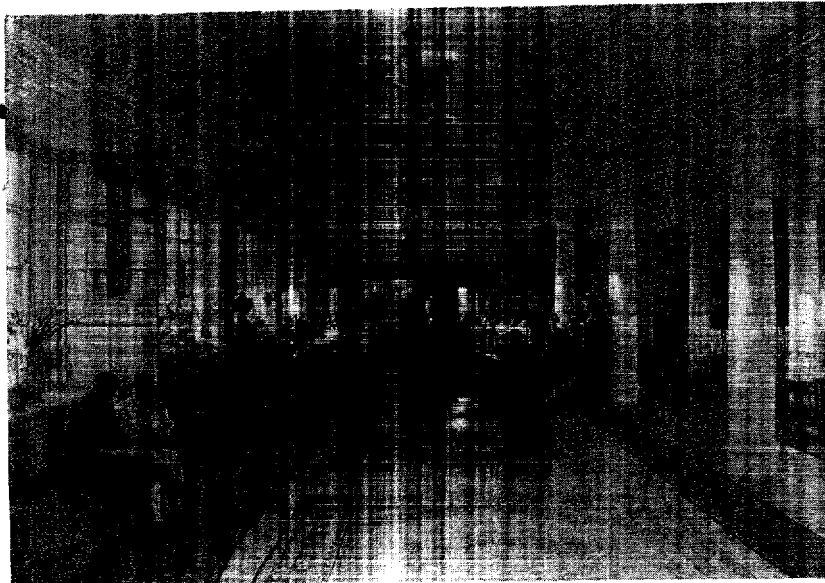
new cultural centers and clubs was undertaken on a large scale. New clubs have sprung up in all the Republics, Territories and Regions of the Soviet Union. In the new cities that are being built, clubs are erected simultaneously with the construction of factories and are sometimes referred to as the cultural departments of the plant they are attached to.

The Soviet Union has the shortest working day in the world. After six or seven hours of work, the worker, engineer or office employee has ample time left for recreation.

The clubs and palaces of culture offer the working people a wide variety of facilities for wholesome recreation, they provide opportunities for all round education, including the study of technology, and help to develop the talent of the working people and to perfect their skill.

At present the Soviet Union has 95,600 clubs, which is 435 times as many as prior to the October Revolution. The Soviet Union also has 70,000 libraries open

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The Foyer of a Railroad Workers' Club, Moscow

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to the general public. Many of the newly built clubs are imposing palaces with dozens of splendidly furnished rooms, theatrical halls, moving picture theaters, etc. The Gorky House of Culture in Leningrad, for instance, has a hall which seats 2,000 people. Leading theatrical companies from Leningrad, Moscow and other Soviet cities perform here.

Tremendous sums are spent on cultural services in the Soviet Union. During the last ten years expenditures on cultural services provided for in the state and local budgets have increased twenty-fold. In addition, the trade unions, cooperative and other public organizations also make large appropriations for cultural work. The total expenditure on cultural services in 1938 amounted to over 42,000,000,000 rubles.

According to Soviet law all industrial establishments, offices and institutions contribute a sum equivalent to one per cent of their total payroll to the trade unions for cultural work among employees and members of their families. This sum is assigned

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by the place of employment and is not deducted from the employees' wages. The national payroll for 1938 amounted to 96,425,000,000 rubles; consequently, these contributions for cultural activities reached the enormous figure of almost 1,000,000,000 rubles. In addition to this sum a large share of the trade union membership dues is used for cultural work.

The increase in the number of workers and the steady rise of wages make it possible for trade unions to devote ever greater funds to cultural and educational activities. Trade union expenditure for this work has increased ten-fold since 1927, reaching the stupendous sum of 1,387,871,000 rubles in 1938.

Many of the palaces of culture and clubs belonging to the trade unions are large organizations conducting their work on a wide scale, with funds running into millions of rubles at their disposal. This may be illustrated by the example of the Railwaymen's Central House of Culture in Moscow, which spends 17,000,000 rubles an-

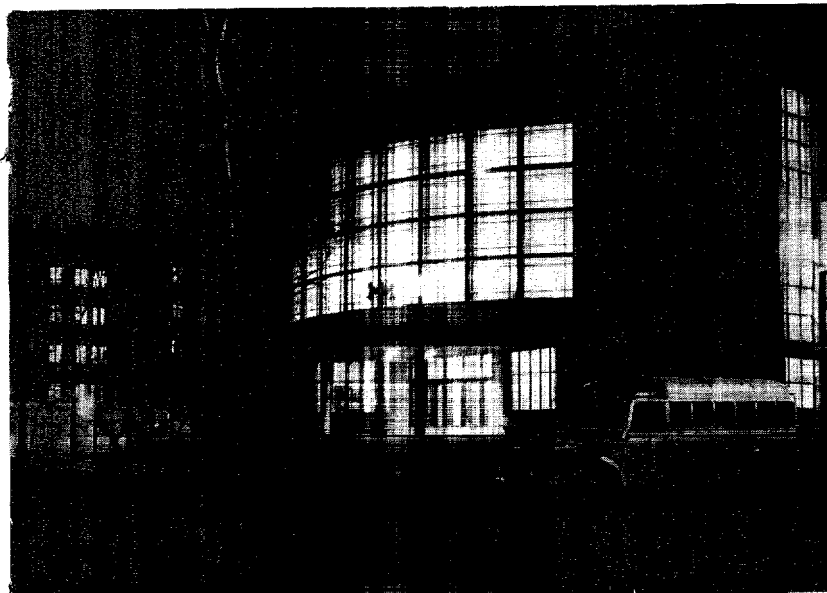
nually on cultural activities among railroad workers.

Each club is under a board which directs its work. These boards are elected at general meetings or conferences of the workers and other employees of the factory or mill to which the club belongs and as a rule consist of 11 to 15 people active in club work.

Soviet workers' clubs cover a wide field of activities. Concerts, theatrical performances, lectures on political subjects and popular science, moving picture performances and numerous amateur circles such as dramatic, dancing, chess and checker, choirs, classes in embroidery, painting, etc., all form part of the daily activities of the club. Other features of club work include dances, competitions of amateur art circles, amateur theatrical performances, discussions of new books, lectures on the international situation, shooting matches, etc. This is but an incomplete list of the facilities for recreation and education provided by Soviet workers' clubs.

There are 5,972 palaces of culture and

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Main Entrance to the Palace of Culture of the
Stalin Automobile Plant, Moscow

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clubs under the direct supervision of the trade unions. The total seating capacity of their concert and theater halls is upwards of 2,000,000. The best theaters in the country, including the famous Moscow Art Theater, and amateur theatrical groups perform in these clubs. Besides large concert halls and theaters the clubs have many auditoriums, reading rooms, technical laboratories and class rooms for their numerous circles. A distinguishing feature of all clubs is their well appointed rest rooms where the visitor can spend his time in quiet and pleasant surroundings. Altogether the trade union palaces of culture and clubs can cater to approximately 6,000,000 visitors daily.

The number of people attending various classes and circles—political study circles, educational classes, dramatic and choir circles, etc.—in workers' clubs and "Red Corners" (club rooms attached to factories, etc.), has increased from 4,730,200 in 1934 to 6,573,500 in 1938.

Amateur art has assumed a wide scope

in the Soviet Union. Millions of people show a keen interest in music, painting, sculpture, dancing, and the theater. After working hours hundreds of thousands of people attend classes in their clubs and spend several hours studying painting, music and sculpture, or participating in theatrical, choir and orchestra rehearsals.

Over 70,000 amateur art circles function in the clubs and Red Corners attached to the mills, factories, mines and offices. The Soviet Union is rich in gifted people; the whole country, to use Maxim Gorky's expression, is "a training center of talent." The clubs and Red Corners furnish the opportunity to develop and perfect this talent. Many famous Soviet actors and musicians received their first training in workers' clubs.

The worker or office employee who attends a class at his club has free use of musical instruments, art supplies, etc. All amateur art circles are under the guidance of experienced teachers and competent artists.

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Some of the clubs have art circles numbering several hundred workers, office employees and members of their families. Thus, the Gorky House of Culture in Leningrad has 24 amateur art circles with a total attendance of 1,317 students.

Folk art in the Soviet Union and the amateur art activities of the people are characterized by their buoyancy, optimism and brisk gaiety.

Several years ago members of Soviet amateur art circles performed at the International Dance Festival in London. The performance of the Soviet dancers, full of life and vigor, made a profound impression on British audiences.

Who were these people, whose folk dancing was marked by such harmony, expression and grace?

They included a metal worker, a cabinet maker, a statistician, an electrician, an accountant and a stevedore. All of them had received their training in the amateur art circles of workers' clubs.

The fraternity of the peoples of the

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A Scene from "Boris Godunov" as Presented in
the Workers' Club of the Lenin Gold Mine,
Siberia

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U.S.S.R., the complete absence of national and racial discord has led to the flourishing of national art. The invaluable treasures of the folk arts of the various nationalities of the U.S.S.R. have served to enrich the culture of the whole country.

This spirit of internationalism finds its expression also in the activities of workers' clubs. For example, the club of the Agricultural Machinery Plant in Rostov-on-Don has four dramatic circles—Russian, Ukrainian, Jewish and Tatar. Another example is the seamen's club in Vladivostok, which runs an operetta circle in the Ukrainian language, a Chinese theater and an art studio in the Tatar language.

The clubs of the U.S.S.R. have over one hundred amateur symphony orchestras, which successfully perform the most difficult compositions of classical music. In a recent competition, for example, symphony orchestras of Moscow scientists, workers of Rostov-on-Don and Kiev, employees of Leningrad cooperative societies, etc., took part.

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Many amateur theatrical groups have attained a high artistic standard. The performance of Shakespeare's "Taming of the Shrew" by a workers' theatrical group of the Moscow "Caoutchouc" plant, and "Twelfth Night" by the amateur theatrical circle of the tobacco workers' club in Leningrad, the presentation of Schiller's "Kabale und Liebe" at the building workers' club in Zaporozhye, as well as the staging of a number of contemporary Soviet plays are all on a high level and mark a great step forward in amateur theatrical art.

Exhibitions of paintings by students of amateur art circles of workers' clubs are also of great interest. Special studios are maintained for the particularly gifted students of these circles. Such studios have been organized in all the towns, in Red Army units and in many villages for the purpose of fostering the development of young talent. Some of these studios have quite a large attendance. Thus, the art studio of the Central Council of Trade Unions of the U.S.S.R. in the Stalin dis-

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trict of Moscow is attended by 432 workers, engineers and office employees, some of whom have been released from their regular jobs and receive a stipend from the Central Committee of their union and the All-Union Committee on Art. Others study in their spare time. Tuition in these studios, as in all educational establishments of the Soviet Union, is free of charge.

The many amateur circles in all fields of art are an inexhaustible source of new talent for the professional stage. The majority of the students admitted to the conservatories of music, theatrical schools and art academies received their initial training in the amateur art circles of workers' clubs.

Practically every club has its own library and some of the palaces of culture have very extensive collections of books. The club of the Agricultural Machinery Plant in Rostov-on-Don has 66,400 books and 9,093 regular subscribers. A feature of its work is the organization of popular lectures and discussions on literature. In 1938 lec-

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Railroad Workers' Club, Stalin Railroad,
Dnepropetrovsk, Ukraine

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tures were given on Shakespeare, Pushkin, Lermontov, Tolstoy, Gogol, Gorky, the Soviet poet Mayakovsky and other prominent writers.

The larger trade union libraries (with over 1,000 books) alone have increased the number of subscribers and readers from 4,673,500 in 1934 to 6,043,100 in 1938.

Lectures on the most diverse subjects occupy an important place in the activities of Soviet clubs.

During the first ten months of 1938, over 55,000 people attended the 257 lectures organized by the Bakers' Club in Leningrad. These lectures covered a wide range of topics.

Workers' clubs and palaces of culture often organize meetings between their membership and distinguished Soviet citizens whose remarkable work has won them nationwide renown. Prominent men of the Red Army, famous fliers, scientists, Stakhanovite workers who have achieved outstanding results in production, the country's foremost actors, and Arctic explorers re-

turning after their intrepid work in the North, are all frequent and welcome visitors to workers' clubs. The celebrated fliers Gromov, Vodopyanov, the late V. Chkalov and other world-famous Soviet airmen have addressed numerous club audiences on their flights to the North Pole and to the U.S.A.

The best actors, artists and writers of the country also address club audiences and discuss their work with them. They receive many suggestions from the workers which greatly influence their creative work in art. The Moscow Building Workers' Club often holds discussions on designs of new buildings, and such well known Soviet architects as Iofan, Mordvinov and others take an active part in them.

A great deal is being done by the clubs to introduce better and more efficient methods of work in industry by popularizing the achievements of foremost workers and engineers.

Visitors to workers' clubs are afforded every opportunity of spending their leisure

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time in pleasant surroundings. Cozy cafes, comfortable rest rooms, rooms for chess, billiard rooms and dancing halls are all at the disposal of the visitor. Soviet clubs also arrange picnics, excursions and visits to museums, to mention but a few more of their many-sided activities.

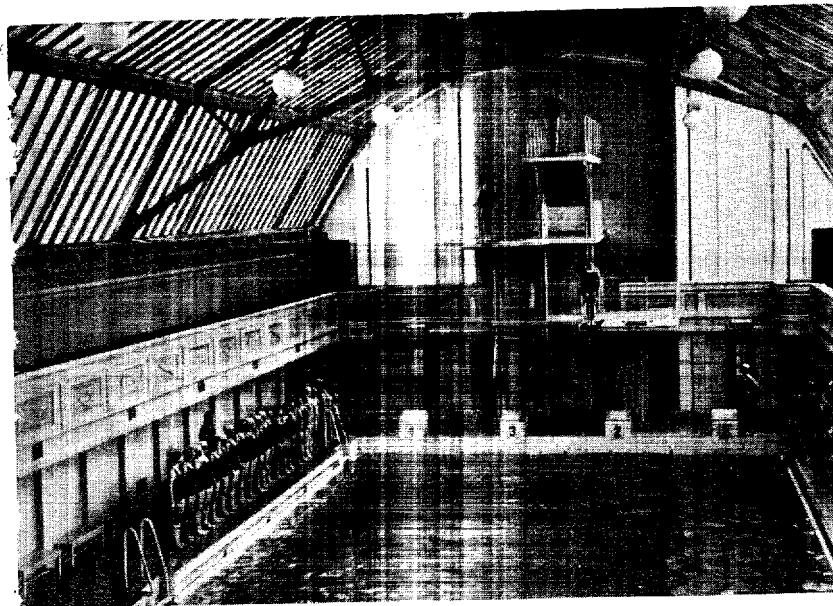
In the summer months the clubs transfer many of their activities to the parks of culture and rest, where balls, carnivals and other attractions are organized.

New relations among people are being created in the U.S.S.R., where the exploitation of man by man has been abolished. These new relations are founded on honest work and a conscientious attitude to one's duties; they are based on the spirit of mutual respect, mutual support, ardent love for and devotion to the Socialist fatherland; they rest on the harmonious work of the entire nation in the cause of Socialism.

The Communist Party of the Soviet Union and the Soviet Government attach great importance to the Communist educa-

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Swimming Pool in the Palace of Physical
Culture, Kiev

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tion of the working people. In this respect
the palaces of culture and clubs, of which
there are so many throughout the country,
are important centers for educating the
new individual of Socialist society.

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CHILDREN IN THE LAND OF SOCIALISM

By A. M. KARENKO

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CHILDREN IN THE LAND OF SOCIALISM

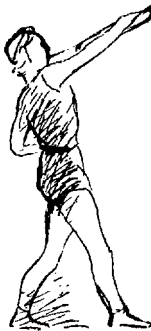
By A. MAKARENKO

ORDER OF THE RED BANNER OF LABOR
AUTHOR OF THE "PEDAGOGICAL POEM"



FOREIGN LANGUAGES PUBLISHING HOUSE
MOSCOW 1939

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I worked as a teacher in an elementary school before the Revolution and have been working among children ever since the Revolution. The great changes which have taken place in the life of the people inhabiting the territory of the former Russian Empire in the last twenty years naturally inspire one to compare figures. But when we come to examine the situation of children, statistical comparisons seem to lose their impact on the mind, so great is the disparity between the old and the new. If, for instance, we say that the number of secondary schools in the countryside has grown by 19,000 per cent in the last twenty years—

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nineteen thousand per cent!—statistical comparison in this case can hardly be grasped by the mind and defeats its own purpose.

Tsarist Russia, as all the world knows, was a purgatory for little children. She may have been behind other countries in general progress but few could rival her for child mortality. The cause of this high mortality was the low level of subsistence of the overwhelming majority of the population, the vicious exploitation of the workers in the towns, the dire poverty of the peasants in the countryside and the employment of juveniles for adult labor.

The situation is radically different today. Compared with 1913 the national income of the Soviet Union has increased five-fold. As a result of the elimination of exploiting classes the whole income accrues to the benefit of the people, whose standard of living is rising steadily year by year. In spite of the phenomenal increase in industrial output and the great demand for labor power, the Soviet law forbids the employment of children under the age of fourteen,

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View of the "Artek" Pioneer Camp (Crimean
A.S.S.R.)

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and forbids the employment of young people under seventeen years of age in mines or at any occupation that may be harmful to the health. Children from fourteen to sixteen years of age may be allowed to work only by special permission of the factory inspectors. They have a four-hour day and work under the guidance of experienced instructors. That explains why you will never see a Soviet youngster suffering even the slightest degree of fatigue. You will never see that blighted look that comes of overwork and habituation to the grindstone.

This of course does not mean that children in the Soviet Union are brought up to be idle and irresponsible. On the contrary, we expect rather a lot from our children: we expect them to be good pupils at school, we expect them to develop themselves physically, to prepare themselves to be good citizens of the U.S.S.R. when they grow up, to know what is going on inside the country, what our society is striving for, where it is making progress and where it

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is still behind. We promote the general and political development of the children, help them to be active and intelligently disciplined. But we have not the slightest occasion to use force against them, or cause them the slightest suffering. Our children cannot be conscious of the affection, solicitude and care which attend them at every step without being morally convinced of their duties, so that they fulfill their obligations willingly, without their becoming irksome.

Our children can see that all that they do is necessary not for the pleasure of their elders but for themselves, and for the whole future of our state. Soviet children are strangers to fawning and servility. They do not have to demean themselves to a taskmaster as to one who can make or break them.

Not only have children in our country never known what it is to be dependent on some other person, a master, proprietor, employer or patron but adults have forgotten long ago. These are all things of the

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In the Art Studio of the Odessa Pioneer Hall

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distant past. Our children better than anyone else feel the freshness in the air of our Socialist country. That is why they can study, develop and prepare for their future freely. That is why they are assured for their future, love their country and strive to become worthy citizens and patriots of the U.S.S.R.

From the example of their parents and their whole environment they see that all careers are open to them, all pathways, success in which depends entirely on their diligence and honest endeavor in the classroom.

Soviet boys and girls finishing elementary school or secondary school have as many ways open to them as there are trades and professions; they have the right and the opportunity to choose any of them. There are no insuperable difficulties to hamper their choice. Boys or girls wishing to enter a college know they can leave for another town if necessary without having to worry about board and lodging, for every college has living quarters and every student is

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entitled to an allowance from the state whether he has parents or not.

Yet freedom is not the only advantage which our children enjoy from these intrinsic conditions of our social order. They are a stimulus to zeal in school-life and make them confident in the future.

Even in the first years of Soviet rule the Workers' and Peasants' Government valiantly shouldered the problem of the millions of waifs left destitute as a result of the imperialist war of 1914 and the armed intervention of 1917-21. In addition to this onus the young Soviet state had to contend with economic ruin, widespread famine and war on all its frontiers. Even so, the first care of the Soviet Government was for the children. In our country there were many homeless waifs—children who had lost their parents, relations or guardians, children of no fixed abode, adrift on the streets of our towns and villages.

But all of them grew up to be fine workers and good citizens. Soviet society gave each of them not only refuge and mainten-

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Juvenile technical education center. Young naturalists on the experimental farm (Kuibyshev).

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ance but an education and the means to an honest livelihood. Many years have passed since our country put an end to juvenile vagrancy. In our factories and offices you will often meet former homeless waifs who are now holding positions of responsibility, respected by society and the people they work with.

If anything has been proved by the history of our struggle with the evil of juvenile vagrancy, the cause of so much gloating and slander on the part of our enemies, it is that Soviet society spares no effort nor resources where the welfare of children is at stake, and does so without lowering its respect for the individual. Only this can explain the remarkable fact that in spite of the great difficulties which sometimes arose in the course of our struggle on this front the Soviet Government never once resorted to juvenile prisons or corporal punishment. It preferred to rely upon education and congenial employment to help the waifs and strays to become worthy citizens of their country.

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But the struggle to eliminate juvenile vagrancy was only a small part of the great work among children which Soviet society has accomplished in twenty-one years. The overwhelming majority of the population of tsarist Russia was illiterate. Everybody took it for granted that the ruling classes and the state power had no consideration for people, and for children even less. Such amenities as children's playgrounds, kindergartens and nurseries were unknown to the vast majority of people even by name. Soviet society had to create all these things literally from nothing.

At the present time even in the most remote regions of the Soviet Union the population sees from its own experience that care for the children is the prime concern of the Socialist state of workers and peasants. Thousands of schools have been built, scores of national alphabets have been created, new writers have developed, new teachers have been trained to educate peoples who before the Revolution had no written alphabet and often did not know what paper

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Happy childhood
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was for. Nurseries, kindergartens, children's clubs have become an indispensable element of Soviet life, and no one in the U.S.S.R. can imagine life without these institutions.

Under the Second Five-Year Plan (1933-37) 864 palaces and clubs were built for children, 170 children's parks and gardens, 174 children's theaters and cinemas, 760 centers for the technical and art education of children. More than ten million children are attending classes for technical and cultural education. From 1933 to 1938 20,607 new schools were built. In the U.S.S.R. elementary education has been made universal and under the Third Five-Year Plan (1938-42) high school education will be made universal in the towns and junior high school education will be made universal in the countryside. These figures show what great efforts are being made to give Soviet children happiness and a purpose in life.

The children's camps and other provisions for well-spent summer vacations are a

striking example. At the end of the term the majority of children go off to the country to rest. Children's camps are organized by the state, by trade union bodies and by industrial enterprises. Every factory and office in the U.S.S.R. has the resources and the facilities to do so. Camps are organized in the vicinity of all cities and are particularly numerous in the southern parts of the Soviet Union--the Crimea and the Caucasus. In 1939 the summer camps will accommodate some 1,400,000 children. Sometimes these camps are of the stationary, sometimes of the traveling type.

I myself, for instance, have made seven big trips round the U.S.S.R. with my children's commune. Having at its disposal tents, camp equipment and provisions, my commune has covered thousands of kilometers by rail, by water and on foot. We have rambled over the Crimea and the Caucasus, the coast of the Sea of Azov, through the Donbas. We have sailed on the Black Sea and the Volga. We have pitched our tents in Sochi, Yalta, Sevastopol and on the

banks of the Donetz. Everywhere we have been given a warm welcome by the local people, who have shown us round their factories, their children's institutions and their clubs. Nothing can equal holiday tours of this kind as a method of cultivating and educating the young mind. At the close of their studies at the high school, Soviet boys and girls have not only acquired learning but have stored their minds with impressions, a knowledge of people, their work and psychology.

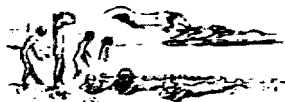
But even in the winter time the development of Soviet children is not restricted to the walls of the school. After school they go to children's clubs which, with every year that passes, are developing into first-class research and art institutes for juveniles in which any child can find assistance and a useful occupation if there is a spark of inquiry or originality in his mind.

Soviet children have a remarkable penchant for mechanics. Among children between twelve and sixteen years of age it is almost impossible to find anyone uninter-

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ested in technical questions or ignorant of the principles of the most common machines. This avid interest in mechanics and engineering is not only catered to by clubs organized for the purpose but by numerous technical journals and books, published specially for children, which are of great value as assisting in the training of technical personnel for the young industries of the U.S.S.R.

In the army and navy, in the field of art, literature and politics the rising Soviet generation is proving at every step that the attention which is paid to children in the U.S.S.R. from their earliest infancy is already having its abundant reward.



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