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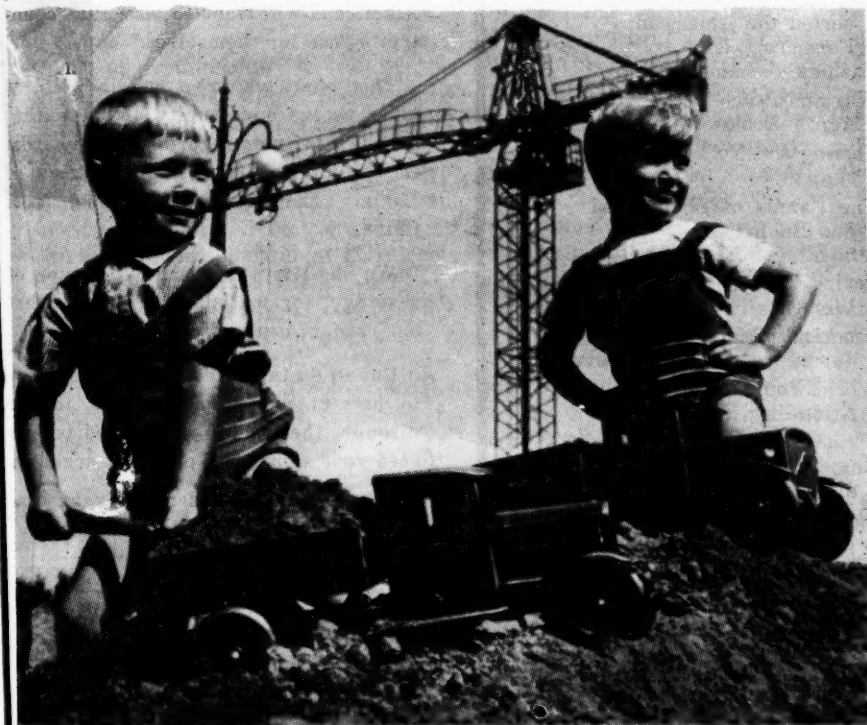
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New World

REVIEW



—From the magazine Soviet Union

These Soviet youngsters base their play on the big construction projects under way all over their land.

**Road Ahead From Geneva • A Message From
Kabalevsky • Fashion Forum in China • Unique
Soviet Family • Our True Friends in Japan**

NEW WORLD *Review*

OCTOBER

1955

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TWO-WAY TRAFFIC

THIS SUMMER a large number of U.S. Congressmen toured the USSR. Some of them—pre-Geneva—would never have dreamed of going there.

But the spirit of Geneva has prevailed, and interest in the Soviet Union is so great that it is expected that many Americans will want to visit that country to "see for themselves."

This offers us great possibilities. It gives us the opportunity of presenting more eye-witness reports, not only from the USSR but from the countries of Eastern Europe and, we hope, from China.

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NEW WORLD REVIEW

The Road Ahead From Geneva

by JESSICA SMITH

DESPITE the prophets of gloom and doom who profess to see signs of a dimming of the bright prospects opened up by Geneva because that is the way they want it, there continues to be steady progress along a road on which there must be no turning back. It is a road beset with many obstacles, and there can be no easy optimism that they can be surmounted without intense and continuing struggle on the part of all who are determined to achieve peace. Yet the developments of recent weeks afford solid hope that the spirit of Geneva will continue to operate and bring about further reduction of tensions both in the new session of the United Nations Assembly and in the October Foreign Ministers meeting, when the Geneva directives will be taken up.

Among these positive developments must be noted the decision on the establishment of diplomatic relations between the Soviet Union and the German Federal Republic resulting from Chancellor Adenauer's visit to Moscow.

Also of great importance to prospects for peace were the Soviet negotiations with Finland. These resulted in a twenty-year extension of the 1948 Soviet-Finnish treaty of friendship and alliance, and the formal agreement of the Soviet Union to withdraw its military and naval

forces from their base on Finnish territory within three months. This means the return to Finland of the big naval base of Porkkala, leased from Finland for fifty years in the 1944 armistice following the defeat of Finland as Hitler's ally in World War II, by the Soviet Union.

Commenting on the Soviet-Finnish agreement, Soviet Defense Minister Marshal Zhukov, said the USSR had decided to liquidate all its military bases on foreign soil, and expressed the hope that the United States would do likewise.

The Soviet determination to continue to implement the Geneva decisions on East-West contacts has been demonstrated by the increasing flow of United States visitors to Moscow, including many Senators and Congressmen, the extension of visas to many Western correspondents, the wide Soviet press coverage to statements of United States officials, and the discontinuation of the sharp attacks on U.S. policies that characterized the cold war period.

Meantime, the decision of the Chinese People's Republic to release all United States civilians imprisoned in China, following the release of all the imprisoned airmen, opens the way to a consideration of vital problems relating to peace in the Formosa area, and the hope that the present ambassadorial negotiations

may be followed by higher level talks.

THERE IS a curious anomaly in the position of many commentators, reflecting the position of certain official circles in Washington. They call for "deeds," not "smiles" alone from the Soviet Union and People's China, demanding that they give proof of their sincerity. Yet when the deeds come, they are deplored as new victories for the Communist-led nations, new defeats for the West.

Thus in the *New York Times*, September 19, James Reston takes a very dim view of the present international situation growing out of Geneva. He writes:

The hard fact of international life which no number of official smiles or misleading communiques out of Washington can erase, however, is that the Communist peace offensive is making progress in both Europe and Asia.

He complains, citing opinions of the "best-informed men in the capital" that the Big Four Conference not only gave President Eisenhower new prestige, but increased that of Soviet Premier Bulganin, that it "dramatized the main Communist theme of coexistence" and "removed from East-West negotiations the threat of force which historically has been the main instrument for persuading nations to abandon unjust positions." But wasn't that what the conference was supposed to be about? And was it not his agreement on such a course that led to President Eisenhower's own increased prestige?

Mr. Reston further complains that "Communist China, by releasing the American fliers and civilians and by

pipng down about Quemoy and Matsu, has improved its position in the world ever since the Bandung Conference, and is gradually winning support for its campaign to get into the United Nations."

Yet the release of the imprisoned Americans has for a long time been made a focal point of U.S. policy with relations to China, and demands have been made of Peking over and over again that it demonstrate its peaceful intentions as a pre-condition of admission to the UN.

Finally, Mr. Reston declares gloomily, that "on balance it is hard to deny that the Communists are making more progress in the Cool War than they ever did in the Cold War."

Progress, it should be emphasized again, in doing the very things U.S. spokesmen have been demanding that they do. Would not the logical conclusion of such remarks be that the "best informed men in the capital" were not sincere in their demands on Moscow and Peking, and in fact wanted the cold war to continue?

They really cannot have it both ways. In reaching a decision that the trend toward war must be stopped because it would be too costly and disastrous for both sides, and that the West will gain more from peaceful solutions than from war, the corollary proposition must be accepted that the East, too, will gain more from peace.

Thus, in line with the new foreign policy enunciated by our government of basing itself on negotiations instead of force, each new indication that the Soviet Union or the Chinese People's Republic sincerely desires peaceful settlements, each new victory on the part of any nation in this

direction, should be considered a victory for all, and in the interests of both sides.

IT IS FROM this point of view that the September 13 agreement to establish diplomatic relations between the Soviet Union and the German Federal Republic must be assessed.

Reporting on this event from Moscow, *New York Times* correspondent Clifton Daniel wrote that the decision "was considered here to be a triumph for Soviet diplomacy, which has been making a relentless campaign since spring to 'normalize' relations everywhere."

The State Department announcement, on the other hand, attributed the agreement to the "abandonment" by the Soviet Union of its "bankrupt" policies in relation to Germany, indicating that the USSR had gone over the head of the German Democratic Republic in dealing with Adenauer, and calling the results a triumph for Western diplomacy. (Although, according to a dispatch from Elie Abel in the *New York Times*, September 18, "In diplomatic circles and within the department itself, the private reactions of various officials suggested something less than unqualified success for the West.")

Walter Lippmann, who would like the Administration to be more realistic, called the State Department's comment an "example of massive silliness" (*New York Herald Tribune*, September 20). He said that the Soviet Union has not in fact abandoned its German policy, but reaffirmed that its policy is still to seek reunification through both German governments. He suggested that it was time the administration stopped considering that the United States

is so strong it can have a settlement on its own terms, and that it be prepared to negotiate a compromise.

The Bonn-Moscow agreement, as other recent developments, was in fact the logical outgrowth of the West's own policy. In building up the Adenauer Government, giving it full sovereignty, and the right to re-arm, the West was also placing it in a position to make its own diplomatic arrangements with other nations. The talk of Adenauer's failure to make any progress toward German reunification as a condition of establishing diplomatic relations is meaningless in view of the fact that Adenauer was under firm instructions from the West not to make any agreements of this nature on his own, and that this question is on the agenda for the foreign ministers. Equally meaningless are the reports that the agreement demonstrates that the Soviet Union wants a permanent division of Germany. The Soviet position, ever since the ratification of the Paris pacts, has been that the question of reunification can only be solved with the participation of both German governments and it has officially characterized the normalization of its own relations with Bonn as a step that will facilitate negotiations between the two parts of Germany to this end.

Whatever Adenauer expected to accomplish in the way of enhanced prestige by arriving in Moscow like a mighty potentate, with an enormous retinue and much ostentatious display, fell rather flat. The Soviet government leaders welcomed him cordially and extended every facility he requested, gave him every diplomatic and personal courtesy.

But when Adenauer raised at the outset the question of the return of

German prisoners of war, he heard some of the frankest talk in the history of international diplomacy. The Soviet leaders told him bluntly that there are no prisoners of war, only war criminals serving sentences imposed for atrocities committed against the Soviet people, and they recounted in detail what the USSR had suffered at the hands of the Hitlerite invaders.

In giving Adenauer verbal assurances that the 9,626 German war criminals would be released, the Soviet leaders made clear that this would be done only in accord with the wishes of the East German Government as well, with whom exchanges on this question had already taken place. At the same time Premier Bulganin, in an official statement issued simultaneously with the communique on the decision regarding diplomatic relations, made the reciprocal demand that the German Federal Republic was expected to take the necessary measures for the return of the 100,000 Soviet citizens remaining in West German territory.

(As a further result of the normalizing of relations with the Bonn Government, the Soviet Government on September 18 announced a sweeping amnesty for virtually all Soviet citizens who collaborated with the German forces during the war, providing for immediate liberation of minor collaborators, reduction of sentences for major ones, and also offering leniency to those still abroad. The decision was explained as being the result of the ending of the state of war between the USSR and Germany.)

The Soviet Government rejected the two reservations to the agreement which Chancellor Adenauer made before his departure from

Moscow, to the effect that the agreement on diplomatic relations did not imply the surrender of the West German Government's "claim to speak for all the German people," and that it did not imply recognition of the present borders of Germany (referring to the territory beyond the Oder-Neisse line ceded to Poland), whose final determination should be left to the peace treaty. The Soviet Government declared in its reply that it "considers the German Federal Government as part of Germany. Another part of Germany is the German Democratic Republic," and that the borders of Germany had been settled by the Potsdam agreement.

That it was a somewhat chastened Adenauer who returned home, was made clear in dispatches from Bonn which noted that in his first public report on his Moscow negotiations he spoke about the Soviet problem "in tones somewhat different than those he used before his departure" (*N. Y. Herald Tribune*, Sept. 17). Adenauer said that the position of the Soviet Union as a leading world power was responsible for his decision to establish diplomatic relations. He urged the Western powers to take into account the reality of the Soviet Union's desire for relaxation of world tensions, to reduce armament expenditures and to concentrate on solving their internal economic and social tasks.

The negotiations with the delegation from the German Democratic Republic headed by Premier Otto Grotewohl which immediately followed the Adenauer visit, underlined the USSR's intention of continuing its strong, friendly ties with the GDR as long as two Germanies exist, as well as its policy of facilitating

steps toward reunification between the two German governments. The treaty gives full sovereignty to the East German Government, including full control of the border with West Germany, which will make it necessary for the Adenauer Government to deal directly with the GDR on all internal matters. It provides full freedom for the East German government in all internal and foreign affairs, including relations with West Germany. While the USSR has consistently held to the policy that any final German settlement must provide for the withdrawal of all foreign troops from its soil, Soviet troops will remain as long as foreign troops remain in the West. The German Democratic Republic is given the right to its own armed forces, and equal partnership in the military provisions of the Warsaw Pact (which, however, provides for its own dissolution in the event of an all-European collective security agreement).

No one sincerely concerned with peace can be pessimistic about the results of the Moscow-Bonn negotiations. They underline Soviet determination that a rearmed Western Germany shall not threaten European peace. The very normalization of relations, with its prospects for the development of Soviet-West German trade and other mutually beneficial ties, lessens such a threat. The Soviet position that NATO should be replaced by an all-European treaty cannot in any way be interpreted as a threat to Western security. The Soviet "peace offensive" demonstrates the needlessness of any separate Western military alliance and offers the possibility for further successes in the forthcoming Foreign Ministers negotiations and in the prob-

lems affecting peace that will come before the new session in the UN Assembly.

UNFORTUNATELY, no progress has yet been recorded as a result of the meetings of the sub-commission of the UN Disarmament Commission. The persistent reports that the United States has abandoned all idea of trying to reach agreement on any program of arms reduction or nuclear weapons prohibition, and is concentrating wholly on the issue of inspection as a means of avoiding the possibility of surprise attack are disquieting. This indicates that the main point of emphasis in all work for peace must be continuing pressure for concrete steps toward disarmament and the abolition of A- and H-bombs. This is a vital immediate issue, since the question is to be taken up by the Geneva Foreign Ministers Conference, as well as in the UN Assembly. An important step in this direction has been taken by the Quakers, in a booklet issued by the American Friends' Service Committee on September 18, calling for "some form of disarmament agreement" as a prerequisite for the projected conference to review the UN charter, as well as steps toward peaceful settlement of disputes.

The Quaker position is that in the disarmament sphere any move should be universal, through the United Nations, involving all the major powers, including the Chinese People's Republic. This, of course envisages the entry of People's China into the UN. While the renewed Soviet move to give People's China its rightful seat was lost at the opening of the Assembly, there is growing support for this move as essential to peace.

THE MUSICIAN'S ROLE IN WINNING FRIENDSHIP AMONG ALL PEOPLES

by **DMITRI KABALEVSKY**
World Renown Soviet Composer

HOW INTERESTING and instructive it would be to trace the past ties among the musical cultures of different nations, the cordial relations among the musicians of different nationalities, and the goodwill and understanding which music tended to promote as it spread throughout the world.

Let us examine, for example, the interest which the great composers of the past showed towards the music of other nations, an interest which directly influenced their own works. There are the string quartets of Beethoven, based on Scottish and Russian folk tunes, the numerous productions of Haydn, Schubert and Brahms, originating from their composer's interest in the music of the Hungarian people. We have Glinka's Spanish overtures, Rimsky-Korsakov's Serbian Fantasia and Spanish Capriccio, Glazunov's Greek overtures, Tchaikovsky's Italian Capriccio and many other works by the Russian musical classics, testifying to

their keen interest in the music of other nations. We have also Ravel with his works based on Spanish folklore and Dvorak with his New World symphony, in which he tried to reproduce the character of Negro and Indian melodies.

Real artists have always combined a profound love for their own country, people, art and culture with an interest in and respect for the culture and art of other peoples. And how greatly this mutual interest has enriched the treasure house of world art, how greatly it has helped people of different nationalities to understand, respect and love one another.

One could also mention how this mutual interest was reflected in the friendly personal relations between many great artists in the past. Who has not heard of the friendly ties between Glinka and Moniuszko, Berlioz and the composers of the "new Russian school," Liszt and Chopin, Tchaikovsky and Dvorak.

And what memorable pages were

added to the history of musical intercourse by Glinka's trips to Italy and Spain, by Tchaikovsky's and Glazunov's to America and Bohemia, by Berlioz's and Schumann's to Russia, by Rimsky-Korsakov's visit to Paris.

Many musicians who travelled abroad stress the point in their letters and memoirs that these trips interested them not in order to popularize their own works, but to establish and strengthen contacts between the culture of their own country and that of other lands.

The culture and art of each nation bear the earmark of its own inimitable character. This is not merely a result of the artists' individual qualities; it is, above all, a distinguishing feature of that nation's art as a whole. "European music," Tchaikovsky wrote to his pupil and friend Taneyev, "is a treasure house to which every nationality contributes something of its own for the common good. Every West European composer is first of all a Frenchman, or a German, or an Italian, as the case may be, and only afterwards a European. *Nationality* told just as much in Glinka as it did in Beethoven, or in Verdi, or in Gounod. If you hear Russian accents in my music, I can catch the peculiar French flavor in the music of Massenet and Bizet at every step."

Tchaikovsky was not only a great composer, but a profound student of aesthetic problems and in these words he has expressed one of the fundamental laws governing the development of all genuine art.

Modern musicians who hold frankly cosmopolitan views try to repudiate the significance of the national principle in art in general, and in music in particular.

I have no intention of entering

into a discussion on cosmopolitanism, whether in art or out of it. I wish merely to state emphatically that modern cosmopolitan theories run counter to art as practiced by all great composers of the past. Neither are those theories corroborated by modern music, in which everything dissociated from its national soil is stunted, uninteresting and dull, whereas everything that grows out of that soil is virile, able to interest and grip the audience of any nationality.

World culture is the rich thing it is because every nation, large or small, makes its own original contribution to it. This originality stems, first and foremost, from the national individuality. "It is not at all a bad thing for art," wrote Stendhal, "that every country . . . has its own physiognomy. The world as a whole only gains by it in enjoyment."

Intercourse between the artists of the world and the mutual enrichment of different cultures are most important in our days, when the future of world culture depends largely upon the strength and sincerity of the friendly relations among the nations.

It is no mere chance that so many are to be found today in the front ranks of the world's active fighters for peace. Human creative activity only has a meaning when cultural values are created for mankind as a whole, created in the belief that they will beautify the lives of future as well as present generations. In other words, the genuine artist creates for the many and always looks ahead. Therefore, every real artist, no matter in what field he works, by the very nature of his activity, will always be a convinced champion of friendship

among the nations, a partisan of peace and an active enemy of war, which threatens world culture with incalculable loss and destruction.

I have had occasion to visit many countries in Europe and Asia during the last few years. In each country I studied its musical activity and talked with many musicians. With some we saw eye to eye on the most important questions of modern musical art, with others we differed widely and disputed hotly. But always, with very rare exceptions, I met a sincere striving after closer friendly contact and mutual understanding.

This striving, to a great extent, is reflected in the various conferences, festivals and international contests, which have done a great deal towards strengthening international cultural ties.

An important role in this respect is played by guest artists, who acquaint the world with the musical achievements of their countries and their peoples. This season alone musicians have visited the Soviet Union from Great Britain, Czechoslovakia, China, France, India, Greece, Poland, Rumania, Korea, Brazil, Germany, Hungary and a number of other countries. These visits were important events in the Soviet musical world. Our people, who are staunch supporters of friendship among the nations of the world, heartily welcome all envoys of foreign lands, in whose culture and art they show a keen interest.

I have always been struck by the interest which good musicians and good music by composers of the most diverse countries excite among the Soviet public. On the other hand, I have heard young people (and old ones, too) in all parts of the world

singing the songs of Soviet composers, and have seen with what interest foreign audiences listen to our symphonies, oratorios and operas, and performances by Soviet musicians. Through the medium of music we all begin to understand, and appreciate each other better and have greater respect for one another.

I could also give numerous examples of the attention given to foreign art by Soviet composers, who are continuing and developing the traditions of past composers. It will suffice to mention, by way of illustration, the cycle of American, British and French songs by Shostakovich and Anatoly Alexandrov; the "Four Improvizations on Albanian themes" by Knipper; "Negro Songs" by Shwartz; the cantata "Liberated China" by Korchmarev; and other composers, such as Eshpai's "Hungarian Melodies," Svetlanov's "Spanish Rhapsody" and so on. Personally, I may mention the great interest with which I wrote my opera "Cola Breugnon" based on Romain Rolland's novel, and the quite recent vocal cycle from ten sonnets of Shakespeare.

It is my profound conviction that in the heart of every real artist there lives a striving towards closer mutual understanding, a striving to unite all efforts in achieving the triumph of the great humanistic ideals by which the world's progressive art has always been inspired. And the wider this striving will be embodied in practical living contacts, in an exchange of cultural achievements and experience, the greater will be the contribution which we, workers of art, will make towards the noble cause of friendship and peace among the nations of the world.

How the Soviet Press Reported The American Farmers' Visit

A twelve-man delegation of American farm experts made an extensive tour of Soviet agricultural regions this summer, their visit lasting from July 16 to August 22. It was during this very time that the well-publicized delegation of Soviet farmers visited our mid-West. To give our readers some idea of what the Americans saw in the USSR, what they thought of Soviet farming methods, and how the Soviet press reported their tour, we publish here excerpts from the Soviet daily farm newspaper *Selskoye Khozyaistvo*, whose reporters accompanied the American delegation.

En Route to Krasnodar

ONE GROUP of delegates, headed by Lauren Soth, of Des Moines, Iowa, and David Gale Johnson, of the University of Chicago, had driven about 90 kilometers from Novorossisk and decided to stop over at the Lenin Collective Farm of Krymsky District.

As the collective farm had not been expecting a visit, no one met the guests, but the visitors found the chairman, Nikolai Yesin, in the office. . . .

The first thing the guests saw in the office was a huge map of the collective farm's arable land. They crowded around it and started talking. The Lenin Collective Farm is one of the large ones in the Krasnodar area. Altogether they have 62,500 acres of land, 32,500 of which

is under cultivation. For about two hours Nikolai Yesin answered questions.

At first the guests wanted to know how the arable land was being used. Yesin said that about 22,500 acres are under grain crops, 6,250 are under vegetables, 1,250 are occupied by orchards and vineyards, 375 under tobacco, and the rest under fodder crops. . . . This year they got 26 bushels of wheat and 57 bushels of barley to the acre. Dr. Johnson asked if this year's crop was higher or lower than the average. Yesin told him that for their farm it was just an average year.

The farm chairman said that on their territory there are five secondary schools and 20 elementary seven-year schools, 26 kindergartens and nurseries, and eight clubs. The farm has its own brass band, several mo-

tion picture installations, a song and dance ensemble, and there is a library in each club. . . .

After the chairman had answered all the questions, Dr. Johnson came up to him and shook his hand, commenting that he really knew his business very well, having been able to answer all their questions although he had not anticipated the delegates' visit. . . .

Meanwhile the news that the American delegation had come to their collective farm had spread throughout the locality, and when the visitors left the offices, hundreds of farmers met them with applause. Lauren Soth, John Jacobs, of Phoenix, Arizona, Charles Hearst, of Cedar Falls, Iowa, and the others were given bouquets of freshly picked flowers.

In Krasnodar

At the Oil Bearing Crops Research Institute of Krasnodar, Dr. David G. Johnson was asked a number of other questions, particularly his opinion of the living standard of the Soviet peasants.

"I, of course, can give my opinion on the basis of the collective farms and state farms we have visited. I do not think there is a great difference in the material conditions of the American farmers and the Soviet collective farmers. And I also take account here of the collective farmers' incomes from their household plots. Generally speaking, however, it seems to me that the living standard of the American farmers is higher than that of the Soviet peasants."

Johnson's last remark aroused new questions. His Soviet interlocutors asked him to state the percentage of

American farmers who really live better than the Soviet collective farmers, and whether this group included the American agricultural workers. Johnson could not answer. He only stressed that the United States had long ago taken the road of industrialization, and the Soviet Union only recently. In his opinion per-man output on the farms is higher in the United States than in the Soviet Union, and he expressed confidence that the Soviet Union would catch up with the United States.

A member of the delegation, farmer Ralph Olsen, of Ellsworth, Iowa, desired to amend Johnson's statement.

"Comparing the living standards of the people of our countries one must bear in mind that the United States was not invaded by the Nazis," he said.

The audience approved this addition.

"As for my opinion on this matter," Olsen continued, "let me say the following: I have seen that Soviet children can laugh merrily, and the women here are beautiful. What else do you want? Is this not a manifestation of the living standard of the people?"

Tractor Plant Nursery

On their third day in Kharkov, the members of the American agricultural delegation visited one of the biggest agricultural machinery plants, the Kharkov Tractor Plant, where they saw the production of tractors.

After seeing the plant and meeting the workers, who gave them a friendly welcome, the delegates accepted the invitation of the director of the plant, Pavel Y. Sablev, to see a sana-

torium maintained for the children of workers in the environs of Khar'kov. . . .

Crossing the porch which was filled with dolls, blocks and other toys, but was deserted at that time, the delegates walked out into the park. In one of the sections they saw large cages with parrots, doves and canaries.

"I can imagine what delight all this is to the children," said John Jacobs, a farmer from Arizona.

A walk led them to a stage just in time to see the older children assemble there after their nap.

The adults sat in a semi-circle on the low benches while the children performed. They sang in chorus and solo, played small pieces on the piano and danced the Ukrainian "hopak" with great relish.

The teacher suggested that the children invite their visitors into the circle of dancers. The youngsters rushed towards the benches and pulled all the adults onto the carpet on the floor.

"We can do nothing but obey," said Sablev, and he laughed as he followed the little girl into the circle with Dr. William Lambert following. Dr. William Reed, college dean in North Carolina, Ralph Olsen, and the other delegates also found dancing partners.

At first the little ones danced with very grave faces, skipping over the floor and clapping their hands, but the clumsiness of their grown-up partners gradually drove the seriousness away from their faces until the park resounded with a burst of merry laughter. The American visitors joined in this laughter.

Very soon, literally within a few minutes, they became friends. A little boy climbed on John Jacobs'

shoulders and, encouraged by applause from his compatriots, the latter began to run in a circle with the burden on his shoulders.

At A Collective Farm

The fact that all field work on the Ilyich Collective Farm, Zaparozhye region, is mechanized, drew several questions which might be summed up in the one formulated by Dr. William Reed:

"Your farm is highly mechanized, work is becoming much easier. What will the farmers do within the next few years when everything is done by machines?"

The collective farm chairman replied that it will just mean that everybody will work less and have more time for education and leisure. That is what the whole Soviet nation is striving for.

"That's good," Dr. Reed rejoined.

Later, Dr. William Lambert, Dean of the College of Agriculture, University of Nebraska, added: "We realize that much is being done in the Soviet Union to mechanize labor-consuming operations in farming, and especially in livestock raising. But I must add that American farms have a higher level of mechanization. For example, the same volume of work in farming requires in America 25 to 35 per cent less manual labor than it does in your country."

Cultivation—Pros and Cons

At the Kuban state machine testing station, the conversation turned to cultivation, particularly the cultivation of corn. Opinions differed on this question, and a heated discussion arose. We have already re-

ported in previous articles that the American scientists were skeptical about this form of field work.

Dr. William Reed asked the station workers what they thought of cultivation. They answered in favor of cultivation. Dr. Reed, supported by his colleagues, began to refute the assertion of the Soviet specialists. Fifteen to twenty years ago, he said, multiple cultivation was considered useful in the United States and was widely applied. But it was not found advantageous and was rejected. Today cultivation is used once, at most twice, and this only to remove weeds. In the United States weeds are today destroyed chiefly by spraying the plants with chemicals.

Dr. William Lambert countered the remark by the station workers that they cultivate five or six times, with the reply:

"You cause the plants more harm than good by multiple cultivation."

Someone said that cultivation also pursued another purpose—that of retaining moisture. Reed and Lambert strongly objected. Referring to the experience of American scientists, they asserted that the more the soil was loosened, particularly if it is cultivated to a depth of 10 centimeters, the more the soil dried and lost its moisture.

Dr. Reed said that when he got back to the United States he would collect all the literature on the question of cultivation and send it to his Soviet colleagues.

"In this way," he said jokingly, "I will save you many millions of rubles you are now spending on cultivation."

The workers of the Kuban machine-testing station thanked Dr. Reed for his offer but retained their opinion on the question of cultivation.

They referred to Soviet experience which shows that fields where multiple cultivation is applied yield a 30 per cent higher harvest. Dr. Reed did not agree with this and said that in the given case other factors unnoticed by his opponents obviously influenced the increased harvest.

Biological Controversy

The American delegates and the persons accompanying them arrived in Odessa by two planes from Dnepropetrovsk in the afternoon of July 25. After a short rest they went to the Lysenko USSR Research Institute of Selection and Genetics where they were met by F. G. Kirichenko, the director, Academician D. A. Dolgushin, and Professor A. S. Musiyko, who acquainted their guests with the history of the institute and outlined the work of the staff. The members of the delegation asked numerous questions which were readily answered by their hosts. Some subjects, of course, aroused more lengthy discussion.

Academician Dolgushin talked about the basic principles of the theory of phasic development of plants. He showed specimens of new wheat varieties which had been obtained by changing the external conditions of the plant's life.

Dr. Lambert remarked that American scientists do not agree with their Soviet colleagues' viewpoint on heredity. But in spite of differences on questions of theory, the guests showed a lively interest in the institute's work. When they were discussing the achievements of the institute in transforming spring wheat into a winter variety, Dr. Lambert asked the Soviet scientists whether the process could be reversed and

received an answer in the affirmative.

Dr. Reed asked: "What helped you to understand the importance of the external conditions' influence on plant life?"

"Our conception of the heredity factor," replied Academician Dolgushin.

This answer was in a way polemical and at the same time somewhat humorous, and the guests understood that quite well. Dr. Reed and his colleagues laughed heartily but still held to their point.

"Are there any limits to the transformation of plants?" Dr. Lambert asked. To which the Soviet scientists most emphatically replied: "No!"

After posing detailed questions on the problem of hybridization, Dr. Lambert said:

"It is evident that we will not reach a common viewpoint on the problem of genetics. Our scientists (and I must mention, by the way, that I am not a plant breeder) ought to get together with your scientists and discuss these questions. Exchanges of scientific and technical knowledge between our countries must be expanded."

Professor Musiyko told the delegates what the institute was doing in the way of producing new corn varieties. He said that recently the institute had developed four new varieties of corn and gave a detailed description of the best type, which has been called Odesskaya-10. The guests wanted to know how far north this variety was being grown.

"Will this variety of corn become the basic crop in your country within the next few years?" Dr. Lambert asked. He was told that it was too early to tell, and besides the practi-

cal farmers would have the final say.

Meeting at the Ministry of Agriculture in Moscow

Dr. William Lambert, head of the delegation, said that the members of the delegation had had a meeting and had summed up the results of their impressions. The members of the delegation would describe them separately, but they would express the opinion of all the members.

"The hospitality we were accorded in the Soviet Union," said Lauren Soth, "surpasses everything we heard about the Russian people. This warmed the hearts of all of us Americans. Everybody without exception, collective farmers, state farm and machine and tractor station workers as well as city people welcomed us with open arms and huge bouquets of flowers.

"We think that the Ministry of Agriculture mapped out a most interesting route for us. If we were taking another trip through the Soviet Union today, I do not doubt that we would choose the very same places. But thinking of future delegations (and we hope that there will be other delegations on both sides), we recommend that they be granted more freedom in time to choose the collective and state farms they would like to visit and make changes in the itinerary."

Ferris Owen, a farmer from Ohio, then read a statement on behalf of the delegation.

"I have summed up the points made by us during the trip and after the delegation's return to Moscow," he said. "We discussed much of what we saw and the delegation has the following remarks to make. We

felt that a study of the questions of more effective use of manpower on collective and state farms and more intensive application of mechanization would be a step in the right direction.

"Collective and state farms are spending much money and effort on construction which, in my opinion, can be effected more economically with better use of up-to-date technique. Scientifically grounded advice could have helped the chairmen of collective farms and the directors of state farms to better plan and organize construction.

"The American delegation recommends to USSR agricultural workers that they make a better study of the various varieties of corn for the introduction of this crop into arid districts where there is a shortage of moisture for its effective cultivation.

"In a number of districts we noticed harm caused by the erosion of soil. More attention should be paid to this problem and scientific research work increased in this field.

"While inspecting corn crops in different districts we came up against opinions that differed from ours regarding cultivation. It is our opinion that considerable labor and money could be saved if less cultivation was effected which disturbs the structure of the soil and if greater use was made of chemical means to combat weeds. The same should also be advised regarding the removal of stalks from the fields. In the United States short-stalk varieties of grain are usually used, the grain is cut at the top of the stalk, and the stalks are plowed under as fertilizer.

"It has been very pleasant and useful to tour such a country as Russia and see its farms and people.

The people we have met are satisfied with their present conditions and are aware that they are doing great work for the future."

Ralph Olsen stated that he saw everywhere that the Soviet people desire peace. He particularly understood this desire, he said, after he had learned what great losses the Soviet people had suffered from the war. The people throughout the world want peace, he said. He added that the development of all virgin and long-fallow land in the USSR would produce enough wheat to feed the entire population of the globe.

To the question asked by I. A. Benediktov, Minister of State Farms of the USSR, as to what the most positive thing was the delegation noticed in our country's agriculture, Julius Kleiner, of Nampa, Idaho, replied:

"It seems to me that the radical transformation of the former, one-time backward and primitive agriculture of the USSR is an indisputable fact which would have been hard for us to believe unless we saw everything with our own eyes. The keen interest displayed in his work by every collective farmer and every state farm and machine and tractor station worker made a big impression on us."

"The American agricultural delegation correctly noted our shortcomings in many things," said Benediktov, who then took the floor. "We do not hide them, we know of them and try to eliminate them. There is still much to do to increase the productivity of labor. I want to mention, however, that we have advanced farms where the level of labor productivity stands comparison with the best farms in the United States."

The guests asked many questions.

They wanted to know the size of areas in the USSR planted to various crops, corn and cotton, and their harvests, and the growth of animal husbandry. The Soviet agricultural workers on their part were interested in the method used in the United States to combat soil erosion, in new machinery, methods of combatting diseases among animals, etc.

In conclusion P. S. Kuchumov, Deputy Minister of Agriculture, agreed with many of the remarks made by the delegates. He stressed that in the current year planning will begin from below; plans will be drawn up on the spot in accordance with the conditions existing on the farm. As to the remarks about the productivity of labor and mechanization, Kuchumov noted that they

were correct to a certain extent, but he noted that it should be borne in mind that the American delegates, owing to the shortage of time, were unable to acquaint themselves with the full volume and scale of mechanization of agriculture in the USSR. In this connection he cited data on the level of mechanization in the most important branches of agriculture: plowing, 96 per cent; spring and winter sowing, 94 to 98 per cent; grain harvesting, 86 per cent, and figures for other operations.

"We are of the opinion," he stressed, "that the further exchange of delegations will make it possible for us to become more fully acquainted with farming in the United States and for you to become better acquainted with our agriculture."

CHINA EXPANDS FILM INDUSTRY

AS PART OF CHINA'S Five-Year Plan, a new film studio able to produce eight full-length color films a year will be constructed. According to plans, building will begin in 1957. Other projects for the expansion of the film industry include a plant for the production of negatives with a capacity of more than 400 million feet of film a year, and a film processing plant with a capacity of more than 282 million feet of film annually.

UNIQUE ART EXHIBITION IN MOSCOW

WHAT the *New York Times* describes as "one of the most popular and unusual art exhibitions ever held in any country" was held in Moscow recently for three and a half months. It was the famous collection of the Dresden Gallery which the Soviet Army found during the war. During the period of the exhibition, 1,200,000 Soviet and foreign visitors attended. Queues sometimes formed at the gallery as early as four o'clock in the morning, so heavily attended was the art show. There was extensive literature published on the works of art including hundreds of thousands of reproductions of the paintings on exhibit. Six hundred lectures were delivered on the art treasures and eleven motion pictures, one a full-length one, were made. The pictures, which include some of the most famous in the world, are being returned to the German Democratic Republic where they will be taken to their original home, Dresden.

Fashion Forum In Peking

The Chinese people are more and more beginning to lean toward more colorful and varied styles in clothing. This is so strikingly brought forth in a report in the English Language magazine *China Reconstructs* that we present the account here, certain that it will be of interest to our readers.

EVER SINCE the liberation, as visitors to China have noticed, there has been a widespread tendency for men and women in our country to dress alike, in plain cotton jacket and trousers, blue or grey. There were reasons for this at first, but many people feel that it is time to change to brighter, more varied, styles and colors. Not long ago, in response to many letters received by its editors, the *New Observer*, a popular fortnightly in Peking, held a forum to discuss how to get people out of "uniform," and what the new fashions should be.

Taking part in the discussion—which was afterwards summarized in print—were a poet, several painters, a pianist and music critic, a woman trade union leader, a representative of the New Democratic Youth League and two writers from a women's magazine. The participants were invited for their influence on public opinion. Mrs. Ke Yang, the *New Observer* editor who opened the discussion, said it was hoped that they would stimulate

some change in the prevailing habit of dressing alike. Some women, Mrs. Ke Yang said, had written that they possessed brighter, more stylish clothes, but were reluctant to wear them because of "what people might say."

The "Uniform" Habit

Ai Ching, a leading poet, was the first to speak. He recalled how the "uniforms" had come in. During the wars against Japan and Chiang Kai-shek, people in the liberated areas lived very austere. Starting with little more than their own burning faith in the people's ultimate triumph, they had built an invincible army, set up a clean democratic system of government and eventually led the people to the victory which has set China on the path to socialism. They all wore uniforms then, said Ai Ching, and it was right to do so. After the liberation, their spirit of austerity and simple living had a healthy influence on the whole country.

It is already the sixth year since the establishment of the new China, said the poet. There are plenty of goods and there is no need for everyone, men and women, old and young, to dress the same way. But the habit has become difficult to change.

"Some girl students from the art academy came to see me," he said. "Why don't you want to wear pretty clothes?" I asked them. "They said that if you did someone would be sure to make remarks. I said remarks would probably be of delight at seeing something colorful and becoming, and advised them to try it and see.

"Other girls told me," said Ai Ching, "that there was a tendency to think that anyone who dressed smartly was 'backward'—that they thought of themselves, not of helping the country. As if being progressive was dependent on wearing drab colors!"

Are Nice Clothes Bourgeois?

Han Pin, who works in the Central Committee of the New Demo-

cratic Youth League, spoke next.

"It's true that many do think that way," he said. "It's one of the main stumbling blocks in this question of dress. When the Youth League criticizes bourgeois ideas, a lot of students and other young people get the idea that dressing well shows a bourgeois outlook."

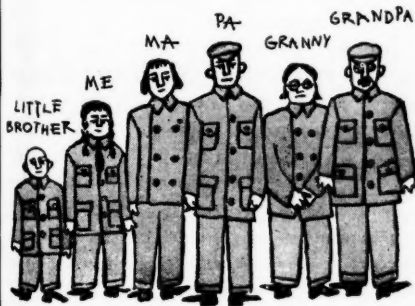
"Bourgeois people wear handsome clothes to show they have plenty of money," Mrs. Yu Feng, a painter, broke in. "But why should they be the only ones to dress nicely? In a socialist society, people can dress well too. I saw a meeting on a Soviet collective farm in a film, and everyone was very well dressed indeed."

"You're quite right," said Ai Ching. "Here in China we are restoring the palaces and making the streets and the parks beautiful, but somehow we've overlooked clothes. If you look in the streets you see mostly blue and grey—quite inconsistent with the color in the buildings. Abroad, if six or seven girls go out for a walk, every one of them is likely to have a different hairstyle and dress."

Chang Ting, a painter, had the same view. "Why should our young men and women dress so sloppily and drably when the country is getting more prosperous? They think it's patriotic, but I don't. When I was in Germany I knew an old worker who was seriously ill in the hospital. He used to get up in the small hours to shave because his wife would come to see him in the mornings. Now that's a real expression of self-respect!"

"Yes," said Mrs. Yu Feng. "It's poor-spirited to dress carelessly. At present it makes no difference whether we are attending a meeting,

Little Sister's Family Portrait. A Cartoon from "Hsin Min Wan Pao, Shanghai publication, poking fun at the 'uniform' habit of dress in the cities





New designs by Yu Feng. Left to right: An evening dress, a Mongolian dress adapted for school girls, and two traditional gowns with a long deep inverted pleat instead of the short slits at the side of the skirt.

going for a long country walk, to a concert or to a banquet; we always wear the same suit. It's very dull."

New Times—New Styles

"When guests from abroad see our operas and plays," said Chou Kuang-jen, a pianist, "they always ask me: 'Your costumes in the past were so beautiful—why do you dress so monotonously now?' They also say that when they go along the street they don't seem to see any women, because men and women are all dressed alike, and if you don't look at their faces, you often can't tell which is which!"

"We can't go back to the past for styles," said Chang Ting. "The standard suit we wear now is a combination of the kind that Dr. Sun Yat-sen wore and the uniform of our People's Army. It came of our recent history and we've got to think of how to reform it with present-day life in mind. Look at the peasants. Their old-style jackets and trousers are all right for work in the fields. The sleeve of the jacket is cut in one piece with the body, and the buttons are made of intricate cloth knots—economical and lasting. Now the

peasants are beginning to follow the city workers and go into ready-made uniform suits, which are much less practical. With the kind of hard wear they give them, the buttons pop off and the seams split. I think peasants should stick to the kind of clothes most suited to their work, and so should everyone else.

"When I went to the countryside around Soochow last year, I thought the gay blouses and skirts the peasant girls wore were very becoming. Why shouldn't we copy those? It's in the cities that the main trouble lies. My wife made our sixteen-year-old daughter a flowered frock to wear on the last public holiday, and she looked very pretty. But when she went out she insisted on putting her grey uniform jacket over it. There's public opinion for you."

"It is not difficult to create a new outlook," said Chiang Feng, president of the Central Academy of Fine Arts, who had not spoken up to now. "We must give it a lot of attention in newspapers and magazines. The new clothes should be simple, economical and suitable for different tastes and demands. I think women might wear Chinese-style blouses with trousers or with skirts;

or foreign-style one-piece frocks; or the straight, high-collared Chinese dresses—whichever suits them best."

Mrs. Yu Feng said the straight Chinese gown for women was simple and did not need much material. But its drawback was that it was not convenient for movement. The collar should remain high, though not too high, because Chinese women are not used to a low neckline and it doesn't suit them.

"What I want to see is a lot of color," she said. "In Fukien province the peasant women wear peach-colored jackets with wide black trousers, and they look lovely. When they go out to work, they pick fresh flowers every day to put in their hair. You can see they enjoy life!"

Chou Kuang-jen was for the traditional gown. "It makes women look gentle and graceful," he said. "Of course, it is not very convenient to move around in, but as long as you don't run a race or do something like that, it is all right!"

Mrs. Yang Chih-hua, head of the women's department of the All-China Federation of Trade Unions, voiced strong disagreement. "The Chinese gown is no good for working women," she said. "It's too inconvenient. Besides I don't agree that it's either graceful or beautiful. We don't want uniformity. We do want

new styles. But they must be comfortable and becoming without getting in our way."

Chao Feng, a music critic, remarked that a lot of people had criticized the foreign-style clothes worn by women soloists and choruses at concerts. He thought they should have something of a national flavor. "I once met a Bulgarian artist," he said. "She was tall, stout and already middle-aged. She wore an ordinary West-European style black evening dress, but it was decorated with beautiful Bulgarian embroidery in dark red and white silk. That's what I mean by national flavor."

He liked the Chinese gown for women provided it was not exaggeratedly tight or high in the collar. He also favored a Chinese jacket worn with a short skirt. Long skirts, he thought, should only be worn for formal occasions.

At the end of the discussion, the president of the Arts Academy summed up: "Artists should produce new designs, and fashions should be discussed more in newspapers and journals," he said. "As a basis, we should study peasant and national dress. Everyone should try to help clear away the mental resistance to more varied cut and color. Then the people themselves will create new styles."

CHINESE DEVELOP TELETYPE MACHINE

THE FIRST Chinese language teletype machine has been produced in Peking, it was announced recently by the Ministry of Posts and Telecommunications. The telegraphic code long in use in China cannot convey Chinese language messages directly, but a transcription must be made both before the messages are transmitted and after receipt. Direct transmission made possible by the new invention will do much to raise the efficiency of telecommunications.

WAR AND PEACE

In the Atomic Age

by ROBERT MORSS LOVETT

THE ATOMIC age has put an end to large scale international war. The threat of the extinction of the human race, so eloquently set forth by the scientists, has been heard around the world. It is clear that in any big war nuclear weapons, if available, will be used, whatever the consequences. Undoubtedly war will keep its place for awhile in the vocabulary of diplomacy, but it will be a phony war of fear, especially in the United States. Since our economy has been built so largely on war, on government expenditure for defense, it will be necessary to keep the public enlisted in a cold war to justify the continuation of the flow of billions of tax money into industry. It is ironical that war should have succumbed to its own perfected technology. John Ruskin defended war on account of its moral and aesthetic values, but he limited weapons to swords, spears, and bows and arrows. Since the discovery of explosives the advance has been slow but steady,

with increased power of killing, until today all humanity is at stake. No better example can be found of Santayana's line: "By excess of evil, evil dies."

The world looks forward to a glorious future for mankind with the release of atomic energy for peaceful purposes. It is pertinent to ask: Does this mean the end of private enterprise? Scientists have increasingly given attention to the danger to the race, particularly in its reproductive functions, through the spread of radioactive elements in the atmosphere. The early crude prophecy of setting the atmosphere on fire by explosion of the hydrogen bomb has given place to a more subtle menace of poison. This danger is inherent, we are told, in the release of atomic energy for whatever purpose, peaceful or warlike. Dare we entrust it to private enterprise?

The history of the United States is the golden legend of private enterprise in its exploitation of natural resources. One by one these have been granted to special interests without adequate control for general welfare. First the great timber lands were demanded. Then the coal lands were appropriated. The new source of energy in oil and na-

PROF. ROBERT MORSS LOVETT, eminent author and critic, taught for many years at the University of Chicago. He was former Government Secretary of the Virgin Islands and is the author of numerous books.

tural gas in the middle of the last century became and is a classic instance of the domination of public interest by private persons, economically and politically. Meanwhile water power sites were being gobbled up with the connivance of the government. Undoubtedly a strong case can be built up for this encouragement of private enterprise. The development of the country was immeasurably hastened by the frank appeal to self-interest. Moreover, these resources were uncovered by the efforts of individuals who were stimulated by large rewards, and their adventures exercised a powerful influence on the formation of American character. These arguments have no weight in the case of atomic power. There the discoveries and early development have taken place through the activity of government, employing the disinterested efforts of scientists and providing vast sums for experiment from the funds of all the people.

Undoubtedly atomic energy will be the chief resource of mankind in the foreseeable future. Already the note of depletion is being sounded in the case of many substances essential in the present conduct of industry, and the great provider of

power in oil is subject to exhaustion.

Already electrical companies are making plans for the use of atomic energy under government license. But will such control be sufficient to insure the public from the dangers implicit in the distribution of such power? We have already had experience with internal wars fought among themselves by great aggregations of private capital, in addition to the general war against the public. We have seen that self-interest has no law. Can we entrust the great power over life and death, involving the genetic future of the race to such uncertain authority?

International control in the case of war is already envisaged in negotiations now under way. International control in the matter of atoms for peace should follow. And in our internal economy an extension of the power of the government is necessary beyond the modest demand of conventional socialism as it today rests in the welfare state. The people in the exercise of democracy, in its literal meaning, may have to find an instrument of control more stable than representation by political parties, obviously susceptible to the temptations of private enterprise.

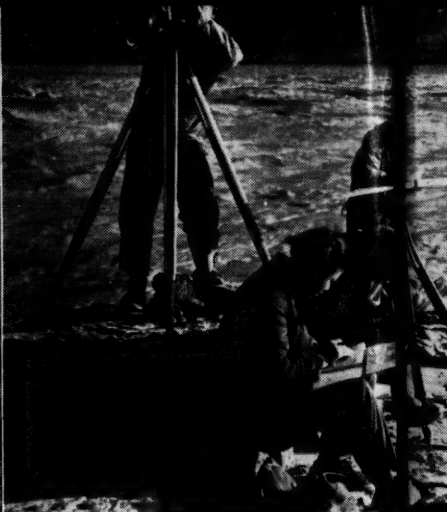
MILLIONS VOTE AGAINST ATOMIC WAR

THE WORLD PEACE COUNCIL has announced that by early August nearly 656 million signatures appealing against preparations for atomic war had been collected throughout the world, and that the collection of signatures is still continuing. In Japan 32,260,000 signatures, representing a third of the population, had been collected; in Syria there were 609,000 signatures; in Italy, 12 million; in Indonesia, two and a half million; in Australia, 200,000. The signature campaign started in mid-January after the World Peace Council's Appeal adopted in Vienna. In China, Japan, the Soviet Union and the Eastern European countries the campaign is practically over, but in most other countries it is still in full swing.



Geologists study the formation at one of the gorges of the 3,000-mile river

Soviet and Chinese experts examine a site. Soviet experts helped to draw up plans for the project



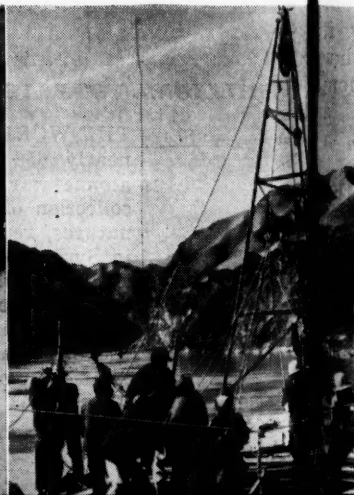
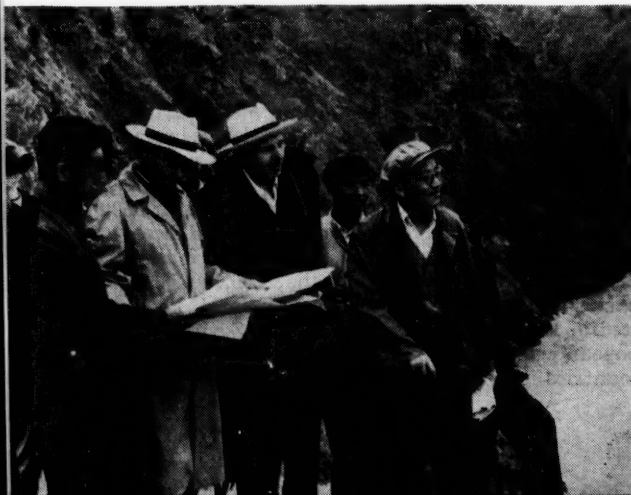
Surveying the Sanmen Gorge, where a reservoir and a hydroelectric station will be built

TAMING THE YELLOW RIVER

People's China has begun a project to control the great Yellow River, which in the past century breached its dykes at least annually, and to exploit it for power, irrigation and navigation. Plan will include construction of 46 dams and 24 reservoirs.

—Photo East

A crew of drillers are exploring the bed of the upper reaches of the river



where a reservoir
will be built

THE FIVE

a project to con-
fer, within the
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chor power riga-
will be con-
d 24 reservoirs.

—Photo Eastfoto

are expected the
reaches of the river



Liukia Gorge (above) and Sanmen Gorge (below) will both have big reservoirs and hydroelectric stations constructed by 1967

The Sanmen Gorge. The Soviet Government has agreed to design the million kilowatt power station and the big reservoir here



THE FAMILY OF Shaakhmed and Bakhri

by ELENA KONONENKO

This summer, on the front page of the Moscow *Pravda* there appeared a decree of the government honoring an Uzbek husband and his wife, Shaakhmed Shamakhmudov and Bakhri Akramova, with the Badge of Honor. They were singled out for this award for "adopting fourteen children taken from Children's Homes, of whom at the present time four are occupied at independent work, one is in the ranks of the Soviet Army, and the remainder are being brought up by them and studying." In the same issue of the paper there appeared an account of a visit to the family by the well-known writer, Elena Kononenko, which we here present in translation.

WE FIRST met the Tashkent blacksmith, Shaakhmed Shamakhmudov and his wife, Bakhri Akramova, who have adopted fourteen orphaned children, on a Sunday morning.

In their small cozy garden, ancient mulberry, walnut, apple, peach and cherry trees spread their branches and give abundant shade. It is especially pleasant under the spacious grape arbor, where the tea table is spread, on the ground, according to Uzbek custom.

Little doves fly over the garden. Voices of children call back and forth. Shaakhmed and Bakhri come to meet us and are at once surrounded by children of all ages.

"Salaam, Salaam! Good morning!" a chorus of voices greets us.

Shaakhmed Shamakhmudov is sixty-five but looks younger. He's a sturdy, strong man, whose bright black eyes are expressive, wise, kind and full of laughter. His hair is black, only his beard is streaked with grey. One look at his joyous smile and one understands how it happened that he became the father of fourteen orphans, among whom are not only Uzbeks, but Russians, a Ukrainian, a Jew, a Moldavian, a Tatar, a Kazakh.

Bakhri is fifty-two. She is healthy and full of the joy of life. Her dark, serene face, arched brows, soft eyes and lashes, her well-shaped nose and white teeth, are completely charming.

In a cradle beneath the arbor a baby cries. Bakhri lifts it carefully

and presses it against her warm cheek. The child grows quiet. Bakhri's eyes are happy.

"Who is this bright little one? Is it possible that he too is your son?" I asked.

"No, this is a grandchild, Zakir, son of our son Misha—Khamidel—who is in the army. Zakir is five months old. He is fair and pretty, yes?"

"We have two grandchildren already," proudly remarks Shaakhmed, lifting up a little lad of two, who squeals with joy.

Adjusting the tubeteika (embroidered cap) on the boy's head, Shaakhmed tells us: "This is Takhir, son of our son Rafik. We, Bakhri and I, have celebrated two weddings already. Rafik graduated from the mining institute and works as an assistant foreman."

A small black-eyed girl about three comes over to Shaakhmed and clasps his leg in her dark arms.

"And this too is a grand-daughter?"

"No, this is a daughter. Khakima, our youngest. What is it, Khakima, darling?" The blacksmith pats her head with his broad palm and clucks his tongue tenderly.

"This is not a war child. . . . Then you must have adopted her quite recently?"

Shaakhmed sighs, smiles somewhat guiltily. "Yes, this one we brought into the family in 1952. She was only twenty days old. I went on business to the city and heard of the orphan, Khakima, and brought her home to Bakhri, who brought her up on the bottle. Isn't she a lovely little girl? Like a flower."

"Oiyee!" a boy of about fourteen runs in from the street. Light haired, blue-eyed, in a white shirt and grey

cap. Oiyee in Uzbek is "Mother." The boy asks Bakhri something, she nods and he takes from the table a succulent, amber slice of melon and starts eating it.

"This one too is yours?"

"Yes, this is our son, Shurik," answers Shaakhmed, "a Russian. . . ."

Finished with the melon, Shurik begins to read a magazine in the shade of the mulberry tree. A round-faced youngster joins him.

"This is Adik . . . also our son. He is seventeen. He is small for his age—but healthy!"

I ask Shaakhmed how it happened that their children were of several nationalities.

"I don't know. Probably because children of all nationalities suffered from the war. They were all equally dear to me when I took them from the children's home. An orphan—therefore my son. . . . All men are one people, do you understand me?"

Yes, I understand him very well. What noble words the smith spoke. Moved, we shake his hands, the photographer and I. But it seemed to Shaakhmed that he failed to express his thoughts clearly enough; he speaks Russian badly.

"Sania, Sania!" he calls, "Come over here, son. Explain."

Sania, a Ukrainian, is one of Shaakhmed's and Bakhri's oldest children. He is in his nineteenth year. A broad-shouldered, robust fellow in a *kovboike* (cowboy's jacket), he has a good-natured face and there is laughter in his greenish eyes. He was four years old when Shaakhmed brought him into the family. Sania works with his father in a blacksmith *artel* (cooperative), named after Mikhail Ivanovich Kalinin. He attends evening high school.

Shaakhmed places his hand on

Sania's shoulder and speaks to him in Uzbek. Sania nods approvingly, smiling broadly.

"Father says that in our family there is full friendship of peoples. This is true."

"Sania, please ask your father to tell us how he became father to so big a family."

Bakhri speaks quietly to the children. How soft her voice is! Suddenly all are in motion. One brings melons, others, bowls of walnuts, cakes, tea and sugar. We sit around the tea table on bright colored rugs. Above us coo the turtle doves.

Shakhmed, caressing the tow-headed grandchild asleep on his lap, begins his story. . . .

It was in 1941. The smith and his wife lived on the very same Dzhararyk Street on the outskirts of Tashkent, with the same shaded garden, but in an old, small crowded house. The present one is new and spacious. The government helped them build it.

More and more tidings came of the terrible suffering caused by the war—homes in flames, grain destroyed, peaceful folk and children killed by bombs, artillery fire and fascist savagery. Bakhri wept. Shaakhmed was gloomy. He worked then, as now, as smith in an *artel*. He worked hard, wielding his hammer as if it were a weapon to destroy the monster ravaging the gardens and fields of his country. Shaakhmed was illiterate, but he understood everything. Before the Revolution, he and his parents lived in great poverty, without any rights. He understood with all his being the meaning of the Soviet way of life and how one must value and guard it.

Shaakhmed, it seems, had always had progressive ideas. As far back

as 1919 he convinced Bakhri, his young wife, to remove her *paranja*, the stuffy, black veil the Uzbek women used to wear.

Yes, Shaakhmed worked hard during the war, more ardently than ever before, but still it was not enough. The young left for the front. Others sent their sons. Shaakhmed and Bakhri had no children. What could he do to help the Soviet people in this grim hour?

And then came the news. Two groups of children were brought to Tashkent—orphans, war victims. Word went out that whoever wished might take an orphan into the family, since the children's homes were overfilled.

"Bakhri, do you hear?"

"Go, Shaakhmed, go."

He went to the house on Kom-somolsky Lake, where the orphans were being taken care of. He saw a crowd of children pressed close to one another, their eyes full of tears, their faces pale. The smith's heart sank.

"I'll take the youngest one," he said.

That's how five-months old Nigmat came to Shaakhmed's home. No one knew his right name, nor his nationality. Bakhri named him Nigmat. All night she warmed him at her breast. Shaakhmed heated the milk. The bottle shook in his great hands—the hands of a blacksmith.

After a while he fell asleep, this their first son. He even smiled in his sleep. Shaakhmed and Bakhri sat up all night beside him, guarding his sleep, speaking in whispers.

And now Nigmat is almost fifteen years old and is in the seventh grade. Such a smart lad. He wants to enter a building institute. Here he is now.

"Nigmat, come here. Where are you hiding, son?"

A graceful, dark-faced youth appeared in the arbor. Fearless eyes, delicate features, resolute mouth. "I watered the calf, Father, and then went to find out when the football match with the Germans will be broadcast."

Three days after Nigmat's adoption, the smith brought Rakhmat, or more correctly, Adik the Unknown. (He was thus recorded in the children's home.) The family still calls him Adik.

This is how it happened. Bakhri woke one night and saw her husband sitting at the window.

"Why aren't you sleeping, Shaakhmed?"

"I can't sleep, Bakhri. Before my eyes are the orphans. There are so many there. . . . Bakhri, let's take one other. We shall find a place for him."

He went again to Komsomol Lake and returned with the two-year-old Adik. He told his wife he chose this one because he looked so very unhappy. He was sitting in a corner, his little body all atremble. He was light as a feather when the smith picked him up.

Came the year 1942. Bakhri said, "Shaakhmed, you know I manage quite well with the youngsters. Maybe we should take one other, slightly older. He will play with Adik. We'll have three sons."

So the smith went again, and this time selected the four-year-old Sania who happened to be a Ukrainian, of whom we told above. While Shaakhmed was taking Sania away, a little, thin boy about five ran up, grabbed the smith's hand and whispered. "Where are you going? I want to go with you."

This was Fedya Kulchakovski. The directress led him away, crying.

The smith brought Sania home. Bakhri bathed him, dressed him in clean clothes, took him on her lap.

"Sonny, give us a smile." Sania sat motionless, looking around with his large, greenish eyes. Bakhri gave him some nuts. He held them tightly in his fist and remained sitting still. And so he sat until evening with the nuts tightly clutched in his fist.

"Bakhri, he probably needs one of his own age," said Shaakhmed. He remembered the child who cried because he was not taken.

"Bring him," sighed Bakhri. "Let us have four sons."

The smith went after Fedya.

"Fedya isn't home just now," "he went for coal, but he will return soon. He is nineteen, and a fourth year student at the mining institute. He is quite stubborn, but very capable."

And when Shaakhmed was taking away Fedya, he was followed by the six-year-old Misha Yarulin, the one who left a year ago for the army. So the smith took Misha also. "They were pals. Why separate pals?" he explained.

What a reunion that was! Sania, Fedya and Misha rushed to one another, laughing joyously. It was a very moving sight. The three stayed close together, afraid that they might be separated.

"My foolish ones," Bakhri would say, "do not fear. You will all live together. Understand?"

No, they did not understand Uzbek. Bakhri kept on, pressing each one in turn to her breast. Shaakhmed would grab all three together with his strong hands, lifting them high. This they understood. Their

little eyes seemed to melt. Voices became clear; only at nights they had nightmares, especially Fedya. He was a nervous child, and dreamed of fires, crying out in fear.

"I am here, sonny," Bakhri would whisper in her native tongue. The boy would quiet down, feeling her soft hand on his forehead.

They soon learned to speak Uzbek. The home of Shaakhmed and Bakhri was filled with noise. On the smith's return from work the youngsters would shout joyfully: "Ada! Ada! (Father, Father!)."

Shaakhmed, delighted, would take one, then another, into his arms, each in turn so that nobody would be left out.

"Bakhri, our home is no longer orphaned. Remember how quiet and dull our home once was," Shaakhmed would say, embracing his devoted wife. "The children tire you, Bakhri?"

"Children tire every mother!" answered the ever-cheerful Bakhri.

Bakhri never complained to her husband. But once she really was surprised. In the summer of 1943 more orphans were brought to Tashkent. Shaakhmed and Bakhri decided that they would take one more child. At the Children's Home the smith was introduced to three youngsters: four-year-old Uzbek, Karavoi, five-year-old Vova and a little Moldavian girl, Olya, of the same age. Shaakhmed, wondering which to choose, squatted down and winked merrily at the children. At once the little dark Karavoi jumped on his knee. Vova looked timidly and sadly at Shaakhmed.

"And you, why don't you come to me, sad eyes?" he said, and beckoned to him. Vova came over and sat on the other knee.

"And then I thought, to take the one on the left knee is to hurt the one on the right knee; to take the one on the right is to hurt the one on the left. So I decided—well, let both come with me. . . . But the girl was so little. So I took all three. I said to Bakhri, 'Bakhri, to choose one of the three was very difficult for me. . . .'"

The smith's smile, recalling this, was so charmingly guilty that I could not refrain from exclaiming:

"Shaakhmed, what a remarkable man you are. . . ."

"Why remarkable?" The smith lifted high his black eyebrows. "You must not talk like this. Their fathers gave their lives for us."

We got acquainted with this trio the next morning. Vova, eighteen years old, is in the tenth grade, wants very much to be a transport engineer. Tallest in the family, towering over even his father—Karavoi is seventeen. He is in the ninth grade. Olya is eighteen, has finished school, and is working in a sewing *artel*.

"A helper . . . already an earner," said Shaakhmed, not without pride, introducing me. Olya has a mischievous sweet face, blue eyes under dark eyebrows.

"Well, Ada, I'm not the only one. Sania too is working . . . and Rafik," Olya said, embarrassed.

Rafik, whom we did not see, works as assistant foreman at Angren. Shaakhmed and Bakhri adopted him when he was twelve. Rafik married an Uzbek girl, Farize. It was a happy wedding, they told us. Two bushels of pilaff were prepared. There was such singing and dancing the earth shook.

"I still haven't told you about all of them," continued Shakhmed,

laughing. "Such a large family, one can't count them all at once. Khabiba, come over here, daughter." A pretty young girl comes over to us. She has a Russian face. Only the eyebrows are joined by a straight line in accordance with the Uzbek custom. She wears a *tubeteika* and an Uzbek dress.

"Khabiba is Russian. She was four years old when we took her from the Children's Home in 1944. She is in the seventh grade. And now you come over, Volodya. . . . He was just promoted to the fifth grade."

Volodya, grey-eyed, round faced, pug nosed—a typical Riazan lad. . . .

"Well, it looks as if this is all. . . . Akh, Khalima, Khalima! The most important I omitted. Khalima, let me introduce you to our guests. . . . Oh, Khalima, she is our clever one! She knows the alphabet already. We'll take her to school on September 1st. We have prepared everything for her. . . . Khalima, show your school bag. She has the greatest pleasure in showing it."

The seven-year-old Khalima, of Kazakh nationality, rushed toward the house, returning with the new bag and a primer, black eyes sparkling.

"Shaakhmed, Bakhri, tell us, how do you manage such a large family?"

"The older help the smaller ones, and all together we help Bakhri. A commune." Again the smith smiled his kind, good natured smile. "All together we work in the garden, look after the cow, the calf."

All together they showed us their small household.

"The boys sleep here," explained Bakhri, pointing out six beds covered with white sheets. "I sleep with the girls here. Father sleeps there. And this is the study room.

The children do their home work at these two tables."

"Children, how do you get on in school?" I asked.

"We have no twos; only fives, fours, and threes," they answered in a chorus. Volodya added, looking slyly at the father: "If a two, Ada scolds—it's best not to bring a two!"

"That's so," nodded Shaakhmed, "I got no schooling. The children must study well and learn."

In the morning we found all children at work building a new kitchen. They had formed a chain and were handing the bricks to each other.

"Children," called Bakhri. They all rushed toward her at once. She spoke two words in Uzbek and all went to wash their hands.

The time had come for us to leave. The whole family came out to see us off. We found it hard to tear ourselves away. We could see that Shaakhmed wanted to say something else.

Bending his fingers, the smith began to enumerate:

"Shurik — Pioneer, Samok — Pioneer, Khabiba—Pioneer, Misha—a Komsomol, Fedya—about to join the Komsomol; this is what I wanted to say. . . . It's very good."

"Very good," echoed Bakhri.

"*Rakhat, Rakhat*," they both said, their hands pressed to their hearts. "Thanks."

"The thanks are due to you, *rakhat* to you, Shaakhmed and Bakhri! Our whole Soviet people will thank you."

Today the Soviet people will learn with great joy that the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, noting the high degree of devotion and patriotism of Shaakhmed Shamakhmudov and Bakhri Akramova, awarded them with the "Badge of Honor."

Soviet Women Are . . . Women

by KATE BADER

OUR DELEGATION, four men and four women, representing the Canadian-Soviet Friendship Society, spent three weeks in the Soviet Union last February and March as guests of VOKS, the Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries. We spent our time in Moscow, Leningrad, and Tbilisi and Sukhumi in the Caucasus.

Everywhere we went women were literally "all over the place"! We didn't go anywhere without finding that women are quite an important part of every institution and of every undertaking.

ON THE PLANE: The first Soviet woman we met was on the plane to Moscow from Prague. She went about her work with an easy confidence and a warm smile for every passenger. She was in a navy blue uniform, with white blouse. Her hat was not the semi-military type we were accustomed to see on air hostesses. It was of blue felt, decidedly

feminine and suited its wearer very well indeed.

OUR WAITRESSES: We came down at Vilna for dinner, which we thoroughly enjoyed in the public dining room. Across the room was our plane hostess having her dinner with the rest of the crew. The waitresses were all in nice green dresses with white caps and aprons; their hair well dressed, hands manicured and their feet well shod. (Later we learned that women handling food in any way are provided, free of charge, with manicure and hairdressing services at their place of employment, as a sanitary measure required by the Ministry of Health). We were served expertly and pleasantly. We always ate in public dining rooms and found that the relationship between waitresses (and waiters) and guests was always formal yet friendly in an easy natural way that expressed *mutual* respect, not marred by the embarrassment of a tip. That "institution" was dropped long ago—wages are adequate enough.

THE STREET CLEANERS: We saw many of them in Moscow and in Leningrad where winter weather gave them plenty to do. My first im-

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pression of them was that they were all so round and rosy—round with being so warmly clad and rosy from the keen winter air. They chatted and laughed as they worked steadily but at an easy pace. Modern machinery did the main job of snow removal—one morning we saw four snow ploughs in a row clearing the street. The women do the “tidying up” as it were. All Soviet citizens take great pride in the cleanliness of their cities and the street cleaners are as fussy about their job as if they were in their own kitchens.

AT THE THEATER: Sixteen nights out of twenty-one we spent at some theatrical performance, and the things women were doing there! Ballet dancers, of course. Dancers of every type, singers, actresses, musicians in orchestras, daring circus performers! All doing the things they loved best and obviously loved by the people whose applause was spontaneous, prolonged and deafening!

In the audience were women of all ages from starry-eyed school girls to elderly grandmothers. I liked moving among them during intermissions. Sure, there were no naked shoulders and plunging necklines. Nevertheless you could tell that many a girl had put on her very best dress for the occasion. Maybe I’m old-fashioned but I *liked* the way they were dressed!

The cloakroom attendants were quite often elderly women, suitably enough. The hours were short and the job not strenuous. The wages would be in addition to the pensions they’d receive.

AT THE AUTOMATIC BAKERY: Eighty per cent of the employees are women. They were dressed in

white from head to foot, the uniforms supplied free as are the hair-dressing and manicuring services. A medical center is attached to the plant; a special doctor for women visits the plant every three months, in addition to regular supervision. In accordance with the law on women’s rights, pregnant women are given light work at six months, they have seven weeks leave of absence at full salary. On return to work they get light work if necessary and are not allowed to do night work. They have time off to feed their babies. A nursery and a kindergarten are attached to the plant in the care of a fully qualified person with a doctor also in attendance and there is medical supervision every day.

“A MOTHER IS A MOTHER”: One of the men in our group asked if all these rights apply to “unmarried mothers” as well. Our Soviet friends were frankly puzzled by the question and simply pointed out that the law applies to *all* women, that a mother is a mother, isn’t she, and how could there be any distinctions?

AT THE PUPPET THEATER: This was a program of satire. It showed us convincingly that Soviet people can laugh at themselves too, and we certainly laughed with them! Especially at the would-be prima donna who thought she could sing. And at the take-off on Hollywood actresses.

AT THE UNIVERSITY: Certainly lots of women here! Fifty-one per cent of the students were girls! There are 35 women professors and every department is open to women. We chatted with two young girl students who were sharing a room. One

was a Hungarian girl, the other a Spanish girl who had come to the Soviet Union as a refugee from the Civil War in the 30's. Now she was about to graduate as a geologist.

THE HOUSEWIFE: One thing was made clear: no woman, from the ballet dancer to the street cleaner, is compelled to go out to work. Employment outside the home is quite optional. We met several housewives who don't go out to work.

The railroad engineer's wife, for example. We visited them one day in their apartment in one of the modern buildings. It contained a living room, two bedrooms, kitchen and bathroom. This couple have two small boys and the mother said she had enough to do looking after her family and home. Her home was spotlessly clean and gay with beautifully embroidered table covers. They insisted on bringing out food and drink and showed us every hospitality. We women wanted to help do the dishes afterwards but were not allowed. We tried to compromise and said O.K. so long as your husband helps you do them. Well, she intimated, sometimes he does, sometimes he doesn't! *He* told us that when his wife has visitors he clears out of the way!

"DOMESTIC SCIENCE." In one or two schools I asked whether the girls had courses in "domestic science." First I had to explain our slightly ostentatious term. Then I was told that instruction in cooking and general home making was considered the responsibility of the mother at home. However, there are trained dieticians in the Soviet Union. Also, both girls and boys get cooking lessons for special pur-

poses, such as camping and other outdoor expeditions.

At the Leningrad Cooperative Workers' Club, there are at least 2,500 women in the many housewives' circles. We saw them busy at dressmaking, pattern cutting, knitting and embroidery; but they are not confined to these "women's things," and also took part in many cultural, scientific and other circles.

ON THE "RED ARROW": This was the train that took us to Leningrad. We were served "chi" (tea) by a woman attendant whose duties seemed to be much the same as the women attendants on some English trains. During the war some women drove trains. Our retired railroad engineer delegate seemed to get an enormous satisfaction out of the fact that Soviet women no longer drive trains. That was carrying equality too far for him!

AT THE NEVSKY PLANT: Thirty per cent out of a total of 5,000 workers are women at the Nevsky Engineering Plant in Leningrad. We met some of them; in fact, the best worker in the plant is a woman who looked about 45, and has worked there for 30 years, as a welder! She gets a big salary, has her own home and she had been nominated by the workers as their candidate for deputy to the Supreme Soviet in the general elections that were taking place at the end of February. It was a big plant with several overhead cranes. I looked up and the drivers stuck their heads out and waved, smiling down at us; they were young women.

AT SCHOOL: Every once in a while we'd run into some students

who spoke English. Several young girls followed us through the Winter Palace until, encouraged by us, they got up enough courage to speak. We walked along together and they said they'd been afraid to practice their English with us! Twice we sat in on an English lesson in school, and at one of them, in Leningrad, one of the young girls went to the blackboard and wrote—to us: "We should like to be your friends."

At this same school we met with many of the teachers, one of them 70 years old who was very proud to be still teaching; she gets her full salary besides her pension.

AT THE PIONEER PALACES: These are for after-school activities and what busy places they are! We saw plenty of girls busy at many things. Most of them take up arts, but can take anything they fancy. We saw one at carpentry, another making a model of a power house, while another, 14-year-old, was busy making an instrument for visual education in Newton's Third Law.

MATERNITY: We visited a hospital of Gynecology and Obstetrics in Leningrad, which has 300 beds for mothers and 140 for newborn babies. Every mother must stay eight days; most of them stay nine or ten. We happened to see two young mothers "checking out," looking healthy and happy. We learned that every town, according to its population, has a maternity center, and also some collective farms. The chief doctor told us, "The duty of this center is to find room for every mother who comes here; if not here, then elsewhere. There is an emergency center to which she can be sent if we are full up, and this hos-

pital takes her there at no cost to her." There are no maternity fees to either doctors or hospitals. Only about a fifth of the doctors on the staff were men, the rest women. (Incidentally, the Minister of Public Health for the USSR is a woman.)

Painless childbirth has been the practice since 1936 and is used by 75 to 90 per cent of the patients. Careful arrangements are made for post-natal care.

NURSES: Most nurses live at home. They have a starting salary of 700 to 800 rubles per month, and a bonus every five years. Any girl who wants can take up nursing; she joins a nursing school at government expense. A nurse has a working day of six and a half hours; she gets free meals on duty and free uniforms.

AT HEALTH CENTERS: We looked over the Tbilisi Health Center at the sulphur baths, the head doctor of which is a woman. At a sanatorium we visited there were mostly women doctors. One of our interpreters had stayed there one summer with his wife, which meant, he said, "that he was under strict supervision all the time!"

THE M. C.'s: At a concert we attended in Tbilisi two young women shared the honors of M. C.-ing the proceedings. There were two because of the two languages, Georgian and Russian. One of the numbers was a huge chorus, the female singers very lovely in long white gowns.

AT CHURCH: In an ancient cathedral we visited in Georgia there were numerous women devoutly worshipping; an old woman was selling

tapers; sitting on the veranda of a building nearby were a group of women in nun-like garb.

THE STOCKING FACTORY: The director of this plant in Tbilisi was a charming Georgian lady who gave us much information about it, although she was an exceedingly busy woman. She told us that 91 per cent of the 3,000 workers were women. One of our male delegates remarked that it must be tough for the few men to take orders from women. "They are used to it," she replied quite seriously, "starting with the family life!" She added: "You know, women in Georgia were like slaves before the Revolution."

One of our male delegates pursued the same subject. "Taking orders in the factory from women, doesn't it influence the men at home?" he asked.

"No," replied the director, again taking the question quite seriously. Personal relations depend on each individual case, she pointed out. Her husband is an engineer at the plant, but when they get home they forget their official relationship, she said. At home, she said, she has her duties as a housewife and mother. "But," she added with a smile, "It is still man's privilege not to do so much at home!"

In the plant the girls were work-

ing leisurely; several stopped and spoke to us. At one end of the room was a woman sitting at a desk; a supervisor, I thought. Then I noticed a girl sitting beside her, and they seemed to be holding hands! Puzzled, I looked a little closer. The girl was getting a manicure—on the job!

THEY DON'T WANT WAR: One thing is certain, no Soviet woman wants war. Fifteen million Soviet lives were lost in the war. Is it any wonder that you can see some sad faces, as I did, at the theater sometimes; sad faces of women who were there, without male companions?

And it was with tears on both sides that we Canadian women embraced the Moscow railroader's wife and tried to assure her that we didn't want war either and would do all we can to prevent it. Earlier in our visit she had told us with great emotion that she didn't want her two little boys to grow up and be soldiers to go to war.

We met the sister of one of our delegates. Many other members of the family had been killed in the war. Now back to normal life, she told us. "We have everything we need; we don't want any more war; we want peace, and if you will work for it and we work for it, we can have that too."

USSR AT INTERNATIONAL FAIRS

DURING THIS YEAR the USSR has participated in seventeen international fairs and exhibitions including ones in Leipzig, Shanghai, Canton, Utrecht, Buenos Aires, Reykjavik, Poznan, Stockholm, Karachi, Zagreb, Vienna, Geneva, Delhi and Warsaw. In 1954, the USSR was represented at fairs and exhibitions in Italy, France, India, Denmark, Syria, Greece, the German Democratic Republic, Great Britain, China, Indonesia and Turkey.

America's Real Friends in Japan

by SUSAN WARREN

THE GRAND STRATEGY of postwar U.S. foreign policy has been based on the goal of a remilitarized Germany in the West and a rearmed Japan in the East. The official U.S. view of Japan is an essentially military-strategic view, which regards Japan as the anchor of that "arc of free Asia" which includes SEATO (Southeast Asia Treaty Organization), Formosa and South Korea. The stormy path of German rearmament is a twice-told tale familiar to most Americans. But the overwhelming resistance of the Japanese people to an enforced rearmament is too little known. The recent visit of Japanese Foreign Minister Shigemitsu to Washington, presented with great hoop-la to the American public as the meeting of warm allies, in actuality reflected serious strains in the current "marriage of convenience" between the two countries. With the Japanese people, however, there is the basis for an enduring union of true friendship. It is important for Americans to know who are their real friends in Japan.

The most salient political "fact of life" in Japan today is the growing strength of that section of the peo-

ple who oppose foreign troops and bases in Japan; oppose Japanese rearmament; demand a peace-oriented economy; advocate the establishment of normal diplomatic and commercial relations with the Chinese mainland and the Soviet Union and strive to recapture Japan's independence in national and world affairs. The 1955 elections at a national and prefectural level showed the renewed strength of the left-wing party bloc. Through the last four elections over the past six years the combined conservative seats in the lower house dropped from 335 to 297 while the combined left-wing membership (standing on the platform outlined above) increased from 95 to 162.

Moreover, according to a personal survey by Douglas Mendel Jr. and reported in *Far Eastern Survey* (May, 1955), "conservative voter sub groups . . . frequently expressed attitudes on rearmament, American bases and other issues" which were far from the conservative position and closer to that of the "radical voters." In other words, around these major issues there is developing a national coalition of most Japanese economic and political groupings excepting those politicians and representatives of big business who directly profit from American investment and military spending. The identity of interests of Japanese top industry and U.S. military-strategic

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planning for Japan (and Southeast Asia) is dramatically highlighted in a Tokio dispatch from Robert Trumbull in the *New York Times* of Sept. 18. He reports that the Armaments Committee of the Federation of Economic Organizations, a leading organization of Japanese financiers, business men and industrialists announced that they would approach Tokyo and Washington on an expanded arms production program. "This group," Mr. Trumbull adds, "represents the Japanese interests that would manufacture the arms for sale here and in the other countries concerned."

The present Hatoyama Government is a jittery government caught in a withering crossfire. On the one hand it tries to appease U.S. demands because it is a conservative government based on big business, monopoly elements in Japan and because its very existence rests on its parliamentary alliance with the even more extreme right, U.S. oriented, Yoshida Liberals. On the other side looms the ever growing strength of the people's coalition. Wm. Jordan in the *New York Times* of March 6 tells how Japanese officials, prodded by U.S. Assistant Secretary of Defense H. Struve Hensel to step up their rearmament program "urged the U.S. to be more patient and try to understand Japan's economic problems. . . . Mr. Hensel was also reminded that while the Conservatives won the elections . . . the largest gains were scored by the Socialists, who ran on an anti-rearmament platform."

What is behind this growing crystallization of popular national sentiment?

In an article entitled "Borderline Insolvency Grips Japan's Families,"

Dorothy Brandon writes in the *Herald Tribune* from Tokyo, ". . . In Japan under the present inflation . . . most wage earners and their dependents live on the brink of disaster." This is the lot of most wage earners! What, then, of the unemployed whom the *Financial Times* of London reported (July 5, 1954) to be officially estimated between March and May 1954, at the conservative figure of four million!

The plight of Japan's urban worker is duplicated in the countryside. A 1952 survey by farm experts (*U.S. News and World Report*, Sept. 12, 1952) indicated that Japan's farming facilities could profitably utilize about 13 million workers. Japan has some 18 million farm workers—an economic excess of 5 million. In the light of these facts U.S. military requisitioning of an estimated 250,000 acres of land for some 735 U.S. bases, in a country the size of California with a population half as large as that of the U.S., takes on new significance. These are the conditions sparking the recent protests and demonstrations by the Japanese rural population, supported by the trade unions, against American military practice on the slopes of Mount Fuji and a survey for the extension of the runways at the Tachikawa Air Base.

The solidarity of the industrial trade unionists with the farmers was not based on sympathy alone. The Japanese labor movement, particularly the General Council of Trade Unions, commonly known as Sohyo, the largest labor federation in Japan with a membership of three million, has consistently shown a keen appreciation of the unity of economic and political battles. In its Sixth National Congress held in Tokyo in

July, Sohyo called upon the Japanese working class to stand in the forefront of the struggle for peace, independence and higher living standards. A program for higher wages and opposition to U.S. military bases was adopted. The platform also urged cooperation between the left-wing and the right-wing Socialist parties against the Hatoyama Cabinet, for banning atom and hydrogen bombs and safeguarding the democratic anti-war Constitution.

Nor is it only the urban worker and rural farmer who feels the burden of Japan's sagging economy. Small business shares the depredations of the new post-war Wall Street- Zaibatsu (Japan's monopoly-militarist ruling strata) alliance. In the *New York Times* of March 27, Robert Trumbull notes that "the pre-war cartels are plainly on their way back to dominance of the domestic commercial scene. . . ." This rebirth and continued growth of monopoly with its destruction of small competitors has meant countless bankruptcies for Japanese small business. Added to this are the restrictions imposed by U.S. policy on Japanese trade with her nearest, traditional and potentially largest market—China.

In May, a group of Japanese businessmen signed a 168 million dollar trade agreement with the People's Republic of China. Signing for Japan was Mr. Shozo Murata, president of the Japanese Tariff Association and chairman of the International Trade Association, along with the representatives of *all political parties*, including conservatives and Communists.

Aware of the intense opposition to the presence of U.S. troops and bases in Japan and impatient with

her lagging rearmament, the State Department appears to be trying the "carrot and club" technique. The recent agreement in Washington with Foreign Minister Shigemitsu promises "... the progressive withdrawal of U.S. ground forces as Japan's own defense capacity increases. . . ." But the Japanese people have not shown themselves to be essentially anti-American. They are anti-rearmament of any kind and only anti-American in so far as the U.S. pursues policies in alliance with the most reactionary, militarist groupings in Japan leading to deeper misery and war for the Japanese people.

While the demand for peace is inherent and explicit in the struggles outlined above, there is in Japan a powerful peace movement. Included is every section of this twice afflicted people who in one short decade have felt the terrible scourge of "conventional war" and its atomic variety. The Japanese people actively hate war and fight against it. The signatures of over 32 million Japanese citizens on a petition against the use of atomic weapons was presented to the World Conference for the Prohibition of Atomic and Hydrogen Bombs held in Ginevra on August 6. Popular opposition has blocked Premier Hatoyama's call for a revision of the anti-rearmament clause in Japan's Constitution.

These, then, are the people of Japan moving out of their burning needs into a great coalition for a better livelihood, peace and national independence. These, too, are our real friends in Japan. For an economically healthy Japan, genuinely independent, living in peace and mutually beneficial relations with her Asian neighbors and the world is our best defense in the Pacific.

World Youth Meet in Friendship

by FRANK WHEELER

Frank Wheeler, now nineteen, is the son of Eleanor and George Wheeler, two Americans who have been living in Czechoslovakia since 1947. He attended the Kladno steel mills as an apprentice (see NWR, July, 1951) and has now learned a trade. In August he went to the World Youth and Student Festival and reports his observations in this article. Both parents have contributed articles to NWR.

FOR THE first two weeks of August, Warsaw was the site of the World Youth and Student Festival. "Peace and Friendship" was the slogan and Warsaw seemed the symbol of those two words. 30,000 foreign delegates from 114 countries met in a city that still shows signs of the last war. Delegates from all countries made friends in a city where buildings going up everywhere were proof of what peace means. But here and there a bombed-out house or a ruin reminded us of the horrors of war.

The Festival became a national event for the Polish Youth and the Polish people. The stations from the border to Warsaw were gayly decorated and lined with smiling faces—people anxious to make new friends and show them their country. Every part of Warsaw showed signs of the Festival. Flags, greetings in all languages, window displays, folk designs, everywhere a riot of gay color. Over 420,000 Polish youth took part

in the Festival, not counting the regular Polish delegates.

Factories took patronage over different delegations. The American delegation was taken care of by the big chocolate factory in Warsaw. People from the factory workers' council would drop in on them, to see that they were living comfortably and well fed, built showers in the back yard when existing facilities proved inadequate. Every factory prided itself on its care for its own delegation, delegates were invited to visit the factory and to meet the workers. And all this, of course, in addition to all the care given to the delegations by the Festival Committee—translators, guides—everything was taken care of.

Right from the opening day Warsaw was filled with a special feeling, a feeling you can get when so many young people get together to meet, make friends and share their desire for peace. The opening took place

in the new Warsaw stadium, filled to capacity. All the delegations marched carrying their flags, many in national costume.

The Soviet delegates, the last to march on, never got around the track. The American delegation followed by the rest rushed over to them and they soon were embracing each other. The people in the stands flowed down onto the field and it was hard to tell the delegations apart—it was just one mass of friendly people.

That was how it all started. And it went on for fourteen wonderful days. The delegations settled down to the Festival—though “settling down” is hardly the word for it. There were meetings of delegations, cultural performances, sport events, tours of Warsaw, art exhibitions and circuses.

Young people talked about their experiences and exchanged their viewpoints at meetings of various delegations and professions. The Dutch met the Indonesians, the French the Vietnamese, young actors from all parts of the world met, young sailors, young doctors, teachers, architects, artists discussed their ideas and talked about their working conditions, always in an atmosphere of friendship and understanding.

But at times you could feel the difference between the lives of the young people. After the British and the French actors had finished discussing the problem of unemployment, a young Soviet actress got up and with utmost sincerity said that she couldn't understand how there could be too many actors. She said that where she lived there was always the need for more.

And the Czech girls were sur-

prised when they were asked by Western delegates if they could use lipstick at home and if they had to wear uniforms in everyday life.

Viewpoints were not the only things delegates exchanged. Pins, hats, kerchiefs, addresses, gifts and blue jeans, in fact just about everything possible was exchanged. Soon it was hard to tell from which country a delegate came—Danes in blue jeans, Americans with Polish scarfs, Poles wearing turbans.

The Festival was also a very important cultural and sports event. Some of the best folk-dancers, musicians, singers from all over the world performed. Competitions took place in classical, folk and choral singing, ballet and folk dancing, piano and accordion. Not only did they come to Warsaw to compete and try to win a first prize but to exchange ideas, to learn about the culture of other nations.

The national cultural programs put on by each delegation were very popular and the halls were always packed. Audiences were thrilled by the Chinese classical opera; they were captivated by the Brazilian dancers who filled the hall with the rhythm of their drums and they all joined in with the Canadians in singing “I ain't gonna study war no more.”

The Second International Sports Meetings of Youth lasted two weeks and turned out to be the most important European sports event this year. In many ways they even matched the Helsinki Olympics; 38 nations were represented by over 3,500 competitors and were watched by more than 1,700,000 people. The only thing lacking was official representation of some of the Western countries, especially the United

States. But even so five world records were broken and seven new European records made. Australia's Shirley Strickland was one of the stars.

There were so many other things worth mentioning, so packed with events were these two weeks. Folk costume parade, Polish youth parade, art exhibitions, evenings to commemorate Walt Whitman, Schiller and Cervantes, a masquerade ball and Chinese, Soviet and Hungarian circuses. On the last Saturday, the carnival night, the whole of Warsaw was down on the banks of the Vistula, dancing, singing while fireworks lighted up the skies. But on all previous nights you could find the squares full of people, dancing.

There were so many ways young people could express their friendly feelings and desire for peace! Some-

times you had a common language, sometimes you had to get along in sign language, but you *always* got along. And everybody seemed to think that this is the way the world's problems should be solved—in peace and friendship.

One of the most significant events took place on the 6th of August. Ten years after the atom bomb was dropped on Hiroshima the Japanese and the American youth met in friendship. No A-bomb for them!

Never have the young people of the world met in such numbers, with such enthusiasm and energy, to solve their problems. Friendships were made not only for the fourteen festival days but for the years to come. "See you at the next Festival! Peace and friendship throughout the world!" are no clichés here. People mean it!

APPEAL OF SOVIET SEVENTH DAY ADVENTISTS

AN APPEAL from the Seventh Day Adventists in the USSR to world Christianity to condemn the use of nuclear weapons was published in a recent issue of the Moscow *Izvestia*.

"We Seventh Day Adventists," says the appeal, "together with the millions of people who cherish peace, with all our hearts support the World Peace Council's appeal against atomic war and for the total prohibition of atomic weapons, and protest against the whipping up of fresh war hysteria. That great discovery of science must be used only for peaceful purposes, only for the good of mankind.

"All Christianity, with its teaching of love, should be opposed to all enmity, and particularly to the use of weapons of mass destruction.

"We call on the whole of Christianity, on all peace-loving peoples throughout the world to join the ranks of the fighters for peace and condemn the use of atom and hydrogen weapons, which could bring inconceivable suffering to all mankind."

The appeal was signed by V. Yakovenko, S. Kuluzhsky, F. Melnik, P. Matsanov and A. Galadzhiev, members of the presidium of the Seventh Day Adventists.

HOW THEY CARE FOR

Women and Children in the USSR

by DR. IDA FISHER

ONE of my particular interests is the care of mothers and children, and when I visited Russia last September I made it my business to study their methods in order to form an opinion as to the value of their system.

There were many points of similarity between the Soviet Health Service and ours, but equally many differences, and I think these can be brought out most clearly if I write about what I saw in the course of my visit. Firstly the thing that is most obvious is that there is no home maternity service, no district midwives. All Soviet babies are born in hospitals except in very small isolated villages.

The Russians believe in painless childbirth. This was something I was most anxious to see as I had heard and read about it, but felt that I must see it in practice, and so from the moment I arrived in the USSR I gave my hosts no rest until I witnessed a birth. It is not easy to lay on a show specifically, especially as babies do not arrive to order. But by remaining for hours in a large maternity hospital I finally found a woman who obliged.

It was an impressive experience. In Britain we too often accept wan faces and moans as a normal

accompaniment of childbirth—we speak of the pangs of childbirth as a natural occurrence—but in the two hours I watched this woman there was no drawn face, no moans. On the contrary she laughed and talked quite normally. She was not left alone for a second and constantly there was friendly encouragement and advice.

As soon as the baby was born I said to my interpreter, "Ask her if it was painful," for I insisted on the final proof. The answer was "No, it did not hurt, although for a moment before the baby was born I felt I might give way." Even more impressive was to see the women actually in the first stage of labor lying sleeping in the ward. Three times I asked what they had been given to make them sleep and always the answer was "Nothing."

This really was something. I was determined to find out how so many women could have their babies painlessly without drugs. I spoke to many doctors about it and I listened to them talking to their patients and it was something like this.

The woman comes to the antenatal clinic, and while attending there she is assessed as to the likelihood of her having a painless labor. They claim an 80 per cent success rate.

If they have doubts about it then her medical record is marked accordingly and she will receive the usual pain-relieving drugs. If they think she will succeed she joins a small group which discusses with a doctor the mechanics and physiology of conception, pregnancy and labor in a series of classes weekly for the last five to six weeks of pregnancy.

Everything is explained, and the women will ask questions and ventilate their doubts. They will be shown the wards, the theaters, and all the things they are to become familiar with, and always they cooperate. In fact, the fundamental concept seemed to me to be one of cooperation, active and intelligent, between doctors, midwives and patients.

Many women work in the Soviet Union. In the factories there are polyclinics, or health centers as we would call them. In a factory I visited there was such a polyclinic with doctors, nurses, and all the facilities for treatment such as electrical treatment, dental treatment, X-rays and so on. This factory employed 3,000 women making stockings and the polyclinic catered to them while at work. In addition there was a nursery and a nursery school, as well as a social club. I was interested to discover that the women who were breast feeding their babies had time off every three to four hours during working hours without loss of pay for feeding.

The Russians told us that family allowances were paid for all children after the third, and that they increased with each addition to the family. Women were paid while having pregnancy leave, and were paid if they had to stay at home nursing a sick child.

Children are looked after by chil-

dren's doctors in children's polyclinics. This differs from our concept of a family doctor looking after the whole family and one could not decide which was the better system without a great deal more first-hand knowledge.

The infants attend infant welfare clinics rather like ours but once they enter the nurseries and nursery schools they have daily medical and nursing supervision. All children are immunized against tuberculosis although not against whooping cough.

They appear, like all the population, to have regular medical examinations, and indeed I was struck by the immense interest taken in health matters by everyone. One could buy the *Health Workers' Journal* on the bookstalls. It never struck me as a neurotic interest but an intelligent interest in preventive medicine.

I saw very many things that interested me enormously, and much that I would have liked to study further. I was interested in their treatment of premature infants. I would have liked to have seen more of their magnificent Pioneers' Palaces—those superlative youth clubs. I was impressed by their health resorts, and their rehabilitation schemes.

Unfortunately three and a half weeks and a short article do less than justice to my subject. But of this I am sure—the care of mother and child is a first priority in the Soviet Union and amply repays study by interested outsiders. If I had to summarize my impressions I would say that children are cherished in the Soviet Union, and for them and their mothers only the best available is good enough.

*From the British publication
Russia Today.*

International Chess Master at 16

WHEN Boris Spassky was five, he already knew the basic rules of chess. It happened this way. He was born in Leningrad in 1937. When the war came he, with other children of the city, was evacuated deep in the rear where he lived in a children's home. Watching his older friends play, he gradually learned the game. At six, still at the children's home, he learned to read and write—that was the beginning, for he began to read manuals on chess.

When the war ended, he returned to Leningrad, and at the Palace of Pioneers he really studied the game, under the guidance of specialists, and attended lectures on chess theory.

In 1946, at nine, he had become a third category player; a year later he was raised to second category; another year, to the first, and in 1950, 13-year-old Boris became a candidate for master.

At 14 he played in his first tournament with top-notch adult players. At 16, he took second place, after Taimanov, in the Leningrad championships, and he did not suffer a single defeat in the whole tournament.

In 1953, he was invited to the international tournament in Bucharest where he shared fourth and sixth places. He defeated Smyslov, who took third place. This was when the 16-year-old boy was conferred the title international chess master.

In 1954, he entered the journalism school of Leningrad University and the same year entered the 22nd USSR Championship. He lost to Geller and Smyslov, the winners, but shared the four subsequent places in the honorable company of world champion Botvinnik, grandmaster Petrosyan and master Ilivitsky. He outstripped such outstanding players as Keres, Taimanov, Kotov, Flohr and Averbach.

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