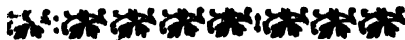


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EQUALITY OF WOMEN IN THE U.S.S.R.

**MATERIALS
OF INTERNATIONAL SEMINAR
(MOSCOW, SEPTEMBER 15-OCTOBER 1, 1956)**

With Best Compliments From
INDO-SOVIET CULTURAL SOCIETY
Syndicate Bank Bldg.
Pherozsha Mehta Rd., Fort, Bombay 1.

FOREIGN LANGUAGES PUBLISHING HOUSE
Moscow 1957

COMPILED BY
L. PETROVA AND S. GILEVSKAYA

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Peace, lasting and stable; peaceful coexistence, regardless of differences in social and political structure—these are vital questions, the deep concern of simple people the world over. An important factor working for peace is mutual understanding among the peoples, which can be greatly promoted by increasing knowledge, in all countries, of the life and culture of other countries.

Prompted by the will of the peoples for peace, the General Assembly of the United Nations in its document *Advisory Services in the Field of Human Rights* recommends the organization of international seminars which would help to acquaint world public opinion with the life of the different peoples. And the Soviet Government, consistent in its policy of furthering peace and confidence among peoples, responded to this suggestion by proposing that one such seminar, to study the question of equality of women in the U.S.S.R., be held in Moscow.

Women are active participants in all progressive social movements. During the last world war, women contributed immeasurably to the struggle against fascism, for their countries' freedom and independence; women today, united in organizations of the most varying types and trends, are coming out more and more energetically for peace, for the lessening of international tension, for equal rights, for a better future for their children.

Women in many countries welcomed the idea of an international seminar which would help to acquaint them with

Soviet experience in establishing real equality for women, both in the home and in society.

N. Spiridonova, Soviet representative on the Commission on the Status of Women, U.N. Economic and Social Council, sent out invitations to representatives of the member states of this Commission and of states having observers on the Commission, and also to representatives of several other countries, and of many non-governmental organizations, national and international.

The Seminar was attended by 98 women, representing 39 countries (including one representative of the U.S.S.R. and one from the Byelorussian S.S.R.).

There were 6 representatives from member states of the U.N. Commission on the Status of Women; 2 from states which had sent observers to the Commission's last session; 38 from ten of the Asian and African states (Japan, 1; Burma, 2; Iran, 4; Lebanon, 2; Nepal, 6; Syria, 6; Sudan, 12; Turkey, 1; Ceylon, 2; Ethiopia, 2); 3 representatives from the U.N. Secretariat, among them the head of the Women's Rights Section of the Secretariat, and the Secretary of the Commission; 2 representatives from U.N. specialized agencies—UNESCO and the World Health Organization; 21 from 16 international non-governmental organizations (the International Council of Women, the International Alliance of Women for Equal Rights and Equal Responsibilities, the Women's International League for Peace and Freedom, the Open Door International, the International Cooperative Women's Guild, the International Committee of the Red Cross, the Women's International Democratic Federation, and others); and 26 from 21 national non-governmental organizations (the All-Indian Women's Conference, the All-China Democratic Women's Federation, the Federation of Japanese Women's Organizations, the Australian Women's Charter, the Union of French Women, the Italian Mothers' Association, the British Six Point Group, the All-German Women's Council, and others).



The assembly hall of the Seminar

Among these 98 women, many are prominent figures in the social and political life of their own countries, or internationally. There were 15 chairmen, 5 vice-chairmen, and 12 secretaries of various women's organizations; 9 members of parliaments; 8 scientists; 10 lawyers; several journalists, writers, teachers and doctors.

Most of the participants in the Seminar had never before visited the U.S.S.R., and their ideas both of our country as a whole and of the status of our women were very vague, and in many cases distorted.

The programme of the Seminar, as planned by the Organization Committee, was designed to acquaint our visitors with women's status in the U.S.S.R. from every possible angle.

The first six days (September 15-20) were occupied by a series of lectures on various aspects of the status of Soviet women, describing their active participation in political, social, economic, and cultural life. Academician A. Pankratova, member of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. and Chairman of the Soviet Association for Co-operation with the United Nations, delivered a report on Soviet women's equality with men in the political sphere, and their active participation in the administration of the state; Professor K. Gorshenin, Director of the U.S.S.R. Institute of Juridical Sciences reported on civil rights; N. Popova, Deputy of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. and Secretary of the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions, spoke on economic equality; N. Muravyova, Minister of Social Security of the R.S.F.S.R., outlined the Soviet system of social security; M. Kovrigina, Minister of Health of the U.S.S.R. and Deputy of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R., described the public health system and the state protection of mothers and children; L. Dubrovina, Deputy Minister of Education of the R.S.F.S.R. and Deputy of the Supreme Soviet of the R.S.F.S.R., dealt with equality in the field of education; T. Zuyeva, Minister of Culture of the R.S.F.S.R. and member of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R., explained the role of Soviet women in the development of science, art, and culture.

The participants in the Seminar had a talk, at the Kremlin, with P. Lobanov, Chairman of the Soviet of the Union, V. Lacin, Chairman of the Soviet of Nationalities, and other Deputies of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R., many of them women, who spoke of the part Soviet women play in the country's political life and in state administration. In the course of their tour of the country they met members of the Councils of Ministers and of the Supreme Soviets of

the Ukrainian, Armenian, Georgian, and Uzbek republics. There were also visits to the Moscow and Leningrad City Soviets, and to a number of District Soviets.

During their stay in the Soviet Union the women visited 14 different plants and factories, 5 collective farms, 9 schools, 2 universities, 15 nurseries and kindergartens, and 13 medical institutions: hospitals, maternity hospitals, out-patient clinics, etc., all of their own choice. They went to theatres—in Moscow, Leningrad, Kiev, Tashkent, and Erevan; visited museums; spent several hours at the U.S.S.R. Agricultural Exhibition; looked in at People's Courts, registry offices, palaces of culture, Young Pioneer club-houses, private dwellings. In Sochi, on the Black Sea coast, they saw at first hand the organization of rest and sanatorium treatment for the working people. Several of them visited religious institutions: an Orthodox church, a Catholic church, a mosque, a synagogue, and a seminary, were received by the Catholics of the Armenian church, and made a tour of the ancient Kiev-Pechersk Monastery. Several, too, visited a prison.

There were also discussions at the Executive Committee of the United Red Cross and Red Crescent, at the Cooperative Centre, at the U.S.S.R. Ministry of Culture, the R.S.F.S.R. Ministry of Agriculture, the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions, etc.

A showing of works by women artists (painting, drawing, sculpture, architecture, the applied arts), and another of books by women writers helped those attending the Seminar to understand women's role in Soviet art. Everything possible was done to satisfy the wishes of our guests, to include in their crowded programme all that they desired to see.

They evinced a tremendous interest in our life. At every organization they visited, during every talk and discussion they had, they put question after question on the most varied topics. And every question received its answer.

On October 1 the participants in the Seminar gathered at their final session to sum up their joint observations and impressions. They spoke of their impressions, too, at meetings with women of Moscow, Leningrad, Stalingrad, and Tashkent, at their press conference in Moscow, in statements issued for the press, and in radio and TV appearances.

All these statements, most of which the reader will find in the present volume, show that the Seminar impressed its participants as an undertaking of great value and importance.

Our guests at the Seminar saw for themselves that in our country true equality for women has been not merely proclaimed, but actually accomplished; that Soviet women are active in every field of communist construction.

Though occupied chiefly with the question of the status of Soviet women, the participants in the Seminar at the same time observed the life, the thoughts, the aspirations of the Soviet people as a whole; and it became clear to them that the entire Soviet people, at one with the Soviet Government, strives always for peace, for peace throughout the world.

In their contacts with Soviet women—workers, collective farmers, physicians, lawyers—our guests could not but note their sincere desire for friendship with the women of other lands.

The results of the Moscow Seminar make themselves felt in many ways. Personal contacts formed at the Seminar between women of the most diverse countries are growing into lasting friendships. In letters to the Committee of Soviet Women and to the Soviet representative on the UNESCO Commission on the Status of Women, the participants in the Seminar once more express their heartfelt gratitude to the Soviet people for the hospitality extended to them, and describe the activities they have launched—newspaper and magazine articles, and speeches at meetings and rallies—to acquaint their fellow-countrywomen with the knowledge gained at the Seminar.



Arrival of Seminar participants in Moscow. The picture taken at the Vuukovo Airfield shows (left to right): Mary Tenisson-Woods, Sophia Grinberg-Vinaver, Alice Ehrenfeld (of the UNO staff), Laili Roesad (Indonesia), Inger Jensen (Denmark), Fuki Kushida (Japan) and Daw Saw Shwe (Burma)

"The Seminar has been both interesting and instructive," writes Vera Semmens (Great Britain), General Secretary of the International Cooperative Women's Guild, "and will lead, I hope, to similar seminars in other countries. The importance of such seminars lies not only in the information they provide, but also in the possibilities for bringing together women from different countries, with varying experiences of life, of showing how women can work together for the betterment of their position, and that of their families and to help bring lasting peace through mutual understanding and respect."

Pippa Harris (UNESCO Secretariat): "I should also like to congratulate your Programme Committee for the excellent way in which the programme was devised to give us some idea of the situation of women in many fields and in

many parts of the Soviet Union, although we had such a relatively brief stay. . . . I am hoping to keep in close touch with the many friends I made during the course of the Seminar."

Interesting letters, too, come in from Australia, New Zealand, and Japan.

Muriel Tribe, an active figure in the Australian Women's Charter: "I should like to sincerely thank your Committee for making it possible for me to visit the Soviet Union, which was indeed an inspiration. . . . We, Mrs. Barnes and myself, have been speaking at meetings since our return, and the only thing we are afraid of is that we will not be believed when we tell what we actually learned in your wonderful country."

Ellen Barker Lea (New Zealand), Honorary Secretary of the Pan Pacific Women's Association: "The brilliant papers read during the sessions together with the replies to the many questions gave us the facts while the visits to so many centres of activities showed the actual practical work in progress. . . . I am an office-bearer in several women's associations in my own country and shall be able to tell our members what I have seen and learned, and also of the friendly spirit and warm hospitality shown."

"In the last months of 1956," writes a prominent representative of the women's movement in Japan, "I delivered fifty reports on the Seminar. I spoke at branches of the Women's Democratic Club, at the Teachers' Trade Union, at the society of mothers of primary school pupils. I also spoke over the radio, and wrote an article for the newspaper *Asahi*, describing the status of Soviet women. All that I reported was well understood. I am planning soon to sum up my impressions in book form; and the photographs you have been so kind as to send me will be useful in illustrating what I have to say."

Gertrude Baer, of the Women's International League for Peace and Freedom, one of the oldest representatives of the women's movement, has prepared and sent out to many wom-

en's organizations a detailed and highly interesting report on her stay in the U.S.S.R. Of the visit to the Black Sea coast, she writes: "These couple of days at the Black Sea, with the snow-capped summits of the Caucasus in the background, gave us the opportunity to rest and watch crowds of working women and men enjoying their holidays and undergoing medical treatment in the huge, beautifully situated holiday homes, called sanatoria, in resorts such as used to be reserved for the benefit of the small stratum of those able to pay large sums for their recreation and the restoration of their health. Here were striking examples of the value of social security for everybody. We left the U.S.S.R. with memories of beauty and of great achievements in many fields."

"We were very happy to attend the Seminar," write the Chinese participants, in a letter of the greatest warmth and sincerity. "It gave us a broad knowledge of our Soviet sisters' vast attainments, and helped us to learn from them. At the same time, it brought us together with women of other countries, with whom we had formerly had very little contact. All this helped to promote friendship and mutual understanding. . . . Since our return to China we have organized talks and lectures for functionaries of the Peking and Shanghai branches of the Women's Federation, and for groups of women active in various fields and walks of life. This series of talks and lectures is still in progress. . . . Further, we publish articles on the Seminar and on the life of Soviet women, in the magazine *Chinese Woman*. As to the seven highly informative reports made at the Seminar, we have decided to put them out in book form, in a Chinese translation; and by February 1957, we hope, they will already be in the hands of great numbers of Chinese women."

Anna Hrubá and Milena Kralová write from Czechoslovakia to express their love and friendship for the women of the Soviet Union. Letters come from Yugoslavia, Denmark, Lebanon, and other countries, and from representatives of several international organizations.

All these letters receive the warmest answers, in which the women of the Soviet Union reply to the questions put them, describe their work and plans and hopes, and inquire with eager interest about the life and struggle of their friends abroad.

The Moscow Seminar demonstrated that women of different nations and of differing political convictions can find common ground, can work together to achieve the common aim of real equality for women everywhere, to consolidate peace and promote understanding among the peoples.

The women of the Soviet Union received the idea of this Seminar with unaffected pleasure. They welcomed its participants with the greatest cordiality, and willingly acquainted them with the life of women in our country—describing not only what has been achieved, but also those shortcomings and difficulties which must still be overcome; they were pleased by the visitors' expressions of praise, and grateful for their occasional friendly criticism.

In forty years of Soviet life, the women of the U.S.S.R. have achieved tremendous things. No longer oppressed and discriminated against, no longer condemned to wretched ignorance, they have become active and equal members of society, builders of communism. And the programme for further improvement in the well-being of our people adopted by the Twentieth Congress of the C.P.S.U. includes no few measures to provide ever better conditions of life and labour for the Soviet women. This programme is being steadily brought into effect; but much still remains to be done.

The women of the Soviet Union—the entire Soviet people—are absorbed in peaceful, creative labour. They want peace, and they work for peace untiringly. And they seek ever broader contacts with the women of all lands, for such contacts will contribute greatly to the consolidation of friendship among the peoples.

N. POPOVA,
*for the International Seminar on Equality
Chairman of the Organization Committee
of Women in the U.S.S.R.*

**SOVIET WOMEN HAVE EQUAL POLITICAL
RIGHTS WITH MEN
AND TAKE AN ACTIVE PART IN GOVERNMENT**

REPORT by Academician ANNA PANKRATOVA,
Member of the Presidium, Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.,
and Chairman, Soviet Association for Cooperation with
the United Nations

In 1945 the United Nations declared in the preamble to its Charter that the United Nations was determined "to reaffirm faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person, in the equal rights of men and women and of nations large and small" and laid down as one of its aims "to achieve international cooperation . . . in promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and for fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion." Thereby it summed up the progress made and opened up certain prospects for women having a great share in political and government affairs.

I consider it my duty to point out the serious efforts which have been made for the solution of this problem by the Commission on the Status of Women, Economic and Social Council of the United Nations, and the representatives of member countries and non-governmental bodies taking part in its work.

The Soviet Union has always supported and voted for proposals and recommendations made by the U.N. General Assembly for a speedy solution of the problem of granting

women political rights on an equal footing with men in all countries of the world. The Governments of the U.S.S.R. and the Byelorussian and Ukrainian republics immediately signed and ratified the International Convention on the Political Rights of Women, approved by the Seventh Session of the U.N. General Assembly in 1952.

Since the subject of this report is women's political rights in the U.S.S.R., I should like to mention that my country made a big step forward in this respect as early as 1917, when the political system now existing in the Soviet Union came into being. The radical changes in social relations which occurred in our country at that time had a decisive effect on the position of women, which had been most grievous previously.

Tsarist Russia, where both social and national oppression were at their worst, was necessarily also a country of crying inequality of women. Old Russian legislation relegated women, in both society and the family, to a status that was not only unequal but downright humiliating. Women had no political rights whatsoever. They were deprived even of the scanty electoral rights which the tsarist regime had been compelled to grant the male population after the Revolution of 1905. Women could neither take part in elections nor be elected to any agency of local self-government, to say nothing of the State Duma, which was no more than a poor semblance of a parliament. The Civil Service Code then in force in the Russian Empire explicitly prohibited the appointment of women "to clerical or other offices in any government department where posts are assigned by the decision of a superior or as a result of elections."

It is no coincidence that the foremost Russian writers and progressive thinkers advocated rights for women. *What Is To Be Done?*, a novel by Nikolai Chernyshevsky, devoted to the question of women's position in society, stirred the Russian reader; moreover, in the seventies it was published and republished in French, and also appeared in Italian and Swedish.

Human progress during the last centuries has been bound up with the problem of the emancipation of women and has been attended by the women's struggle for both general social advance and the right to participate in political and government affairs. Each liberation movement has tackled the problem of women's emancipation, but not each of them has produced positive results in this respect.

The independent women's movements for political rights were mostly narrow in scope and involved few participants.

In Russia the activity of women seeking to gain political rights was never isolated from the general democratic struggle of men and women against autocracy, a system condemned by the whole of civilized humanity. To remove that enemy of progress, Russian women revolutionaries performed heroic deeds along with men.

At the turn of the century women in some countries acquired certain political rights. The Soviet system brought the women of our country full political and all the other rights. All the inequalities in the status of women, envisaged by pre-revolutionary laws, were wiped out in our country. New legislation gave women complete equality with men.

Owing to the conditions prevailing at the time, the first Declaration of the Rights of Women, proclaimed by the French Revolution in 1792, remained a mere appeal. A new declaration was made in Russia 125 years later, under different conditions. *The Declaration of the Rights of the Toiling and Exploited People, adopted by the Third All-Russian Congress of Soviets in January 1918, was the first document of the Soviet state placing women in a politically equal position with men.*

The first Soviet Constitution, passed by the Fifth All-Russian Congress of Soviets in July 1918, legalized women's new political rights by proclaiming in Article 22 the equality of all citizens of the Soviet Republic, regardless of sex, race or nationality, and establishing in Article 64 the women's right to elect or be elected to the Soviets on an

equal footing with men, regardless of nationality, creed, etc.

By a number of further legislative acts the Soviet state granted women complete equality with men in respect of civil, matrimonial, family, and labour laws. Equality before the law initiated the actual emancipation of women. The course we took called for the most extensive participation of women in social production and in social and political affairs, their enlistment for practical work in government and public institutions and organizations at all levels.

The Soviet Government knew very well that women, whom the tsarist regime had oppressed and degraded in every way, were unprepared for taking an effective part in government. However, most of the workers and peasants, who had assumed power, were just as unprepared. Rejecting the theories which in many countries seek to justify the exclusion of women from government by alleging that women are politically undeveloped, the Soviet Government at once set out to teach women how to govern.

It was then, at the earliest stage of the existence of the Soviet system, that Lenin said that every housewife should know how to govern--an utterance which gained great popularity.

The political advancement of working women and their training for government work were considerably furthered by the system of "delegates' meetings," to which the women of this or that factory, village, etc., sent their elected representatives. Delegates' meetings were a school for government and public work. The women delegates took part in the activities of the various government bodies and their departments, helping them to improve labour protection, the health services, education, and the upbringing of children, set up nursery schools and kindergartens, supply the population with food and manufactured goods, and promote municipal development.

On April 11, 1921, the Council of People's Commissars (now the Council of Ministers) decreed that all institutions

and industrial undertakings must introduce a new method of training large numbers of women workers and peasants into the work of the Soviets.

This system made it possible to establish closer links between government authorities and the population, particularly the working women, improve the work of the administrative personnel and weed out bureaucratic elements. Women trainees were usually assigned work in those departments of the Soviets responsible for mother and child welfare, the health services, labour protection, public catering and education, all of which had a natural attraction for women.

The decree drew a tremendous number of women into the work of the local Soviets. In the second half of 1921, the Petrograd City Soviet, for example, promoted 793 women to permanent work and 4,660 to occasional work in government agencies. An appreciable number of women trainees worked in hygienic and cultural institutions. They also had a big share in the work of the newly established Department of Workers' and Peasants' Inspection (now Ministry of State Control), which held a special place in giving effect to popular control over state institutions. This Department was also called upon to help enlist large sections of the working population to take part in government, beginning with the simplest forms of investigation and control. We wanted two-thirds of those participating in all kinds of state inspection and control to be women.

As the Soviet state developed and strengthened, women played a more and more important role in government and public affairs.

By the end of the first decade of Soviet rule, the number of women deputies to the city and town Soviets was 21,221, to the volost (rural district) Soviets, 45,741 and to the village Soviets, 146,251. The radical changes brought about by the early five-year plans—the industrialization of the country and collectivization of its agriculture—drew more and more women into socially useful work and governmen-

tal activities. The cultural revolution, a concomitant of the far-reaching changes in the social and economic spheres, gave millions of women the knowledge and skill necessary for fruitful work in the leading organs of government. Thanks to the great economic and cultural changes in the Caucasian and Central Asian Soviet republics, Azerbaijanians, Uzbeks, Tajiks, Turkmens, Kazakhs and women of other nationalities, who formerly had been disfranchised and reduced to the position of pariahs, came to take an active part in the work of the democratic Soviet state.

In 1936 we adopted a new constitution, which reflected all the changes that had occurred under the Soviet system in the economic, cultural and social spheres. The 1936 Constitution marked a further democratization of the Soviet system. It introduced universal, equal and direct suffrage by secret ballot, thereby providing even greater opportunities for the Soviet women's direct participation in government at all levels.

Article 137 of the Constitution says: "Women have the right to elect and be elected on equal terms with men." Our state not only proclaimed this right but made it possible for women to exercise it. The Constitutions of the U.S.S.R. and the Union republics, as well as the Soviet electoral laws, give women a real opportunity to both elect and be elected to all organs of government in the Union republics and the Soviet Union as a whole.

Women take an active part in all phases of electoral campaigns. They participate in nominating and discussing candidates and in canvassing for the candidates, who are nominated by industrial enterprises, voluntary societies, cooperative associations and other public organizations. Along with men they inform the population on the electoral procedure, the political structure of the U.S.S.R., the rights which Soviet citizens enjoy and the forms in which those rights are exercised, and so on. A great many women are elected to district, regional, republican and all-Union electoral commissions. These commissions see to it that the

lists of the electorate are drawn up properly, that they are complete, that the electoral procedure is strictly adhered to, and so on.

The percentage of women members of commissions for elections to the local Soviets is great. The absolute figure of women participating in their work is quite impressive too. In 1939, when elections to the local Soviets were held under the new electoral system for the first time, as many as 2,154,688 members, or 34.1 per cent of the total membership of the electoral commissions, were women. In 1955 the respective figures for the same territorial, regional, city, district and village electoral commissions were 2,899,325 and 41.3, which meant a 7.2 per cent increase in the proportion of women. The women's share in the commissions for elections to the Supreme Soviets of the Union republics and the Soviet Union is nearly as great.

Let us see how women exercise their right to elect.

At the elections they show a high degree of political activity and fully use their political rights.

We have no statistics enabling us to establish the exact percentage of men and women, taken separately, in the elections. Nor is that necessary, for generally as many as 99 per cent of the total electorate go to the polls. This percentage is also indicative of the activity of women voters.

Women not only elect but are elected to all organs of state power. The women elected as deputies include industrial workers, collective farmers, teachers, physicians, engineers, agronomists, public workers and others. Those are mostly women who have proved themselves to be efficient in public affairs and, moreover, have shown by their work that they can approach the solution of current problems in terms of the state as a whole.

A large number of women have been deputies to local or Supreme Soviets since Soviet rule was established. Let us consider the numbers of women who were elected to local Soviets under the all-Union and Union-republic Constitutions. In 1939 their number was 422,362, in 1947-48, about

482,000 and in 1950, 518,000. In the local Soviets of the latest convocation there are 540,314 women deputies. The percentage of women has risen from 33.1 to 35.2 during the same period. The total number of women elected to local Soviets since 1939 exceeds 2,500,000. Even allowing for the fact that part of the women deputies were elected twice or perhaps three times, the total number of women participating in state administration is striking.

Many women who have proved their great ability in responsible public offices and shown by their work in the social field and in the industries that they are equal to the task of promoting the interests of the people are elected to the Supreme Soviets of Union republics or the U.S.S.R.

The Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. now in office includes 348 women deputies, which constitutes 25.8 per cent of its total membership. Of these 348 deputies, 170 are members of the Soviet of the Union, and 178 are members of the Soviet of Nationalities, the other Chamber of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. In the Soviet of Nationalities, which is responsible for safeguarding the special interests of each nationality of the Soviet Union, including the nationalities of the once backward Eastern republics, the percentage of women deputies is 27.9, that is, more than in the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. as a whole.

This feature is even more marked in the case of the various Soviet republics. The Tajik Republic has 25 members in the Soviet of Nationalities, of whom nine are women. Of the 300 deputies to the Tajik Supreme Soviet, 99 are women. One of the Deputy Chairmen of the Soviet of Nationalities of the U.S.S.R. Supreme Soviet is an Uzbek woman, Masuda Sultanova, assistant professor at the Central Asian State University, and one of the Deputy Chairmen of the Soviet of the Union is a Kazakh woman, Zaura Omarova, an engineer at the Mine Designing Institute in Karaganda Region.

It is noteworthy that women from those territories of the former Russian Empire, where they were oppressed and



The guests were received by Y. Nasredinova, Vice-Chairman of the Council of Ministers of the Uzbek S.S.R.

downtrodden as nowhere else, hold some of the highest elective government offices. This is a result of the social emancipation and complete social equality combined with the equality of all nationalities and equality of men and women in the political sphere.

Four of the 15 members of the Presidium of the U.S.S.R. Supreme Soviet are women. They are Varvara Balakina, Director of the Institute of Orthopaedic and Traumatological Research and a deputy from Leningrad; Vera Boyanova, Minister of Public Health of the Buryat-Mongolian Autonomous Republic, and others.

The women elected to local or supreme organs of government play a most active part in their everyday work. One form in which the Soviets carry out their daily tasks is through commissions on public health, education, municipal development, trade, finances, etc. The deputies on each commission study the matters entrusted to the commission, inspect institutions under its jurisdiction, check up on their

work, paying special heed to how the persons in authority carry out their duties. The results of the inspections are discussed at meetings of the Executive Committee of the Soviet in question and proposals for improvement are put forward. Many important decisions have been initiated by women. Great numbers of women in town and country have taken part in preparing and discussing many government measures and draft laws of prime importance.

Women deputies take part in the work of the permanent Credentials Budget, Legislative Propositions, and Foreign Affairs Commissions of both Chambers of the U.S.S.R. Supreme Soviet. One of the main speakers at this Seminar, Nina Popova, is a member of the Foreign Affairs Commission of the Soviet of the Union; Tatyana Zuyeva, another reporter here, is a member of the Legislative Propositions Commission of the Soviet of the Union. Kuluipa Konduchalova, Foreign Minister of the Kirghiz Republic and Deputy Chairman of the Council of Ministers of Kirghizia, is on the Foreign Affairs Commission of the Soviet of Nationalities.

A distinguishing feature of the deputies' work is their constant contact with their electors. They meet them at regular intervals on specific days and hours set apart for reception and interviews. The deputies hear statements, complaints, and requests from electors on a great variety of problems, and take action on them. They account for their work periodically at meetings of the electorate and lend an attentive ear to the criticisms and suggestions made. In his account a deputy deals not only with his own work but with the work of the commission of which he is a member, and also with the activity of the Soviet concerned. This enables him to know the views of the electors on specific aspects of the Soviet's work and to submit his conclusions to a meeting of the Executive Committee of the Soviet. It stands to reason that every deputy may state his views on any matter, criticize the work of the government agencies or those

heading them, submit proposals, suggest the inclusion in the agenda of questions which he thinks need attention, and so on.

Since women have equal rights with men and as there is no discrimination, the work of women deputies in the local or Supreme Soviets does not differ from that of men. They discuss all forthcoming measures to be taken by local or central government bodies, criticize or propose amendments to various draft decisions or laws, state their opinion on the foreign or home policy of the Soviet Government.

Here is an example from the work of the U.S.S.R. Supreme Soviet, which I am familiar with.

The Session of the U.S.S.R. Supreme Soviet held last July passed a new law on pensions, which was welcomed throughout the country. Among the deputies who took the floor to discuss N. A. Bulganin's report on the draft law were nine women. As usual, they touched on the whole range of matters bearing on the draft law. Some of them brought up questions affecting the interests of women and children. Zofie Bartuškenė, a deputy from Lithuania, stressed the necessity of granting guardian's allowances to children who have not reached sixteen years of age, regardless of whether they were supported by the father or mother before he or she died. This implies that if a parent had refused to pay for the maintenance of the child (unfortunately we still have such parents) the child would not suffer the parent's death as an allowance would be granted for its upkeep. Bartuškenė also called attention to the problem of pensioning those who became disabled in their early youth, before they could be employed. Marianna Chudinova, a deputy from Yakutia, where winter lasts eight to nine months, called for additional privileges for the population of the Far North. She also submitted proposals to improve the draft law, which did not provide for the allocation of pensions to students who became disabled during their school years. Jeva Paldina, a deputy from Latvia and Minister of Social Security of the Latvian Republic, sharply criticized certain

administrations which failed to create proper conditions for the work of the departments of social security.

I do not propose to deal here with the substance of the issues raised by the women deputies at the session of the Supreme Soviet; I should like to give the essence of their speeches, and to show that they brought up problems of state significance in a concrete and business-like form. As regards the decision taken on pensions, Nonna Muravyova, Minister of Social Security of the Russian Federation, deals with it in her report to this Seminar.

The session also adopted "The Appeal by the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. to the Parliaments of Other Countries Concerning Disarmament." This matter was suggested for discussion by a group of deputies, which included women.

My description of the women's work in the supreme elected bodies would be incomplete unless I mentioned the Supreme Soviets of the Union republics.

In the largest Union republic—the Russian Federation—269 out of a total of 796 members, or 34 per cent, are women. Two women are Deputy Chairmen of the R.S.F.S.R. Supreme Soviet and another two, of its Presidium.

This state of affairs is typical also of the smallest Union republics, for example the Moldavian S.S.R. The share of women in the political and public affairs of that republic and in its government can be seen from the fact that women members of the Moldavian Supreme Soviet account for 36 per cent of the total.

Nearly one-third of the deputies to the Supreme Soviets of the Baltic, Transcaucasian and Central Asian republics are women.

Apart from the women participating in political affairs and in the work of elected bodies as deputies to local or Supreme Soviets, a great many women hold various government or administrative offices, including the topmost.

In the very first Soviet Government the Minister (then called People's Commissar) of Social Security was a wom-

an—Alexandra Kollontai, a prominent public figure and stateswoman. Later on she was our Ambassador for many years in Norway, Mexico and Sweden. In the Ministry of Education there were many women in charge of departments from the outset. Among them mention should be made of Nadezhda Krupskaya, an outstanding builder of the Soviet state, a prominent theoretician and organizer of public education. Her work was not restricted to education, for she was a member of the Presidium of the U.S.S.R. Supreme Soviet.

Anna Kurskaya was entrusted with the task of eliminating illiteracy, which in the twenties was a special and highly important field of government work. Women also headed other branches of the Ministry of Education, Public Health, etc. Many stateswomen have come to the fore during the last decade. Of all the Deputy Chairmen of Councils of Ministers, Ministers and Deputy Ministers of the U.S.S.R., and the governments of the Union republics, 103 are women, including four Deputy Chairmen of Councils of Ministers, 25 Ministers (the Minister of Public Health of the U.S.S.R. among them) and 74 Deputy Ministers. I do not mention women who hold government offices in the autonomous republics. Among the rapporteurs to this Seminar, too, there are women engaged in important work: Maria Kovrigina, Minister of Public Health of the U.S.S.R., Tatyana Zuyeva, Minister of Culture of the Russian Federation, Nonna Muravyova, Minister of Social Security of the Russian Federation, and Lyudmila Dubrovina, Deputy Minister of Education of the Russian Federation.

There are women Ministers and Deputy Ministers in charge of other branches of government apart from child welfare, education, care of invalids and the aged, etc.

Many women have come to head such republican bodies as the Ministry of Finance, the Ministry of Fishing Industry, etc. Rozalia Zemlyachka, a prominent Soviet public figure, was a Deputy People's Commissar of Railways of the U.S.S.R., then a leading executive in the Ministry of State

Control of the U.S.S.R., and lastly a Deputy Chairman of the Council of Ministers of the U.S.S.R. The present Minister of Finance of Armenia is Larisa Stepanyan, and another woman, Tamara Khetagurova, heads the Ministry of Finance of the North Ossetian Autonomous Republic. In the Tajik Republic a woman--Khamira Tairova-- is in charge of the Ministry of Town and Village Construction and another woman--Munavar Kasymova--heads the Ministry of the Food Industry. In Latvia the Ministry of Justice is headed by a woman--Emilia Veinberg--and a Deputy Chairman of the Council of Ministers is Alisa Vindedze.

In the Russian Federation the number of women who work as Ministers, Deputy Ministers, heads of departments, or other executives, including the elective chairmen and secretaries of regional, city and village Executive Committees of the Soviets of Working People's Deputies, amounts to a total of 4,534.

In Byelorussia a woman holds the office of Deputy Chairman of the Council of Ministers, another two women are Ministers, and six women are Deputy Ministers.

The situation is similar in the other Soviet republics. It will be seen from the foregoing that considerable numbers of women have risen to the position of Ministers, Deputy Ministers, heads of departments of Union or republican ministries or heads of other important departments responsible in great measure for the economic and cultural advancement of the Soviet Union. They enjoy great popularity and prestige among both women and men.

I shall not dwell in this report on women's participation in the management and organization of our economy, since the women's role in the economic sphere is the subject of another report.

It is necessary to mention the place which women hold in the administration of justice.

Women are entitled as much as men to hear cases in court and take decisions on them. Like the men, they are elected by direct and equal suffrage with secret ballot to the offices

of judges or people's assessors. About half the people's judges are women. As many as 234,000 women take part in court trials as people's assessors.

Along with work in the Soviets, which are political organizations, women are doing a great deal in the numerous cooperative organizations, the Red Cross and Red Crescent societies, sports societies, etc.

The women's share in trade-union activities is attested by the fact that they constitute 42.8 per cent of the membership of factory trade-union committees, 39.3 per cent of the membership of the central committees of trade unions and 32.3 per cent of that of the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions.

* * *

The Soviet woman takes an active part in political affairs and in government. Of course, we do not imagine that we have done everything in this respect. In our country, too, there are people who are still under the sway of outdated notions regarding the role of women. We are fighting those ideas, and the women's own public activities provide sufficient evidence against all moribund remnants of prejudice.

The further development of all forms of socialist democracy, which is characteristic of life in the Soviet Union today, is certain to bring more women into participation in political life and government.

This will be largely facilitated by the measures which are being taken in the U.S.S.R. to raise standards of living. To release women as much as possible from household chores, we provide them with greater facilities and new housing, improve trade and the municipal services, and expand the network of children's institutions. Combined with the existing legal and social guarantees, these measures will make for still greater activity on the part of women throughout the Soviet Union in political and cultural life and in government.

REPLIES GIVEN BY A. PANKRATOVA TO QUESTIONS ON HER REPORT

I have received a great many written questions. Some of them will be answered in subsequent reports. Allow me, therefore, to deal mainly with such questions as bear directly on the subject of my own report.

One of the questions put is: How can women who have a family combine the upbringing of their children with outside work?

To put it in a nutshell, this task is made easier by our very way of life, by working conditions, public catering, the existence of a network of children's institutions, particularly crèches, kindergartens, and boarding-schools, and by other factors to be mentioned in later reports. But I cannot say that the problem has been solved completely. We are working to solve it as speedily and as fully as possible, so that it will be easier for women to take part in social and political activities without neglecting their families.

Here is another question: What is to be done, and what have we done so far, to refute the idea, current in our country in the past and still current in many other countries, that men hold a dominant position in the social and political spheres?

I must admit that this prejudice was rather widespread in our country before the Revolution. In fact, it may well be that certain backward people have not yet given it up. We even have proverbs born of that prejudice. One of them says

that the hen isn't a bird any more than the "petticoats" are human beings. No such proverbs are used any longer.

Another proverb claims that men are more intelligent than women: "Women are long of hair but short of wit." Nobody would try nowadays to coin any saying of the sort because the whole of our new way of life has disproved that outdated notion. Our activities, our struggle for equal rights in all spheres of life and our achievements, have fully refuted old conceptions and prejudices regarding the mental faculties of women.

Indeed, how can those prejudices persist since our women, working side by side with men, prove daily that they can work just as well as men, since they have shown that by their manifold activities, since hundreds of thousands of women engineers, teachers, physicians, architects, etc., display remarkable efficiency and initiative in every sphere of creative endeavour?

It is not only our reality and the experience of joint work by men and women that give the lie to prejudices, because the Government, for its part, combats them by its decrees and other measures enabling women to work better, to become competent specialists and reliable, conscientious and skilful workers in all spheres of government.

Women's organizations played an important part in achieving this aim. I chanced to work in one of those organizations, set up in the early years of Soviet rule. They were called "Women's Departments." We need no longer set up women's organizations everywhere to assure the promotion of women. Soviet women are educated on an equal footing with men and, like men, may hold any office. All our organizations readily promote women, provided they are up to the task to be assigned to them.

Women's Departments did a great deal in the past. They expedited and facilitated the extensive enlistment of women in social work and in production. They proved particularly helpful to women of the once backward national minorities, who had no rights at all, knew little, had no

opportunity to receive an education or learn a trade and were bound hand and foot by barbarous survivals, being brought up from childhood under the influence of reactionary customs, traditions and prejudices connected with family, everyday life, religion, and so on. These survivals of the past are being overcome step by step. The councils for work among women, which succeeded Women's Departments in our Eastern Soviet republics, played a noteworthy part in fulfilling this task.

But these agencies, too, are losing importance. The fact is, women in the Soviet East, as everywhere else in the Soviet Union, receive a compulsory seven- or ten-year education on an equal footing with men. If their families try to hinder them, the law and public opinion come to the women's aid.

How have we dealt with the reactionary customs that hampered women's participation in social and political activities?

In some areas those customs were upheld for a long time by the backward sections of the population. They still exist here and there. But the Soviet state, public opinion, the entire social, economic, political and cultural system of life in the Soviet Union help in combating reactionary traditions and outdated customs. Women have been playing a prominent part in this struggle. In Central Asia there were such customs as polygamy, the ransoming of prospective brides, etc. Soviet legislation, which Professor Gorshenin will report on next, provides for condemning and punishing those who infringe the equality of women, who try to take advantage of old prejudices and customs to the detriment of women as members of society, who hamper women's activities and free social and political development.

In other words, our legislation, public opinion, educational system, and our women themselves, who are active members of Soviet society, contribute to the elimination of prejudices resulting both from the tsarist policy of oppres-

sion and from the tribal and feudal tradition that many peoples of our country had in the past.

Every year and every month brings fresh evidence that these deplorable traditions and customs are losing ground in the struggle which our society and state have been carrying on against them.

I have been asked how Soviet women attain equality.

I have already answered this question in part. I shouldn't like you to imagine that women are passive in the struggle going on, that they are no more than objects of the struggle. Far from it! I should like to stress that the women themselves exercised their genuine equality with men, proclaimed by the Great October Socialist Revolution and guaranteed by Soviet legislation, through delegates' meetings, and continue to exercise it through participation in the work of the Soviets and trade unions, in drafting new laws, in the enforcement of these laws, in the work of all organs of state power.

Some of the delegates want me to tell them about the difficulties Soviet women meet with and the way they overcome them.

Dear friends, we certainly had great difficulties to contend with, nor have we quite overcome them up to this day.

I think you will see for yourselves as you visit our republics, acquaint yourselves with the work of our offices and factories and interview Soviet women, the kind of difficulties they have to deal with and the way they overcome them. Some of the difficulties are due both to lack of experience and to shortcomings in the functioning of the government bodies. There are also difficulties that result from material and other deficiencies in conditions of living, for our country was backward, and many efforts, sacrifices and privations were required to transform it into an industrialized socialist country with a high cultural standard. Moreover, we had to go through two trying wars—the Civil War and the war against Hitler Germany.

Our guests wish to know how women in our country reach the office of Minister, how they acquire appropriate qualifications. I have also been asked whether a Soviet woman could be appointed Chairman of the Council of Ministers.

She certainly could. There is in principle no reason why a woman could not be appointed to any post, including that of Chairman of the Council of Ministers, provided she has adequate experience and a general or special education, has held key political or economic positions and enjoys widespread popularity and prestige. There is in principle nothing to prevent a woman from holding a government office or a key public position in the Soviet Union, for the Soviet educational system provides women, as it does men, with the opportunity to learn a profession and develop their abilities to the utmost.

Lastly, I have been asked whether Soviet women can be diplomats.

I have already answered this question in the affirmative by citing appropriate facts in my report. Alexandra Kollontai was Soviet Ambassador to a number of countries over many years. There are many women employed in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and in Soviet embassies, even though they rank below ambassadors. The Moscow Institute of International Relations is attended by women as well. Only some of those graduated from it have gained experience enough to claim a diplomatic appointment. Nevertheless, there are no real obstacles or objections to women pursuing a diplomatic career.

**RECEPTION GIVEN BY THE SUPREME SOVIET
OF THE U.S.S.R. TO PARTICIPANTS
IN THE SEMINAR**

September 15, 1956

V. *Lacis* (Chairman of the Soviet of Nationalities):

Dear friends, honoured guests, delegates to the International Seminar "Equality of Women in the U.S.S.R.," representatives of thirty-seven countries, allow me to welcome you cordially on behalf of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R., my colleague P. Lobanov, Chairman of the Soviet of the Union, and all those present here, on your arrival in the Soviet Union and on our meeting here in the ancient Moscow Kremlin.

It is our heart-felt desire that the women attending the International Seminar should spend their time in the U.S.S.R. both pleasantly and usefully, that they should acquaint themselves as thoroughly as possible with the life of the Soviet people, with our reality, with the status of women in Soviet society.

There are those abroad who are prejudiced against our way of life, our activities and aspirations. It is because they know nothing about the actual state of affairs here. We must meet more often and get to know one another better, and then the haze of prejudice will clear away to be replaced by mutual trust, mutual respect and friendship.

The Soviet people want to live in peace and friendship with all nations, both big and small. That is why we hail

and whole-heartedly support those steps and efforts of nations and individual representatives of modern society that are aimed at bringing about better mutual understanding between nations and promoting world peace.

The International Seminar "Equality of Women in the U.S.S.R." is one of those steps and can make a major contribution to this lofty cause. I am deeply convinced that during your stay in the Soviet Union government and public workers and every Soviet citizen alike will accord you friendly assistance and show a sincere desire to cooperate.

Once again, from the bottom of my heart, I wish the delegates to the International Seminar complete success in their work.

And now allow me to introduce to you the Deputies to the Supreme Soviets of the U.S.S.R. and the R.S.F.S.R. present here.

Among those attending this meeting are Deputies to the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. L. Ananyeva, a spinner at the Glukhov Cotton Mill, Moscow Region; T. Antropova, member of the Budget Commission of the Soviet of the Union and principal of a secondary school; M. Gedvilas, Chairman of the Legislative Propositions Commission, Soviet of Nationalities; N. Georgiu, assistant professor of the Department of Facultative Surgery, Kishinev Medical Institute; K. Gorshenin, Director, U.S.S.R. Institute of Juridical Sciences; Z. Izmarkalikova, member of the Committee of the Parliamentary Group of the U.S.S.R. and Secretary of the Presidium, Supreme Soviet of the Kirghiz S.S.R.; I. Kairov, member of the Legislative Propositions Commission, Soviet of Nationalities, and President, Academy of Pedagogical Sciences of the R.S.F.S.R.; M. Kovrigina, Minister of Public Health of the U.S.S.R.; Z. Lebedeva, Secretary, Parliamentary Group of the U.S.S.R., and Director, Central Tuberculosis Institute of the U.S.S.R. Academy of Medical Sciences; A. Pankratova, member of the Presidium, Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.; N. Popova, member of the Foreign



At the reception in the U.S.S.R. Supreme Soviet the guests were welcomed by V. Iacis, Chairman of the Soviet of Nationalities

Affairs Commission, Soviet of the Union, and Secretary, All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions; M. Ruokolainen, member of the Legislative Propositions Commission, Soviet of Nationalities; A. Safronov, Chairman of the Budget Commission, Soviet of Nationalities, and First Deputy Chairman, Council of Ministers of the Russian Federation; M. Sultanova, Deputy Chairman, Soviet of Nationalities, and assistant professor at the Lenin Central Asian State University, Tashkent.

I should now like to introduce to you Deputies to the Supreme Soviet of the Russian Federation. They are Professor Y. Alexandrova, head of department at the Moscow Institute of Chemical Technology; L. Dubrovina, First Deputy Minister of Education of the Russian Federation; Z. Mironova, Deputy Chairman, Moscow City Soviet of Working People's Deputies; V. Shipova, principal of a Moscow

school; I. Fadeyev, Minister of Finance of the Russian Federation.

Dear friends, allow me to acquaint you very briefly with the structure and activities of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.

The U.S.S.R. is a union of 15 republics enjoying equal rights. Besides, within some of the Union republics there are autonomous republics, autonomous regions or national areas. Altogether there are 17 autonomous republics, nine autonomous regions and 10 national areas.

The Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. is the highest organ of state power in the Soviet Union. It is elected directly by the entire people on the basis of universal, equal and direct suffrage by secret ballot.

The Supreme Soviet consists of two Chambers having equal rights: the Soviet of the Union and the Soviet of Nationalities. This two-chamber system of the Supreme Soviet is based on the principle of equality of the nations in our state.

Deputies to the Soviet of the Union are elected by the citizens voting by election districts on the basis of one deputy for every 300,000 inhabitants.

Deputies to the Soviet of Nationalities are elected by the citizens voting by Union and autonomous republics, autonomous regions and national areas, on the basis of 25 deputies from each Union republic, 11 deputies from each autonomous republic, five deputies from each autonomous region and one deputy from each national area.

Any citizen of the Soviet Union who is not less than 23 years old may be elected to the Supreme Soviet regardless of whether he is settled permanently and of his property status and education. Any Soviet citizen who is not less than 18 years old may take part in the elections.

Both chambers are elected for a term of four years.

The Supreme Soviet works mainly by meeting in session. But there are numerous functions of supreme state power, such as control of administrative bodies, representation of

the state in foreign relations, the appointment and removal of high officials and so on, that must be performed continuously. These functions are carried out by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet, which is elected by the Supreme Soviet.

The Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. consists of a president, 15 vice-presidents, a secretary and 15 members. It is a permanent body coordinating and directing the work of both Supreme Soviet chambers. The permanent commissions of the two Chambers, the Committee of the Parliamentary Group of the U.S.S.R. and the Deputies to the Supreme Soviet continue their work between sessions.

The two chambers of the Supreme Soviet appoint deputies to the permanent commissions, which function throughout the term in office. Other permanent agencies besides the Credentials Committee are the Legislative Propositions Commission, whose task is the preliminary consideration and drafting of general legislation; the Budget Commission, which performs the same functions with regard to budgetary and financial legislation, and the Foreign Affairs Commission, with similar functions in the sphere of foreign policy.

The present Supreme Soviet has a total of 1,347 deputies, of whom 708 are members of the Soviet of the Union and 639, members of the Soviet of Nationalities. Among the members of the two chambers there are 348 women, which makes up 25.8 per cent of the membership. Four women are members of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet. The proportion of women in the Supreme Soviet has been growing from election to election. When the Supreme Soviet was first convoked there were 189 women in it, but at the second convocation their number was 277 and at the third, 280.

Members of 45 nationalities have been elected to the Supreme Soviet. They represent the nationalities inhabiting all the Union and autonomous republics and all the autonomous regions and national areas. The deputies represent various sections of the population—workers, collective farmers, leading Soviet and Party workers and intellectuals.

All the deputies have practical experience in various economic and cultural fields. Many of them—more than 605, to be exact—were formerly engaged in industry or agriculture as ordinary workers or farmers, and then, after receiving an education, joined the ranks of Soviet intellectuals.

I have already said that in the Supreme Soviet women, whose number is 348, account for 25.8 per cent of the membership. In the Supreme Soviets of the Union republics there are 1,700 women deputies, which amounts to 32.3 per cent of the total membership. In the Supreme Soviets of the autonomous republics the figures are 607 and 31.2, and in the local Soviets, 540,314 and 35.2, respectively.

I shall not weary you any longer by describing the structure and work of the Supreme Soviet in greater detail. Our audience would probably like to ask questions. We shall be glad to join efforts in answering them.

I now request my colleague P. Lobanov, Chairman of the Soviet of the Union, Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R., to take the chair.

Ceza Nabaraoui (Women's International Democratic Federation, Egypt): What is the procedure of nominating candidates for deputy?

P. Lobanov: According to our procedure, the right to nominate candidates for deputy has been granted to public, trade-union and youth organizations. Candidates for deputy to the Supreme Soviet are put forward at general meetings by industrial workers, collective farmers, state-farm workers. One does not necessarily have to be a member of the Communist Party to be nominated. The fact that there are 297 deputies not belonging to the Party is self-explanatory.

Monica Whately (Six Point Group, Britain): Do non-deputies have a chance to attend sessions of the Supreme Soviet to the same extent as in other countries?

P. Lobanov: Every Supreme Soviet session is generally attended also by guests—workers, peasants or intellectuals.

You will have a chance to see the hall where the Supreme Soviet sits and the seats assigned to guests. Each session is attended by 500 to 550 guests.

Hagga Kashif (Sudan): Why is it that the women present here are representatives of public organizations and not of election districts?

P. Lobanov: To answer that I must first tell you a little about the procedure of election to either chamber. Each election district elects to the Soviet of the Union one deputy for 300,000 inhabitants. Hence every deputy attending this meeting necessarily represents an election district.

The principle of election to the other chamber, the Soviet of Nationalities, is somewhat different. Each Union republic, regardless of the number of its population, elects 25 deputies to the Soviet of Nationalities.

The republics making up the U.S.S.R. are different in size. The Russian Federation, for example, has a population of 112 million, while Armenia has 1,600,000 and Estonia, 1,100,000. Nevertheless, each of them, regardless of its size, elects 25 deputies to the Soviet of Nationalities. The idea is to ensure each nationality and each republic equal weight in the Supreme Soviet in deciding the questions under discussion.

Besides the deputies elected to the Soviet of Nationalities by the Union republics, 11 deputies are elected by each autonomous region and one by each national area.

The interests of each republic, autonomous region or national area are safeguarded by the fact that the two chambers have equal rights.

Gertrude Baer (Women's International League for Peace and Freedom, Switzerland): Must one be a member of the Party to be elected to the Supreme Soviet?

P. Lobanov: I have already answered that question, but since there seems to be some doubt left, I repeat that 297 deputies to the Supreme Soviet do not belong to the Party. Party membership is not a requisite for nomination and election to the Supreme Soviet.

Baer: How old must one be to be nominated?

P. Lobanov: Twenty-three.

Seeta Parmanand (All-Indian Women's Conference): Who pays the expenses of canvassing? Is it the candidate himself or some state organization? What happens when two or three candidates have been put forward—I mean, what is the procedure of excluding the supernumerary candidates?

P. Lobanov: The election campaign expenses are paid by the Supreme Soviet. The candidates don't have to pay anything.

Now for the procedure of excluding candidates. It goes without saying that each nomination meeting puts forward several candidates. Then all the nominees are widely discussed in public organizations and at general meetings of the electors at factories and collective farms. At the district pre-electoral meetings the choice falls on the best candidate. This doesn't imply, however, that everyone has to vote for that particular man. We vote by secret ballot, and everyone is entitled to cross out the name entered and substitute any other name he chooses.

The number of those who go to the polls is evidence of the importance which the Soviet people attach to the elections. At the last elections it made up as much as 99.98 per cent of the electorate. And it is indicative of the enthusiasm of the people that those nominated for the Soviet of the Union polled 99.77 per cent and those for the Soviet of Nationalities, 99.84 per cent.

Laura Tabet (Women's Federation of Lebanon): Are there any leaders who don't belong to any party? Are there any such members of Government?

P. Lobanov: There are such leaders. Take the fact that Academician T. Lysenko, who is not a Party member, was Deputy Chairman of one of the two chambers of the previous Supreme Soviet.

Eugenie Cotton (Women's International Democratic Federation, France): Women, of whom there are 348, make up 25.8 per cent of the total of 1,347 deputies. I should like

to know the percentages of women in the Soviet of the Union and the Soviet of Nationalities. Does the electoral system provide any preponderance to women in one or the other chamber? Or is the percentage made equal?

P. Lobanov: In the Soviet of the Union, 170 out of a total of 708 deputies are women and in the Soviet of Nationalities, where the number of deputies totals 639, there are 178 women. The respective percentages of women are 24 and 27.9.

Judging by the tendency shown in recent years, we may expect at the next elections a greater proportion of women in both chambers.

Suad El Fatih (Society of the Red Crescent, Sudan): Is it true that no more than one political party is allowed in the Soviet Union? How can that be since the inhabitants have different views?

P. Lobanov: Parties are not formed by decree. They reflect the point of view, the ideology, of a specific class. Since we have no antagonistic classes and no exploitation of man by man, there is no basis for the emergence of other parties.

If this isn't clear, I could enlarge on the point. When there were different classes in our country, that is, the working class, capitalists in the town and kulaks in the countryside, we, too, had several different parties. Each of them reflected the interests of its own class. Now that there are no antagonistic classes in the U.S.S.R., there are no conditions, either, for the existence of another party or several other parties. Our people don't find it necessary to have several parties. This doesn't, however, imply that there is no criticism, that one may not criticize anything in our parliament, in the Government or in public organizations.

When considering various problems at a Supreme Soviet session, deputies severely criticize not only rank-and-file workers or workers from outside Moscow, but also leading workers, including Ministers. At a session, every deputy may take the floor to criticize the work of any government agency—a Ministry, the Council of Ministers, the Supreme Soviet, etc.—or that of a Minister.

Criticism and self-criticism help us to bring out on time shortcomings in the work of economic agencies and other bodies and to eliminate those shortcomings. The progress achieved in economy, culture, art and science suggests that we have not been getting along badly. We are making continuous progress.

Our fundamental economic task is to bring about in the next few years a per capita output that will not be less than that in the foremost capitalist countries. We believe that the Soviet people would have attained this goal long ago but for the great damage which the Second World War caused to our economy.

We are certain that this task will be fulfilled, for we have invariably carried out our five-year plans.

V. Lacin: Allow me to add a few points to what my colleague P. Lobanov has said. Among the members of our Parliament, the Supreme Soviet, there are people representing all sections of the population—workers, collective farmers and intellectuals. They safeguard the interests of all sections of the population, hence there simply is no need for different parties.

Suad El Fatih: But how have you achieved such progress, since you have only one party?

P. Lobanov: Our party is the vanguard of the working people; it fully reflects the interests of the people, and its activities are designed solely to serve the people. The fulfilment of this task is made easier by public organizations, the trade-union and youth organizations, as well as by the efforts of the entire people.

Our main tasks are to achieve a powerful advance in all branches of the national economy by developing primarily heavy industry, continuously improving technology and raising labour productivity, greatly to increase agricultural production and on this basis substantially to raise the material and cultural standards of the Soviet people. All sections of the population—workers, collective farmers and intellectuals—contribute enthusiastically to the fulfilment of this

task. That is why we achieve important progress in all fields of the national economy, in culture, art and science.

The Soviet Constitution guarantees active participation by the largest possible sections of the people in government, in the management of all branches of the national economy.

Important draft laws are widely discussed by the people before being submitted to Parliament. When Parliament—the Supreme Soviet—has accumulated a large number of comments and suggestions on the draft law, the appropriate permanent commissions, which V. Lacin mentioned here, thoroughly examine and submit them to Parliament.

Dora Russell (Permanent International Committee of Mothers): I should like to know the procedure of drafting laws in the Soviet Union. In the bourgeois countries legislation is part of party programmes. The party programmes reflect the country's legislation. How do you draft laws, how do you approve them, what do you begin with?

P. Lobanov: We have here M. Gedvilas, a representative of a permanent commission of the Soviet of Nationalities. Allow me to give him the floor.

M. Gedvilas: I shall answer the question by giving an example of drafting and discussing the latest of the laws passed by the Supreme Soviet, namely, the law on state pensions.

How was that law drafted, discussed and approved?

The Soviet Government had set up a commission to draft the law. Then the draft was published in the press for country-wide discussion. As a result the Government and the Supreme Soviet, public organizations and the Legislative Propositions Commissions of both chambers of the Supreme Soviet received from the citizens thousands upon thousands of amendments and other suggestions.

All the letters were recorded and summed up in the Legislative Propositions Commissions. There were in all about 15,000 of them, and a large number of them had been written collectively. The Legislative Propositions Commissions

of the two chambers considered all the letters and gave their support to a number of amendments.

When the Supreme Soviet convened, the Government report was followed by reports from the chairmen of the two Legislative Propositions Commissions, who on behalf of the two Commissions suggested numerous amendments to the draft law.

At the sittings of the two chambers, deputies discussed the draft law and amendments to it submitted by the Legislative Propositions Commissions. Besides, the deputies suggested amendments of their own. The Government accepted the amendments, which were then approved by the Supreme Soviet.

The draft law on pensions was therefore an improvement on the original draft submitted before the nation-wide discussion.

P. Lobanov: I wish to answer a question that has been submitted in writing: How is the necessity of drafting and submitting a law established? How do the needs of the population become known?

The deputies to the Supreme Soviet live among the people. There are deputies who work in factories, on collective farms, in various government offices. Besides, every citizen may submit suggestions or requests to any agency, including the Council of Ministers and the Supreme Soviet. Public organizations, trade unions and youth organizations know about the needs of the working people. The Press, too, serves to bring up many questions bearing on the needs of the population.

You see that we have many channels through which we can find out the requirements of the population.

As to the second part of the question—concerning the drafting and discussion of laws—I think M. Gedvilas has elucidated that.

N. Popova: Deputies P. Lobanov, Chairman of the Soviet of the Union, and V. Lasis, Chairman of the Soviet of Nationalities, have already said that public organizations

play an important role in our life. The deputies take an effective part in their activities and are therefore in a position, when the Supreme Soviet is discussing a draft law, to express the interests they represent, such as those of the working class, represented by trade-union workers, or those of the youth, represented by youth leaders.

It should be remembered that every deputy represents an election district, his electorate, because he is closely bound up with them.

Here is an example. When the draft law on pensions was under discussion at the session of the Supreme Soviet, deputies submitted proposals reflecting the interests of their electors. On a proposal by Supreme Soviet deputies, the Government accepted an amendment under which mothers of five children shall be paid a pension, not from the age of 55 on, but from 50, and the total length of their service shall be 15 years, not 20.

Deputies expressing the sentiments and interests of their electorates submitted certain other proposals, which the Supreme Soviet likewise approved. The Government appropriated an additional 600 million rubles for pensions.

P. Lobanov: Here is another question: What is the procedure of discussing the budget? Have there been instances of changes being made in the draft submitted to the Supreme Soviet?

Allow me to give the floor to A. Safronov, Chairman of the Budget Commission of the Soviet of the Union, Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R., who will answer the question.

A. Safronov: The State Budget is considered by the Budget Commissions before the Government submits it to the Supreme Soviet. You have already been told that either chamber has a Budget Commission of its own. The commission is made up of 26 deputies. Before the budget is considered by the Supreme Soviet, the commission studies it thoroughly with help from various Ministries and departments. This generally takes from six to eight weeks. The

commissions consider budget appropriations proposed for each Ministry and each Union republic.

Are any amendments made to the articles on expenditure or revenue, and what are these amendments like?

Yes, there are such changes. As a result of careful consideration of the revenues and expenditures, the various appropriations proposed by the Government are increased or cut down.

Under the 1956 budget, the revenues were increased by 800 million rubles and the expenditures, by 300 million rubles in accordance with proposals put forward by the two Budget Commissions. I have rounded the two figures. As a matter of fact, the entire increase of expenditures concerns appropriations for social and cultural measures.

Those present here may be interested to know, though they have asked no such question, that our State Budget for 1956 totals 593 million rubles.

Three-quarters of the expenditures fall to the national economy and social and cultural needs. Our audience would probably like to know how much is spent on defence. Defence spending has been dropping from year to year. In 1956 it will be 18 per cent of the budget.

Violette Marie Pesson (International Abolitionist Federation, France): Is participation in the vote, in the elections, obligatory? If so, are there any restrictions?

P. Lobanov: There is no law requiring participation in the elections. That is for each citizen to decide. The previous election to the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. drew 99.98 per cent of the electorate. This is an indication of the active part the people take in electing the highest state bodies.

Dowlatshahi Mehrangis ("New Path" Society, Iran): We see that, compared with other countries, people in the Soviet Union are very active in public affairs. Why is that? What makes the Soviet people take part in the elections on so large a scale?

Z. Lebedeva: We think the reason is first of all that our people are closely bound up with life throughout the coun-

try and that our supreme bodies, too, are closely bound up with the people.

It has already been said here that after election our deputies go on working in their respective localities. This enables them to maintain close contact with the community which nominated them, to see to their needs and take a sympathetic attitude to their interests. Besides, every deputy receives his electors in his district twice a month. The deputies analyze the requirements and requests of their electors and then submit their considerations to the appropriate bodies.

Hence it is only natural that the people should clearly see the work, the useful activity of those they have elected. And if a deputy happens to be passive, the people see that as well. Our press, which carries detailed reports on the activities of deputies or describes the services of the candidates put forward by the people, plays a prominent part in drawing the population into public life.

P. Lobanov: I might as well add that, after hearing an account by their deputy, the electors may recall him before the expiration of his term and replace him by another man.

Jeanne Foucart (Belgian Association of Women Lawyers): Is it possible for an individual to nominate himself? If he is not supported by any community or the general meeting of a factory or of a youth organization, will he have a chance to avail himself of the press, and will the press back him?

P. Lobanov: Every Soviet citizen may, during the election campaign, use the press to suggest candidates. He may criticize the candidate put forward, or nominate a candidate of his own choice, provided, however, he does not nominate himself. To be sure, when casting the secret ballot he may vote for himself, but that will hardly bring him a majority. (Laughter.)

Seeta Parmanand: Allow me, on behalf of all women delegates present here, to thank Chairman Lacis and everybody else who has addressed us for the detailed answers they have given to our questions. There were many aspects

of Soviet life that we were unfamiliar with and this interview was therefore very interesting.

This meeting in a magnificent palace will be an agreeable memory. We shall convey to our peoples the answers we have received in reply to many complex questions. (*Applause.*)

P. Lobanov: Allow me, on behalf of the deputies to the Supreme Soviet here present and of my colleague, Deputy V. Lacin, and on my own behalf, to thank you most cordially for the attention you have accorded us.

Many of the questions that you may still have will be cleared up as you tour our country, the various republics and areas, as you visit our factories and offices. We are confident of that.

I should like to emphasize in conclusion that your visit to the Soviet Union is especially gratifying to us now that people in all countries are exerting great efforts to promote international cooperation and ease international tensions.

Women, who constitute one-half of mankind, have always played an important part in the development of society, and in culture and progress in general. The role of women is particularly valuable in the defence of peace and in the upbringing of the young generation.

Women have constituted a great force at all stages of the struggle for peace, and have always shown courage and valour. We know of the unexcelled feats of women in war and in peaceful work, of women who spare no effort to improve the well-being of their people and country, to strengthen universal peace.

I should like to express confidence that your visit to our country will serve to improve and strengthen friendly relations and to make fuller use of the opportunities provided by economic and cultural contacts between our countries, will further universal prosperity and progress and promote peace throughout the world.

After these closing remarks the delegates were invited to see the Kremlin.

SOVIET WOMEN ENJOY EQUAL CIVIL RIGHTS WITH MEN

REPORT by Professor K. GORSHENIN,
Deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.

The subject of my address is the civil rights of women in the U.S.S.R. In order to obtain a clear idea of the equality of Soviet women, it is necessary to dwell, though in brief, on the legal family status of women in tsarist Russia.

The law and the entire tsarist system cynically sanctioned the oppression of the working woman, who was deprived of all rights and had to bear all kinds of humiliation.

Women, especially from the working strata of the population, were denied any participation in the social and political life of the country; their position in the family was that of subordinates, a fact which found striking reflection in old proverbs and folk sayings.

In accordance with the Code of Laws of the Russian Empire (Volume X, Part I, Articles 107 and 109) the husband was considered the head of the family, and the wife was obliged to obey him implicitly.

The law endowed the husband with unlimited power over his wife. If, for example, he changed domicile, the wife was forced to follow him unreservedly. She had no right to take on a job or to enter an educational institution without the husband's permission. She had to take her husband's family name, and nobody even asked whether she consented to it. Although in 1914 the law admitted some exceptions to these

rules in cases of cruel treatment, outrage, etc., these exceptions did not bring any radical changes in the position of women, and only confirmed the general rules.

It should be recalled that the numerous nationalities which inhabited the former Russian Empire were under double oppression. Women in the former outlying regions of the country were exploited with the extreme cruelty which was characteristic of the entire landlord-bourgeois system of tsarist Russia; in those regions the tsarist autocracy and the ruling group of feudal lords and *bais* turned the women into slaves.

The officially sanctioned customs of buying brides (*ka-lym*), abducting women for matrimonial purposes, forcing women into marriage, contracting marriages with persons who had not yet reached the age of puberty, as well as polygamy and bigamy--such were the conditions in which the women were placed under the tribal system.

The hard and gloomy life of women before the October Revolution of 1917 was vividly depicted in the works of the great Russian writers Nekrasov, Ostrovsky, Gorky and many others.

Deprived of the right to participate in the political life of the country, extremely limited in her choice of work, hopelessly bogged down in housekeeping, usually crushed by poverty, and having no rights even within her own family, the working woman had to drag out a miserable existence.

Only after the October Socialist Revolution, which put an end to this outrageous oppression, were the Soviet women accorded full civil rights and equality with men in all spheres of life.

Any survivals of the feudal-bai treatment of women are considered in the Soviet Union as grave crimes punishable by law.

Already in December 1917 decrees on marriage and divorce were signed by V. I. Lenin. These decrees abolished all the rules which led to the enslavement of women in the family and which placed them in an unequal position. It



In the rostrum Professor K. Gorshenin; right—N. Popova,
Chairman of the Seminar Organization Committee

was established that henceforth only civil marriage would be acknowledged in the Russian Republic. This measure was connected with the separation of the church from the state proclaimed by the Soviet power and was aimed at protecting the free woman from any possible restrictions of her rights by canon law.

Whereas previously, dissolution of marriage was practically impossible, after the Revolution divorce could be effected by the judgement of a court of law upon filing an application by both or one of the parties. It should be borne in mind that in the first years of Soviet power a woman who was previously forced into marriage and enslaved in the family had the right, according to the law, to decide the question of divorce herself, as a citizen and member of the family in full standing.

The first code of laws on the civil register, marriage, the family and guardianship was published in 1918. This code embodied the principle of full equality of rights between men and women. In particular, it established that persons entering into marriage have the right to decide whether they will take the husband's family name, or the wife's, or a combined family name. It also provided that a change of domicile by one of the spouses involves no obligation of the other to follow.

One of the most important principles proclaimed was that marriage does not create community of property acquired before entering into marriage. This principle reinforced the equality of man and woman economically and juridically and safeguarded the property interests of the married woman. Any agreements of the married couple aimed at curtailing the property rights of one of the parties were declared invalid. According to the code, a husband or a wife unable to work or in need has the right to support from the marriage-partner; this right is preserved even upon dissolution of the marriage due to divorce.

Parental rights are exercised by father and mother jointly and all measures in respect of the children are taken by the parents by mutual consent; in case of disagreement the question in dispute is settled through court procedure with the participation of the parents.

In February 1920, Lenin wrote in his appeal to working women that the Soviet power was the first and the only one in the world to have abolished all the old laws, placing woman in an unequal position with man and granting man privileges, as for example in the sphere of marriage laws or in his authority over the children. Lenin further stated that the Soviet power, the first and only power of the working people in the world, abolished all the privileges in the sphere of property relations which had been preserved for the husband by family laws in all other countries, even in democratic republics.

Lenin realized that a legislative proclamation of equality of rights between men and women meant only the preparation of a building site, but not the building itself.

In the course of development of our state, the Soviet Government has created all conditions which are necessary to make equality of women, civil rights included, an actual fact.

Let us examine more closely the problems of marriage and family relationships in the U.S.S.R. and consider concretely the family and civil rights accorded to Soviet women by law.

In the sphere of marriage and family relationships the acting Soviet laws consistently proceed from the principles of full equality between man and woman and from the necessity to safeguard the interests of mother and child in every way possible.

The laws of all Union republics provide for a minimum marriage age. For example, the laws of the Russian Federation demand that persons about to contract a marriage should have reached the age of 18.

In some republics, owing to their specific historical and national features and to peculiar conditions of physical development, the age at which a person can marry is lowered by one or two years.

Soviet laws provide for free mutual consent of the parties entering into marriage: they prohibit, as a survival of the tribal system, any compulsion of women to marriage or to further cohabitation, which is considered a criminal offence. This is ensured not only by the requirements of the law. The entire social system of Soviet society, which provides complete independence of women and accords them the right to work and education, has created real guarantees for freedom of choice in marriage. This fundamental fact must be stressed with particular force since sometimes it is disregarded—voluntarily or not—by some foreign authors who publish slanderous articles about the position of Soviet women and about marriage and family relationships in the U.S.S.R. In the Soviet Union there is no race or national discrimination

in the sphere of marriage as well. According to the Soviet laws, all citizens of legal age, irrespective of their nationality and colour, have the right to contract marriage by mutual consent.

It should be also pointed out that the law prohibiting marriages between Soviet citizens and foreigners, which was in force during the war and some time after it, has been repealed and now Soviet citizens of both sexes have the right to marry citizens of other countries. Moreover, if a woman who is a Soviet citizen, marries a foreigner, she does not lose her citizenship.

The Soviet laws on divorce are likewise based on the principles of full equality between man and woman. Soon after the October Revolution—in December 1917—the Soviet Government, as already stated above, proclaimed freedom of divorce (although divorce could be obtained only by the judgement of a court of law). At that time the principal and immediate task was to emancipate women from their state of slavery in the family. This, however, in no way meant indiscriminate encouragement of divorce.

Subsequently, when all conditions were created for a stable Soviet family based on equality between husband and wife, it became necessary for the sake of consolidating the family, and mainly in the interests of women and children, to introduce certain changes into divorce procedure so as to prevent a loose attitude to the dissolution of marriage.

At present the Decree of July 8, 1944, passed by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. is in force; it establishes a certain procedure aimed at checking wanton divorce.

According to it, divorce must be effected by the judgement of a court of law; the latter grants divorce only when its preliminary attempts to reconcile the parties have failed and when it arrives at the conclusion that there are serious grounds for dissolving the marriage, that the continuation of the married state would interfere with the creation of normal conditions for living together and bringing up children.

Naturally, in some cases—when one of the parties is insane, or cannot be located, or has been condemned to a long term of imprisonment—the divorce procedure is simplified and does not require any preliminary conciliatory hearing in the People's Court.

What, then, are the rights of husband and wife in the U.S.S.R.?

According to Soviet law, both husband and wife are perfectly free in their choice of profession or occupation. The mode of conducting the common household is established by mutual consent of the parties. Change of domicile by one party involves no obligation for the other to follow. The property of the parties before marriage is the separate property of each. Property acquired by husband and wife in the married state is common property, even if the wife is engaged exclusively in housekeeping and bringing up children.

Soviet laws provide for the right of husbands and wives to conclude between themselves all legal property contracts. At the same time the law establishes that any agreements between husbands and wives infringing upon the property rights of one of the parties are invalid and are not binding either on them or on any third party; parties to such an agreement can repudiate it at any moment.

A husband or wife unable to work or in need has the right to support from the marriage partner, if the latter is able to do so.

Husband and wife are placed in an equal position before the law also in respect of their relationships with the children. According to the law, for example, if the parents have a common family name, the children, too, must bear this name. But if the parents have different family names, they can agree as to the family name of the children.

The law states that parental rights are exercised exclusively in the interests of children and that all measures in respect of the children are taken jointly by the parents. In cases of disagreement, all disputes between parents are set-

tled by wardship and trusteeship authorities together with the parents.

The law lays equal responsibility on both parents for the maintenance of their children under age, as well as of grown-up children who are in need of aid and unable to work.

This spirit of full equality between the parents is reflected in all other regulations of Soviet law governing the relationships between parents and children.

When comparing Soviet legislation with the laws of some other countries, it is impossible not to see that in this sphere, too, it is the most progressive legislation.

In many countries family law proceeds from the fact that the husband is the "head of the family." Therefore, it is the husband alone who is accorded the right to own and control all the property acquired by him and his wife jointly after their marriage; the incomes of the wife and all her earnings are also liable to the control of the husband. The wife has no right to enter into transactions without her husband's consent. The domicile of the wife is determined by that of her husband; the wife may choose different domicile only with the view to carry on a divorce suit if it is caused by the behaviour of the husband.

In a number of countries it is the father and not the mother who is in charge of the children and who has the right to dispose of their earnings.

The laws of some countries deprive women of the right to conclude any contracts, to obtain a certain share of property in case of divorce, to dispose of the common property of the family, as well as of their own earnings.

As shown by the historical example of the Soviet Union and of the People's Democracies, full and genuine equality between man and woman is possible only in those countries where the people themselves have become masters of their own destiny.

In conformity with the Constitution of the U.S.S.R., the family and marriage laws have abolished all restrictions of

the rights of women on account of their race, nationality, religion and property status.

To respect the rules of socialist intercourse established in the Soviet country (including those which concern family relationships) is the duty of every citizen of the U.S.S.R. (Constitution of the U.S.S.R., Article 130).

Of great importance for the consolidation of the family and for the upbringing of children are special family and marriage laws based on the principles which are embodied in the Constitution of the U.S.S.R.

Codes of Laws Governing Marriage, the Family and Guardianship constitute the most important acts which regulate marriage and family relationships in the Soviet Union; such codes exist in all Union republics. Each sovereign Union republic decides independently, by legislation, marriage and family questions, and adopts Codes of Laws Governing Marriage, the Family and Guardianship, i.e., laws affecting the vital interests of the citizens, including women.

According to the Constitution of the U.S.S.R. only the principles of legislation concerning marriage and the family come within the jurisdiction of the U.S.S.R.

This follows from the national policy of the Soviet state and creates all conditions for the fuller possible realization of the rights accorded to Soviet women. When regulating legal relationships between citizens, including marriage and family relationships, the legislation of the Union republics takes thorough account of local national conditions.

The Soviet state, the entire socialist system and our ideology contribute to the consolidation of the family and protect the interests of mother and child.

Facts of a wanton, irresponsible attitude to marriage and family life, and dissipation, are contrary to the principles of socialist morality and are condemned by Soviet society as incompatible with the healthy mode of life of Soviet people.

The Soviet state issued a number of special all-Union legislative acts aimed at rendering all possible assistance to

the family, to mothers, and at preventing an irresponsible attitude to the dissolution of marriage.

Such are, for example, the Decision of the U.S.S.R. Central Executive Committee and of the U.S.S.R. Council of People's Commissars of June 27, 1936, and the Decree of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. of July 8, 1944.

The laws of the U.S.S.R. and of the Union republics establish the conditions and procedure of contracting marriage; the rights and duties of husband and wife, of parents, children and other relatives; the procedure of divorce; the rules of adoption, of establishing guardianship and trusteeship; the procedure of granting state aid to mothers and the rates of this aid; the responsibility of parents for failure to perform their parental duties and for abusing their parental rights. Strict observance of these laws is the duty of all citizens, institutions and organizations of the U.S.S.R.

As already mentioned above, the laws of the U.S.S.R. and of the Union republics concerning marriage and family relationships play an outstanding part in the consolidation of the family, as well as in the struggle against the survivals of the past in the minds of people.

But of no less importance in the consolidation of the family and in the upbringing of the young generation are the moral principles of Soviet society, the standards of behaviour of the citizens in personal and social life.

Socialist morality teaches Soviet people to observe the laws and to respect the rules of socialist intercourse, first of all consciously, of their own accord.

Manifestations of a new mode of life have become a matter of course for the overwhelming majority of the members of socialist society; they include mutual respect and comradesly cooperation between husband and wife, love and truly motherly solicitude of the whole of society for children, high esteem and respect for mothers, strict condemnation of vulgarity, loose morals and unscrupulous behaviour in personal life.



The young bride had scarcely expected to be congratulated in so many languages. The photograph was taken at the Registrar's Office of Sovietsky District, Moscow

Naturally, the formation of a new mode of life is not an easy process and does not take place as if by magic; it is connected with a stubborn struggle against old bad habits, against pernicious survivals in the minds of people.

The ever-increasing role of Soviet women in social life is the best guarantee of the stability of the family. Without

realizing this, one cannot properly appraise the truly new character of relationships between husband and wife existing in Soviet society. These relationships are based on a conscious attitude to the performance of public duties, on mutual fidelity and on a high degree of responsibility for the upbringing of children. Only such relationships can ensure a harmonious family life. This was convincingly expressed by N. Krupskaya, who was well known for her outstanding public activity. Love alone, she said, is not sufficient to live together; there must also be unity of views. This presupposes a steady ideological and cultural growth of the spouses, comradely and friendly relations between them.

In Soviet society there is no irreconcilable contradiction between the individual and the community, since socialism does not deny individual interests, but brings them in accord with the interests of the community.

* * *

For the purpose of consolidating the family, as already stated above, the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. issued on July 8, 1944, the Decree on Increasing State Assistance to Expectant Mothers, Mothers of Large Families and Unmarried Mothers, Extending Mother and Child Care Services, Instituting the Honorary Title of "Mother Heroine," the "Motherhood Glory" Order and "Maternity Medal." This act holds that *only a marriage duly registered in the Registrar's Office involves the rights and duties of husband and wife.*

The fact that only registered civil marriage is recognized by the state is of great importance for the consolidation of the family, for the education of the citizens in the spirit of conscious and responsible attitude to marriage.

The registration of marriage is no mere formality, and still less a simplification of marriage relationships, as some foreign critics attempt to characterize this act.

While the parties about to contract marriage do this of their own free will, the registration of the marriage, which sanctions this voluntary union of equal citizens, is necessary to safeguard the personal and property interests of the spouses and of their children; it is likewise in the interests of the state and society.

When proclaiming registered marriage the only legal form of marriage, the Soviet state did not overlook, of course, the existence of a certain number of so-called marriages *de facto*, i.e., unregistered marriages. This is why the law granted all citizens who were married *de facto* the right to legalize their relations, i.e., to register their marriage in the Registrar's Office, stating the period of their cohabitation.

As a result, many marriages *de facto* thus assumed juridical force; this, undoubtedly, contributed to the consolidation of the family and to the safeguarding of the interests of the children.

The right to apply to the Registrar's Office for legalizing the so-called marriages *de facto*, which had been entered into before the promulgation of the Decree of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of July 8, 1944, was in no way restricted.

The fact that registered marriage was proclaimed the only marital form which involves definite rights and duties of husband and wife is regarded by some persons abroad as inconsistency on the part of the Soviet state; these persons allege that during the entire preceding period of its existence the Soviet state used to encourage a wanton attitude to marriage and to family life.

There is no need to enter into polemics with people who do not want to see Soviet reality as it is. The policy of the Soviet state during the entire period of Soviet power has been to ensure by law the political and economic equality of man and woman, actively to contribute to the consolidation of the family and to the establishment of sound relations between husband and wife. We have always fought

against debasement of woman, against any "theories of free love" alien to socialist morality, and for the creation of a healthy socialist mode of life.

It is well known that Lenin mercilessly criticized all "theories of free love," all incorrect views on the problems of marriage and the family. And it is precisely Leninist views on these problems which underlie the policy of the Soviet state and permeate all its measures.

Naturally, not all problems could be solved at once. A certain period of time was required, necessary conditions had to be created and a definite level of consciousness of the Soviet people was to be attained before it proved possible to stipulate by law that registered marriage is the only form of marriage which imposes the rights and duties of husband and wife.

At the same time the Soviet state takes thorough care of children borne by unmarried women; being alien to any hypocrisy, it does not disregard real life: it renders material assistance to single mothers and gives them the opportunity to place their children in children's institutions fully maintained by the state.

As mentioned earlier, the judicial procedure of effecting divorce, established by the Decree of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet, is of great importance in the struggle against a thoughtless approach by individual citizens to the dissolution of marriage.

The Soviet Court, consisting of people's judges and people's assessors who are empowered by the people and are elected on the basis of universal, direct and equal suffrage by secret ballot, tries divorce suits in full conformity with the law, thoroughly considering the concrete circumstances of each case. The people's assessors bring with them to the Soviet Court their knowledge of life, their ability profoundly to comprehend intricate human relations.

It sometimes happens that one or both of the parties to a marriage wish to have the marriage dissolved. Sometimes this conclusion may be caused by the irresponsible attitude

of one of the parties to the performance of the family duties. This is why the law entrusts the court with the consideration of divorce cases.

Applications for the dissolution of marriage are submitted to the People's Court at the place of residence of the applicant. The application must state the grounds for divorce. Announcement of the divorce case is then made by the People's Court in a local newspaper at the expense of the party bringing the action.

The very fact that the application for divorce is announced in the Press contributes to a more serious attitude towards the problem of dissolution of marriage.

When the application for divorce has been filed by one of the parties, the people's judge, in order to ensure a better preparation of the case to be tried, summons the other party to the court to inform him (or her) of the contents of the application, to find out the grounds for divorce and to name witnesses. After that the court appoints the day for the hearing of the case, summoning to the court proceedings both parties, and if the need arises, witnesses as well.

Divorce cases are heard by the court publicly. Upon the application of the parties the court can conduct a divorce case in camera, when this is necessary.

As a rule, divorce cases are tried at the place of residence of both parties, if they live together; if the parties live separately, the case is tried at the respondent's place of residence. If the party submitting an application for divorce has the custody of children under age, owing to which his (or her) departure entails difficulties, the court can, at the request of the plaintiff, try the case at the latter's place of residence.

The People's Court must establish the real grounds for divorce and, what is most important, take all measures to reconcile the parties.

Judicial practice knows numerous facts of such reconciliation of the parties as a result of a profound and wise approach of the judge to the matter. In some cases it proves

that the application to the court for divorce was a rash action performed under the impact of a quarrel, in a fit of anger, or as a result of unfounded accusations on the part of the husband or wife.

When no reconciliation takes place, the People's Court suspends the hearing of the case and states this fact in the record of the proceedings.

If the plaintiff persists in obtaining divorce, he can appeal to the Regional Court, which, after a new attempt to reconcile the parties, pronounces judgement, either granting divorce or refusing the suit.

If the action has been brought on invalid grounds and the divorce may harm the interests of the children, the court is entitled to refuse such divorce. On the contrary, if the action has been brought on well thought-out and thoroughly substantiated grounds and the continuation of the married state would be contrary to the principles of communist morality and interfere with the creation of normal conditions for living together and proper upbringing of children, then the court is not only entitled, but obliged to dissolve the marriage.

This ruling is, in particular, contained in the Decision of the Plenum of the Supreme Court of the U.S.S.R.

When the Regional (Territorial) Court deems it necessary to grant divorce, it simultaneously decides all other questions in dispute, namely, which of the parents is to have the custody of the children, how the common property should be divided between the parties, which family name must be assumed by each party, in what way should the party unable to work be maintained by the other party, etc.

When leaving the custody of the children to the mother (which is more often the case in judicial practice), or to the father, the court fixes the amount of alimony to be paid by the other party for the benefit of the children. The amount of alimony to be paid by the father is fixed by the laws as follows: a quarter of his earnings for the maintenance of

one child, a third for two children and half for three or more children.

It should be pointed out that when deciding the question of the division of property, the court, in accordance with the law, proceeds from the equal right of husband and wife to the entire property acquired by them after their marriage, irrespective of whether the wife works at an enterprise or office, or is engaged in housekeeping.

This is a just principle, indeed, since the housewife brings up the children, takes care of the whole family, keeps house, and thereby directly participates in the creation of common personal property.

The parent who has undertaken the further upbringing of the children is ensured the necessary material conditions, and, in particular, the required property. This, above all, relates to the home commonly owned by husband and wife.

According to Soviet Civil Code, the right to the division of common property is also accorded to women married *de facto*, provided, of course, that the property has been acquired by her jointly with the husband.

As already mentioned above, the operating law states that only registered marriage involves the rights and duties of husband and wife. Among these rights is the right to be paid alimony for the maintenance of the children.

Another important right ensured by registered marriage is the right of the spouses and children to inheritance. The law protects the right of the wife and children to inheritance in case the husband and father dies. In the institution of inheritance, just as in all other legal institutions, the Soviet Government consistently pursues the policy of full equality between man and woman.

* * *

The state bodies and public organizations of the U.S.S.R. display constant solicitude for ensuring equal civil and other rights of man and woman.

The Soviet state, its bodies and the public in general, watchfully guard the rights of Soviet women.

The Soviet courts, the Procurator's Office, and various public organizations, trade unions, Press, etc., see that not a single official, not a single citizen infringe upon the rights of women. Persons guilty of such actions are subjected to public censure, and if these actions bear a malicious character, are prosecuted by law.

For example, the law provides that pregnant women and nursing mothers cannot be refused work on that account; nor can their wages be reduced. The violation of these provisions is considered a criminal offence. Persons guilty of such offences are sentenced by the court of law to reformatory work for a term of up to six months or to a fine not exceeding 1,000 rubles. If the violation is repeated, the punishment is increased up to two years of imprisonment.

Deliberate non-payment of alimony for the maintenance of children is also considered a criminal offence and is punishable by imprisonment for a term not exceeding two years.

For the sake of safeguarding the rights of Soviet women, compelling a woman to procure an abortion is also punishable by the law.

There is no need to stress that the Soviet laws protect in every way the honour and dignity of Soviet women, that special state organs (such as the court, the Procurator's Office, the militia, etc.) regard the protection of women's rights, honour and dignity as one of the basic tasks of their activity.

* * *

Such are some of the facts relating to the equality of Soviet women with men and to the measures which are taken by the Soviet Government to consolidate the family and to protect mother and child.

REPLIES GIVEN BY K. GORSHENIN TO QUESTIONS ON HIS REPORT

Dear Ladies! I have received so many questions concerning the lot of women that I am afraid my own lot as a man and speaker will not be an easy one. However, I shall do my best to answer all your questions. The fact that they are numerous is very pleasing, since all of them really deserve close attention.

One of the questions runs as follows: *By which principles is the court guided when trying cases concerning the custody of children? Which factors does it take into consideration when deciding who of the parents is to be entrusted with the upbringing of the child?*

The Soviet court proceeds, above all, from the interests of the children. It takes in consideration the moral fibre of the spouses, the affection of the children and parents for each other, and a number of similar factors which give assurance that the child will be properly brought up, that normal conditions will be created for its development. I should like to point out that a certain role in this respect is played, of course, by the material and dwelling conditions in which the child may find itself when left to the care of this or other parent. This factor, however, is not of decisive significance.

Judicial practice shows that in most cases it is the mother who is granted the right of further upbringing the child. This is determined by a number of conditions of which you

have better knowledge than I and which hardly require any additional explanations.

There is another question closely related to this one: *Are children placed in such cases in special children's institutions? Are they, so to say, exempted from the influence and guidance of the parents?* Under Soviet law, a child cannot be placed in any such institution without the parents' consent.

I am asked: *What happens if the parents disagree about the upbringing of their children? Who has then the right to interfere in this matter?* An important role in this respect is played by the ward and trusteeship authorities. It should be borne in mind that in the U.S.S.R. parents are the lawful guardians of their children, this applies equally to both father and mother. According to the Soviet laws, the ward and trusteeship functions belong to the Executive Committees of the Soviets of Working People's Deputies, this work being directly conducted by the Departments of Public Education.

I have received a question concerning *the application of the law to persons guilty of non-payment of alimony, and in particular concerning the application of such a penalty as imprisonment.* As already mentioned in my report, our state takes a strict attitude towards persons who evade paying alimony for the maintenance of their children. The state and public organizations see that parents strictly perform their duties to children. Usually the matter is not brought to the court and to criminal prosecution; owing to the beneficial influence of fellow-workers, and public organizations, as well as of the Press which severely brands those parents who neglect the maintenance of their children, the attitude of such persons to their parental duties becomes in many cases rectified. In Soviet society, criminal prosecution is by no means regarded as a fundamental and decisive measure of compelling neglectful fathers to perform their parental duties. However, in cases when the non-performance of these duties bears a deliberate character—fortunate-

ly, such cases are not numerous in the U.S.S.R.—persons guilty of this offence are prosecuted by law and strictly punished, the heaviest penalty being two years of imprisonment.

A number of questions relate to the *procedure of divorce, to the principles on which it is effected, as well as to the conditions in which it takes place. One of the questions concerns the trend of the divorce problem, i.e., whether the number of divorce cases in the U.S.S.R. is growing or diminishing.*

Here, of course, the concrete, I should say, historical conditions must be taken into account. It cannot be denied that the severe war which had been waged against fascism by the peoples of the Soviet Union jointly with their allies brought about grave consequences in all spheres of Soviet life. There is no doubt that the war to a certain degree affected also the marriage and family relationships. In the first post-war years the number of divorces in the U.S.S.R. somewhat increased; later, however, there took place a definite stabilization in this respect. At present we witness a steady decline in the number of divorce cases, especially if we compare the latest figures with those which relate to the period preceding the promulgation of the Decree of the Presidium of the U.S.S.R. Supreme Soviet of July 8, 1944, establishing a number of restrictive principles in divorce practice.

Of great significance for the prevention of divorces is the negative attitude of Soviet society towards any thoughtless approach of individual citizens to their family life. An important role is also played by the respective educational work of various public organizations (the Communist Party, Trade Unions, the Young Communist League), as well as by the rising cultural level and growing consciousness of Soviet people. These factors, along with the improvement of the material well-being and living standards of the working people, create conditions for the further consolidation of the family and contribute to a steady decline in the number of divorce cases.

The next question relates to the *principles by which the court is guided when trying divorce cases*. In other words, it is a question of whether Soviet law enumerates all the causes and reasons which must invariably involve the dissolution of marriage by the court.

No, Soviet law does not give any exhaustive list of such causes and reasons. But this does not mean that the court is deprived of the right to establish the concrete circumstances of each case, to find out the grounds on which husband or wife apply to the court for divorce.

I take the liberty of reminding you some facts mentioned in my report concerning the composition of the people's judges and people's assessors in the U.S.S.R., who are elected on the basis of universal, direct and equal suffrage by secret ballot. They all come from the people and include mothers who are experienced in the upbringing of children, workers, engineers, teachers, physicians, representatives of trade-union and women's organizations, Party and Young Communist League workers, etc. They live in the very midst of the popular masses and know their aspirations perfectly well; they take account of the diverse life factors, possess rich personal experience, and profoundly comprehend the intricate human relations. This determines their thorough and wise approach to each concrete case and helps them to decide whether there are serious grounds to dissolve the marriage or not.

On September 16, 1949, the Plenum of the U.S.S.R. Supreme Court issued a special decision concerning judicial practice in dissolution of marriage. This decision obliges the courts profoundly to study all the reasons that cause each application for divorce. The court must find out the real state of the family in question, since there are cases when the break-up of a family is so obvious that no decisions of the court will be able to maintain it any longer.

It is noteworthy that the People's Court performs only reconciliatory functions having no right to decide the question of divorce in essence. It is a higher—Regional or Ter-

ritorial—court which pronounces judgement either granting divorce in cases when it deems it necessary, or refusing the suit if it sees no legal causes for divorce.

Now I pass to the question *whether the performance of abortions by women is punishable by law in the U.S.S.R.* Soviet laws do not make this a crime. In particular, the Decree of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. dated November 23, 1955, clearly states that it is the woman herself who decides whether an abortion is expedient or not. Consequently, we may say that the performance of abortions by women is not a criminal offence in the Soviet Union. But does it mean that abortions are encouraged in the U.S.S.R.? Of course, not. All the organs of health protection and various public organizations in the U.S.S.R. carry on extensive educational explanatory work concerning the harmfulness of abortions to woman's health. Persons who force a woman to undergo such an operation are liable to prosecution. Similarly answerable are persons having no special education or training and guilty of performing abortions, as well as those who perform such operations privately, outside hospitals or other medical institutions.

Some participants of this Seminar want to know precisely which laws provide for penalties against persons violating the rights of women. I should say that we have several groups of legal acts if it is permissible to classify the laws in this way. In particular, the criminal codes of the Union republics establish legal prosecution for compulsion of women to marriage; the laws of individual republics are directed against survivals of the tribal system and establish penalties for so-called *kalym* (i.e., buying of brides), bigamy, polygamy, forcing into marriage persons who have not yet reached the age of puberty, as well as for various agreements between parents, which fix in advance the marriage of girls under age.

The Soviet law also prosecutes any violation of the right of women to participate in public activity. I can refer, in particular, to the criminal code of the Uzbek Union Repub-

lic, which considers certain survivals of the tribal system a criminal offence.

Soviet legislation likewise protects the right of women to work. As I have already mentioned in my report, pregnant women and nursing mothers cannot be refused work on that account, nor can their wages be reduced. Officials guilty of such violations are liable to prosecution. This also relates to some other violations of the labour, civil, family and political rights of Soviet women. In particular, insulting the dignity of a mother is punishable by law.

Let me pass to the question of *property acquired by husband and wife both before marriage and in the married state*. The law clearly states that the property of the parties acquired before marriage is the separate property of each, and that any property obtained as a gift or by right of succession belongs to the party which acquired it in this way. Only that property which has been jointly acquired by husband and wife in the married state is common property. Here I should like to remind you that both parties have equal rights to the property acquired after marriage, irrespective of the fact whether the wife works at an enterprise or office, or is only engaged in housekeeping and the upbringing of children.

Who manages such common property? This is, naturally, done by husband and wife jointly since their rights to the property are equal.

How is common property divided? Which principles underlie such division and which share goes to each party? As a rule, common property is divided in two equal parts. However, in individual cases the court may proceed from specific circumstances and establish two unequal shares. Under certain conditions, for example, the greater share may go to the wife (if she has charge of the children). Thus, in the U.S.S.R. the property interests of husband and wife are protected both economically and juridically; this makes it possible to preserve personal pre-marriage property belonging to each of the spouses separately, and at the same time to have common property acquired in the married state.

Some participants of this Seminar ask *whether the property of deceased parents is inherited by the children or becomes state property*. They are also interested to know *how the property is divided between the sons and daughters if the father dies intestate*.

No matter which of the parents dies, the property, according to the Soviet laws, passes to the children who are the heirs-in-law and is equally divided between them irrespective of their sex. Full equality between man and woman as regards their right of inheritance is ensured by the law. The property of deceased parents never passes to the state if there are children or other heirs-in-law. According to Soviet law, children under age and disabled heirs cannot be disinherited by the will of the father or mother.

Are death duties paid in the Soviet Union? No, Soviet legislation does not provide for such a tax. There is only a special state duty which is collected when succession certificates are given out, but the obtainment of such certificates is not obligatory and does not ensue from the requirements of the law. If an application for such a certificate is handed in, a duty of 10 rubles is collected from the inheritance not exceeding 5,000 rubles and a duty to the amount of 3 to 10 per cent of the value if the property inherited exceeds this sum. It must be borne in mind that according to the provisions of the law, in some cases the applicants can be released from the payment of the duty; this, in particular, relates to persons who experience material difficulties. Children of officers and soldiers who lost their lives at the front during the war are fully exempted by the law from the payment of the duty.

One of the questions states: *Does a wife and mother unable to work receive any assistance from the state when she wants to establish the whereabouts of her husband and father of her children who deliberately evades paying alimony?* In the Soviet Union women have the right to apply in such cases to the militia which carries out the search at

the expense of the person in question. The woman herself does not incur any expenses in this connection.

One of the members of the Seminar asks *whether a husband or wife is obliged to support his (or her) disabled marriage-partner upon dissolution of the marriage, i.e., whether in this case one of the spouses has the right to demand support from the other one.*

The legislation of the Union republics solves this very important problem in a positive way in cases when owing to poor health and lack of means of subsistence the husband or wife is unable to secure adequate material conditions of life. It should be pointed out that the legislation of individual republics establishes different periods of such obligatory support. In particular, according to the laws of the Russian Federation, a spouse unable to work must be supported by the marriage-partner after dissolution of the marriage during a period of one year. In some other republics the period of obligatory support equals to three years, while the laws of the Ukrainian S.S.R. even provide for lifetime support.

As you see, the Union republics of the U.S.S.R., possessing sovereign rights, independently solve the problems of law, and in particular the given important problem which has roused here such a lively interest.

However, not only the fear of punishment plays a role in the solution of this problem. Due to the high moral principles and spirit of comradeship which prevail in Soviet society, in most cases former spouses, in spite of the fact of divorce, continue to help each other in need, of their own accord.

I am asked whether there exists bigamy in the U.S.S.R.

According to the legislation of the Union republics, bigamy is punishable by law. We regard it as a survival of the tribal system and of the feudal-bai treatment of women, as a vestige of the past. The fact that the law provides for such an offence means that single, very rare cases of bigamy are still met with in the U.S.S.R. However, since the law strictly establishes the principle of monogamy, such rare cases of



Freedom of religious beliefs in the U.S.S.R. was a subject of considerable interest to many Seminar participants. They visited the Cathedral in Erevan and churches in other cities. In the foreground are (left to right): Milena Kralova (Czechoslovakia), Monica Whately (Great Britain), Iringard Scharf (Austria) and Mitra Mitrovic (Yugoslavia)

bigamy do not assume a juridical form; they are of a factual character and are so disguised that sometimes it is not easy to reveal them. The Soviet law considers bigamy a criminal offence since it is incompatible with human relations, with normal relations between man and woman.

How was the law of monogamy accepted by persons who profess Mohammedanism?

In the U.S.S.R. citizens of all the Union republics, belonging to different nationalities and religions live and work together in close union and friendship. They enjoy equal economic and political rights, and are equal before the law. Soviet society has achieved a high degree of moral and political unity. Russians, Ukrainians, Uzbeks, Byelorussians—people of various nationalities and religious beliefs

abide by the morality of socialist society. It is therefore hardly possible to assume that there should exist a particular attitude towards monogamy on the part of persons belonging to a certain religion. The rules recorded in the laws ensue from the moral standards and conscience of people who have reached a certain level of development. The overwhelming majority of the citizens of the U.S.S.R., including citizens of different creeds, approve the acts of the Soviet state and regard them as legal rules fully conforming to their interests. However, there are still cases of violation of these rules in our country, and respective public action is taken against the violators.

I shall pass now to the question concerning church marriage. As you know, in the U.S.S.R. the church is separated from the state, as recorded in the Soviet Constitution. I cannot tell you anything definite concerning the number of church marriages in the Soviet Union. But I should like to point out that only a marriage duly registered in the Registrar's office is acknowledged by Soviet law. As to church marriages, only those are recognized which were contracted before the institution of Registrar's offices in the U.S.S.R. and in its Union republics.

There is a question concerning prostitution. The inquirer wants to know whether prostitution is controlled by the Soviet law. All the conditions which have been created for women in Soviet society—the right of women to work, a right guaranteed to every citizen of the U.S.S.R., the active participation of women in public life, the possibility independently and without any restrictions to apply their abilities in all spheres of activity—all this made impossible the very existence of prostitution in the Soviet Union. Of course, separate cases of dissipation and debauchery, against which Soviet society wages an active struggle, must not be confused with prostitution. But even such cases steadily diminish in number.

As I have already mentioned, there are no conditions for the existence of prostitution in the U.S.S.R. since this evil

is engendered, above all, by the economic insecurity of women, by their social inequality. As a result of the upbuilding of socialism, prostitution in our country has been fully eliminated. This is why Soviet law does not establish any rules aimed at controlling prostitution; there is no need for such rules.

We are grateful to Mrs. Whately for the very interesting facts she has presented here concerning the grave position in which a British woman is put when she is proclaimed a prostitute and prosecuted by law solely on the basis of a statement (sometimes anonymous) made by a man to a police officer. Nothing of the kind can ever happen in Soviet society.

One of the questions received by me concerns *the citizenship of a child born by a Soviet woman who is married to a foreigner*. If one of the parents is a citizen of the Soviet Union and if the family resides in the Soviet Union, the child becomes a Soviet citizen. If the family resides abroad this question is decided by agreement of the parents, their citizenship being taken in due account.

How many times can a Soviet citizen marry? Soviet law does not establish any limit in this respect. However, Soviet society cares for the consolidation of family relationships. It may be said with certitude that persons who reveal an irresponsible approach to the question of contracting or dissolving marriage sink in the estimation of society; their behaviour is disapproved by public opinion, and in some cases this proves to be more effective than any legal rule recorded in any code.

Here is one more question: *When marriage is dissolved, is the woman obliged to leave the house or flat where she used to live together with her husband?* No, she is not; the Soviet law provides that in this case a woman cannot be deprived of her dwelling, of the right to a certain part of the house. If after the dissolution of the marriage the custody of the children is left to the mother, in certain cases even the whole house may go to the woman.

Fleishits, Doctor of Juridical Sciences:

I am authorized to answer some questions asked by the participants of the Seminar in connection with the report of K. Gorshenin.

Does the Soviet law establish definite responsibility of parents who leave their children without any support and care? Yes, the law establishes such responsibility, and considers this a criminal offence. Besides, in these cases parents are deprived of their parental rights.

How is the upbringing of neglected children ensured? It should be pointed out that such cases are very rare in the Soviet Union, but if they arise the state comes to the child's help by placing it in a corresponding state children's institution, i.e., children's home, for further upbringing.

Is not the productivity of labour of married women and mothers who work at enterprises and offices lower than that of unmarried women? In other words, is effective work at enterprises and offices within the powers of women who have children on their hands? The Soviet state has created a wide network of various children's institutions, and this enables women to combine their maternal duties with their work at enterprises and offices. It may be said with full confidence that this is done by Soviet women quite successfully.

Are not single mothers or divorced women subjected to ostracism in the Soviet Union? No, neither single mothers who get help from the state, nor divorced women are subjected to ostracism in the U.S.S.R. We condemn a wanton attitude to family life and laxity in sexual matters, but in such cases we equally condemn man and woman.

Why is the application to the court for divorce announced in the press? This is done with the aim of attracting public opinion to the divorce. In some cases the fact that the application must be published in the press makes the divorcing parties change their mind and brings about their reconciliation.

How does the right of a widow to inheritance agree with that of her sons and daughters? A widow, her sons and her

daughters after the death of the husband and father have equal rights to inheritance, their shares being equivalent. Thus a widow is a heir-in-law along with her children.

Which measures have been taken in the U.S.S.R. to acquaint women with their new legal status, to explain to them their new rights? Immediately after the Great October Socialist Revolution special propaganda measures were taken in order to popularize the new laws, to acquaint Soviet women with their legal status which was truly novel at that time. But very soon vast masses of Soviet women proved to be involved in various spheres of state and public activity, owing to which the further extensive and special popularization of women's rights became unnecessary. In the U.S.S.R. women, for example, participate along with men, in discussing different draft laws, such as the Draft Code of Laws on Marriage, the Family and Guardianship now in operation, the Draft Law on Pensions, and others. I believe that no such problem now exists in the U.S.S.R. Soviet women are citizens enjoying full rights; they know perfectly well both their rights and their duties to the state. In particular, the Constitution of the U.S.S.R. is studied at school and thus children of school age acquire primary knowledge of the rights of Soviet citizens. Besides, there is a network of legal advice offices in the country which render assistance to women in elucidating diverse legal questions.

**INTERVIEW WITH A GROUP OF PARTICIPANTS
IN THE SEMINAR AT THE PEOPLE'S COURT
OF THE 3rd DIVISION
OF THE KRASNOGVARDEISKY DISTRICT, MOSCOW**

September 18, 1956

The guests attended the hearing of a civil case—a claim made by citizen R. Kaplan against the administration of the Institute of Rubber Industry for her reinstatement to the office from which she was discharged.

People's judge V. Tsygankova, people's assessors Z. Ilyina and M. Bragin, prosecutor A. Zlotnikova and barrister-at-law Ts. Borishanskaya took part in the interview which was held both before the beginning of the trial and after it.

Seeta Parmanand:

Is the plaintiff a trade-union member?

Answer: Yes, she is.

Representative of France:

Will she defend her interests herself, or will anybody act on her behalf?

Answer: Both the plaintiff herself and a barrister will act in this case.

Grinberg-Vinaver (Secretary of the U.N. Commission on the Status of Women):

What are the functions of the prosecutor?

Zlotnikova:

The prosecutor is duty-bound to give a conclusion which would comply with the law, as well as with the interests of

the party in dispute whose case is proved. The prosecutor helps the court properly to acquaint itself with the circumstances of the case.

Grinberg-Vinaver:

Should the court decide that the claim of the plaintiff is proved, will the respondent be obliged to restore her to her former office, or will the administration have the right to pay her instead a certain compensation?

Zlotnikova:

In this case the respondent is obliged to restore the plaintiff to the position previously occupied by her and to pay her wages for the whole period of forced idleness.

Grinberg-Vinaver:

Does Soviet judicial practice admit any alternative decisions in such cases?

Zlotnikova:

No, it does not. Should the plaintiff in the course of her further work at the given office be mistreated by the administration, it is the public organizations which will have to interfere with the matter and duly react to it.

Grinberg-Vinaver:

Do trials of this kind often take place in judicial practice? May this case be considered a typical one?

Zlotnikova:

I should not say that such cases are frequent in our judicial practice.

Grinberg-Vinaver:

Which cases are tried by the given court?

Borishanskaya (Barrister):

This court is a court of the first instance. It tries all civil and criminal cases which arise in the given district and which are within its jurisdiction.

Grinberg-Vinaver:

Are property cases also tried here?

Borishanskaya:

Yes, they are.

Grinberg-Vinaver:

By whom are judges elected and for which term?

Borishanskaya:

All citizens who have reached the age of eighteen elect people's judges and people's assessors by secret ballot.

Grinberg-Vinaver:

Have you any private practice? We, representatives of the UNO and at the same time representatives of the U.S.A., France and Australia, should like to know whether the barrister is appointed by the court or retained by the plaintiff.

Borishanskaya:

We barristers are not state officials. We have our own public professional organization which is self-administered through special elective organs.

The court is obliged to appoint a barrister only when it tries a case with the participation of a prosecutor and provided the accused himself has not secured a barrister. In this case the court applies to a legal advice office for a barrister who exercises—free of charge—the right of the accused to defence.

In all other cases any citizen has the right to apply to a legal advice office and to brief a barrister of his own choice.

Representative of Belgium:

By whom are the barristers paid?

Borishanskaya:

Citizens applying to legal advice offices pay fixed fees for the legal assistance they receive. However, a number of cases are conducted by the barristers free of charge; they include cases connected with conditions of labour, defence of children, alimony, pensions, and interests of disabled soldiers—participants of the Great Patriotic War. In other cases, as I have already mentioned, the citizens pay fixed fees. Seventy-five per cent of the fund formed by these fees is paid to barristers as their wages and the remaining 25 per cent is spent on conducting lawsuits free of charge.

My personal earnings are so considerable that in old age I shall have the right to receive the maximum pension of

1,200 rubles which has been established by our Government.

We barristers are members of the Trade Union of Judicial Workers which pays us sick benefit during temporary disablement.

Representative of France:

How large are your own earnings?

Borishanskaya:

The amount of my earnings depends on the number of cases I conduct. The earnings of many barristers are much higher than those of office workers.

Representative of Holland:

Who pays wages to young barristers just beginning their practical work?

Borishanskaya:

There is the special fund already mentioned by me. During the first months of their work young barristers are paid from this fund.

Grinberg-Vinaver:

Did the plaintiff apply personally to you for legal assistance?

Borishanskaya:

Yes. She had been unlawfully discharged from office, and I undertook to act for her free of charge.

Zena Harman (Israel, member of the U.N. Commission on the Status of Women):

How often are judges and people's assessors elected?

Borishanskaya:

Every three years. The number of people's assessors elected to one People's Court ranges from 50 to 75, since each assessor sits for only ten days a year.

Zena Harman:

Are all people's assessors juridically qualified?

Borishanskaya:

No, people's assessors are elected from among workers, employees, housewives, etc. They study Soviet legislation in special seminars.

Grinberg-Vinaver:

Judicial practice knows cases which simultaneously have a criminal and a civil aspect; are such cases also tried by the given court, or are they within the jurisdiction of another court?

Borishanskaya:

They are tried by this court as well. First the criminal case may be considered and after that the ensuing civil suit.

Grinberg-Vinaver:

It is not quite clear to us in which cases can divorce be granted by the court.

Borishanskaya:

Sometimes divorce is granted without a hearing, for example, in the case of a mental or venereal disease.

Grinberg-Vinaver:

And how about conjugal infidelity?

Borishanskaya:

It plays a certain role along with other circumstances of the case, but by itself it does not constitute an absolute cause for divorce. The court takes into account the interests of the children.

Grinberg-Vinaver:

If, for example, the husband abandons his wife for having committed adultery, is it a ground for divorce?

Borishanskaya:

No, it is not.

Grinberg-Vinaver:

If one of the spouses beats the other, i.e., if the marital relations are abnormal, does it constitute a ground for divorce?

Borishanskaya:

Yes, it does.

Grinberg-Vinaver:

Being a Doctor of Law of the Paris University, I am interested to know what are the legal grounds for divorce in your country. If both spouses want to dissolve the marriage, is this fact of importance?



Seminar members in a People's Court

Borishanskaya:

Yes, it is; but if they have little children the interests of the latter are also taken into consideration.

Grinberg-Vinaver:

When people contract marriage, have they the right to agree beforehand that all the property acquired by them in the married state should not be common, that each party should have its personal, separate property?

Borishanskaya:

Practically in the U.S.S.R. there is no need in such agreements. However, this is not prohibited. Under the law, the property acquired after marriage becomes common, even if the wife does not work.

Grinberg-Vinaver:

In France, under the existing legislation, the property becomes common only if the parties entering into marriage do not conclude any contrary agreements. Before contracting marriage they have the right to agree that the property is to be owned separately by each of them. In this case the property remains separate for life. Is the same practised in your country?

Borishanskaya:

No, according to the Soviet law, husband and wife constitute a single family, their incomes and expenditures being common.

Grinberg-Vinaver:

Since when has this law been in operation?

Borishanskaya:

Since 1918 when the Code of Laws on Marriage and the Family was adopted. In case of divorce each party remains the owner of the property acquired by it before the marriage, while the property acquired in the married state is equally divided between the parties.

Representative of the Philippines:

Is it the husband who is in charge of the jointly acquired property?

Borishanskaya:

No, both, husband and wife. The husband, for example, has no right to sell the house without the wife's consent.

Grinberg-Vinaver:

Did you graduate from a university?

Borishanskaya:

I graduated from the Moscow State University.

Grinberg-Vinaver:

Is there coeducation at the University?

Borishanskaya:

Yes, there is.

Grinberg-Vinaver:

Did you study foreign law?

Borishanskaya:

We studied international law.

Grinberg-Vinaver:

Have you a Doctor's diploma?

Borishanskaya:

No, in our country there exists a Doctor's degree which is conferred on persons who defend Doctor's dissertations. I have a higher juridical education. In our country everybody having a higher juridical education has the right to work in the capacity of a barrister or judge. However, a judge must not necessarily have a higher juridical education.

Grinberg-Vinaver:

Did the young woman who has conducted these court proceedings graduate from a juridical institute?

Borishanskaya:

Yes, she graduated from a juridical institute. Have the representatives of the U.S.A., France and Australia properly understood the case just tried by the court? What do they think of the defence? Was it, in their opinion, correct?*

Grinberg-Vinaver:

Yes, they have understood the case quite well and like the defence immensely. They say that you are bound to win the case in all instances. Is there a court of appeal in your country?

Borishanskaya:

No, there is no such special court. A case can be reversed within 10 days. If it is confirmed by the higher instance, no further cassation is possible. However, the case can be considered by way of supervision.

Representative of the U.S.A.:

When a criminal case is accompanied by a civil action is it considered by one and the same court during one sitting and with the participation of the same prosecutor?

Borishanskaya:

Yes, such is our judicial practice.

Grinberg-Vinaver:

Is there any specialization of Soviet barristers in criminal and civil cases?

Borishanskaya:

Yes, some barristers conduct only criminal cases, while others conduct exclusively civil cases.

Representative of the Philippines:

What is the population of your district?

Borishanskaya:

More than 250 thousand.

Seeta Parmanand:

It seems to me that everything speaks in favour of Kaplan and that in her case there was a violation of the law. According to the law, she must, apparently, be restored to her office.

Zlotnikova:

Yes, you are right.

Representative of England:

If she is restored to her office, the administration will probably be displeased.

Zlotnikova:

If the court meets her claim the administration may not agree with this decision and within a period of 10 days refer the matter to the higher court. If the judgement pronounced by the first court is confirmed by the higher court the administration will be obliged to restore the plaintiff to office. However, the higher court may not agree with the decision of the first court. Then the case will be tried anew.

Representative of Holland:

Is the respondent answerable to anybody for such wrong actions?

Zlotnikova:

The respondent will have to pay Kaplan wages for the whole period of forced idleness, and will be answerable for his wrong actions to a corresponding higher organization.

Representative of Holland:

How does Kaplan support herself now when she is out of work?

Zlotnikova:

Her salary exceeded the living minimum; it amounted to 1,350 rubles plus an addition of 10 per cent.

Jeanne Foucart:

I admire the work of this court. Being a lawyer myself I am greatly pleased that both parties are allowed to express their points of view, that they are heard out by the court. Previously we did not have a proper idea of the Soviet court proceedings; we are, therefore, glad that we have been given the opportunity to attend this lawsuit.

Representative of Australia:

In our country all the judges are men; there are no women among the judges at all.

Eugenie Rajapatirana (All-Ceylon Buddhist Women's Association):

I am surprised that cases involving labour disputes are decided by your courts so quickly. I am glad that women take an active part in the work of the courts. The more we acquaint ourselves with your life, the more proud we are of the activity of your women.

Our country is small; we have one woman among the members of the Cabinet and three women among the members of the Parliament.

In accordance with our religion (Buddhism) which is more than two thousand years old, our women have equal rights with men. You have gained your equality after the Revolution, while we, in accordance with our religion, have had it already for a period of two thousand years. Practically, however, no such equality is enjoyed by our women,

EQUALITY OF SOVIET WOMEN IN THE ECONOMIC SPHERE

REPORT by NINA POPOVA,

Secretary, U.S.S.R. Central Council of Trade Unions

The problem of equality of women has its own long history. Through the centuries, during most of the history of human society, women were in a dependent, subordinate, unequal position. They had no right to take part in state, social, or political life, and were confined to housekeeping.

The petty, dull and stupefying work in the kitchen and the home fettered woman and prevented her from displaying her intellectual abilities.

For centuries it was considered that the housewife, whom the Romans defined as one who "stayed at home and spun wool," was the personification of womanly virtues.

Even after the collapse of the feudal order the legal status of women hardly changed. Children and the kitchen remained her lot as before.

Addressing the Parisians, Chomatt, the public prosecutor of the Paris Commune during the 1789-93 French Revolution, said: "Nature said to woman—be a woman! Bringing up children, the cares of the home, the sweet labours of motherhood—this is the sphere of your endeavours, for this I shall elevate you to the rank of goddess of the home-temple and with your charm, your beauty and your virtue you will rule over all that surrounds you. Silly women who want to be men, what else do you need?"

This is the essence of the attitude to woman which has long prevailed in society and which has not been fully overcome as yet. With the development of industrial production woman began to work in industry and though she participated in the creation of material values she continued to be deprived of rights. In plants and factories she did the most unskilled and poorly paid work, receiving much less for it than man. She had no access to skilled work. A working woman continued to be burdened with the cares of the home and with rearing children. She thus carried a double burden.

Could woman accept this situation? Certainly not! Together with the progressive people of all countries and nations she fought for equality, for a worthy place in society and in the family.

In the beginning of the 20th century, as a result of a long struggle and the pressure of public opinion, women in some countries won certain opportunities to participate in political life, though they still remained unequal economically.

In 1917 the Great October Socialist Revolution declared for the first time in history the full political, economic and civic equality of women. With this the emancipation of woman was accomplished as set forth in the programme of the Communist Party which, based on a scientific analysis of the development of human society, proclaimed that without the participation of women in socially productive labour they could have neither real equality nor freedom.

On the initiative of V. I. Lenin, the founder of the Soviet state and leader of the Communist Party, all the old laws which had kept woman in a humiliating position and deprived her of her rights were abrogated in the very first days of Soviet rule. V. I. Lenin said that "of the laws which had kept woman in an inferior position not a single one remained."

The new legislation and the conditions set up for its realization have made Soviet woman free and equal in all walks of life. Woman has awakened to a new life and has grown into a tremendous force in the Soviet society.

To grasp the full and tremendous significance of this, we must recall *the position of woman in tsarist Russia*.

Complete inequality in society and in the family was characteristic of woman in old Russia.

Of the total number of women wage-earners only 13 per cent were employed in large-scale industry and construction, while a great many worked as domestic servants (55 per cent) or as farm-hands for landlords and the rural bourgeoisie (25 per cent).

It is characteristic that of all women who worked in industry two-thirds were engaged in the textile and sewing industries where the lowest wages and the worst working conditions prevailed. The remaining third were employed in the other branches of industry and worked mainly as unskilled and poorly paid hands.

It was, certainly, out of the question for a woman to become an engineer, a shop foreman or a director of an enterprise. For the same work woman was paid much less than man.

In a survey of wages and productivity of labour in Russia, Academician Strumilin, the well-known Russian economist, gave the following figures on men's and women's wages in various branches of industry in 1914:

| Production group | Daily earnings (in kopeks) | | Women's earnings in relation to those of men (in %) |
|------------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------|---|
| | Men | Women | |
| All groups | 141 | 72 | 51.1 |
| Cotton processing | 104 | 75 | 72.1 |
| Wool " " | 90 | 61 | 67.8 |
| Silk " " | 107 | 70 | 65.4 |
| Hemp, flax and jute processing . . | 91 | 59 | 64.8 |
| Paper and printing industry . . . | 144 | 67 | 46.5 |
| Metal processing | 202 | 83 | 41.1 |
| Chemical industry | 139 | 89 | 64.0 |
| Extracting industry | 137 | 86 | 62.8 |

As you see, on the eve of the First World War the average daily wages of women throughout industry constituted a little more than half of the men's wages. The difference was due to unequal pay for the same work, and the employment of women mainly in unskilled work.

Women were particularly discriminated against in the metal-processing industry where the daily wages of the women workers were only 41.1 per cent of the men's wages.

According to official statistics on the duration of the working day in Russia, the average working day for women in industry in 1913 was 9.7 hours. The hours were even longer in certain branches of industry, running to 10 and more hours in the ore-mining, china, wood-working, match, woollen, leather and fur, and flour-milling industries. Overtime work led to a considerable prolongation of the working day. Refusal to do overtime work threatened the woman worker with dismissal and loss of earnings. Including overtime work, the duration of the women workers' working day in 1913 averaged 11-12 hours.

These data refer to the large-scale industries employing about 3.3 million workers and subject to supervision by the factory inspection. As regards the petty and handicraft industries, which accounted for over 5 million workers, the duration of the working day was not regulated by legislation and was considerably higher than in the large industries.

Striving to increase their profits the employers economized by deteriorating working conditions. Women had to work under poor sanitary and extremely unhealthy conditions. Here is what the magazine *Working Woman* (No. 4, 1914) reported about the tobacco factory in Rostov-on-Don:

"The premises are small; the machines and other devices are so crowded that some of them leave no passage-way. The ventilation in many departments is unsatisfactory. The tobacco dust is so thick that it is hard to see a few paces

away. It is mainly women who work under these terrible, unhygienic conditions since they constitute nine-tenths of the workers employed in this industry."

Nor were the working conditions any better in the other branches of industry.

The law on workers' insurance covering disability was passed in Russia only in 1912 under the pressure of workers' struggles. But even this law made the workers bear the brunt of the expenses for their insurance. Before 1912 accident compensation was entirely at the discretion of the manufacturers.

There was no trade training for women in tsarist Russia. The few private vocational schools that existed taught house-keeping, needlework and dressmaking; none of them instructed women in skilled industrial occupations. The system of apprenticeship at the industrial enterprises was simply a way of providing the enterprises with cheap labour power. The apprentices were most shamelessly exploited: running errands, learning only by observing, and endless mockery—such was the long course of trials and tribulations which the young working woman had to pass before she was allowed to take her place at a machine.

Starvation wages, the excessively long working day, insatiable working and living conditions, no social insurance or labour protection, unbearably hard work, total inequality and endless humiliation were the lot of the working women in the workshops of pre-revolutionary Russia.

If women could find only unskilled work in industry, in other spheres, such as state or cultural, they were not admitted at all.

The tsarist civil service regulations categorically prohibited the employment of women in any administrative capacity.

With a secondary or higher education, and in most cases, even an elementary education, out of her reach, and with a

total lack of children's institutions, woman had still less chance to participate in socially productive labour.

The position of peasant women, who constituted the bulk of the female population of old Russia, was even worse. Working from dawn to dusk, they lived a miserable, beggarly life. There was communal land-tenure in Russia, and the land was periodically redistributed among the peasants. A peasant woman, however, had no right to an allotment; economically she fully depended on her husband, father or brother.

In addition to the general discrimination, the women in the outlying eastern regions of tsarist Russia were also oppressed as a result of tribal and religious customs and traditions. There a woman could be bought and sold like a commodity, could be subjected to corporal punishment and even killed with impunity. She wore a veil as long as she lived, was segregated and doomed to permanent seclusion.

The distressing conditions of women deprived of all rights in the Russian Empire were further aggravated by the country's economic backwardness and the exceedingly low living standard of the population. It is a matter of common knowledge that despite her immense territory, rich natural resources and large population, Russia at that time considerably lagged in industrial development behind the advanced capitalist countries.

In 1913 Russia, the U.S.A., Germany, Britain and France produced:

| Item | Unit of measure | Russia | U.S.A. | Germany | Britain | France |
|--------------------|------------------|--------|--------|---------|---------|--------|
| | Millions of tons | | | | | |
| Coal | " | 27.99 | 516.9 | 180.1 | 292.0 | 44.3 |
| Pig iron | " | 4.2 | 31.5 | 12.3 | 10.4 | 9.1 |
| Steel | " | 4.2 | 31.8 | 13.8 | 7.8 | 7.0 |
| Cement | " | 1.5 | 15.9 | 6.9 | 2.9 | 1.9 |

For volume of industrial production Russia was behind the principal capitalist countries by approximately 50-100 years. As for her agriculture, it was in its greater part a small-commodity and frequently just a natural economy.

Both the industry and agriculture were extremely backward technically. According to the 1910 census, for example, the most primitive implements, such as wooden ploughs and harrows, predominated in agriculture.

It should be emphasized that this backward national economy was ruined by the First World War. Soviet power, as you see, received a very onerous heritage.

Enormous damage was also inflicted on the country's economy by the foreign military intervention of 1918-21, when 14 countries took up arms against the young and as yet weak Soviet Republic.

As a result of the war, foreign intervention and the economic blockade that followed, the 1921 industrial output constituted only 31 per cent of the extremely low 1913 level.

Such was the state of the country's economy at the time the Soviet power began its peaceful construction. Such was the economic point of departure for the young Land of Soviets.

Only if you know this will you properly appreciate everything we have done to develop our country's economy and, on this basis, to bring about the actual emancipation of women. It is well known that only by creating the requisite economic and social conditions for the entire people is it really possible to improve the position of women and to bring about their equality.

* * *

It has already been mentioned that the *October Revolution legislatively declared the full equality of women in all walks of life.*

Since the subject of my report is the equality of women in the economic sphere I shall confine myself only to this aspect of the question.

Decrees "On Equal Pay for Equal Work for Men and Women," "On Mother and Child Protection," etc., were issued very soon after the Revolution.

But this was only a legal abolition of the inequality of women. For full emancipation and equality woman had to be given a real opportunity to work in any branch of the national economy according to her desires and inclinations.

I must emphasize that the right of woman to work is one of the most important demands of the world women's movement in the struggle for the emancipation of women. As you know, this question has been repeatedly discussed in the U.N. Commission on the Status of Women, in the I.L.O. and in other international organizations. And this is understandable since the right to work in the broad sense means not only the economic independence of woman, the opportunity to participate in socially productive labour on an equal footing with man, but also the right to take part in the organization and management of the country's economic life.

The right of women to work has been realized in practice in our country on the basis of the country's rapid economic development. The public ownership of the means of production, the planned national economy, the industrialization of the country and the change from the small-commodity beggarly farming to large-scale, collective mechanized agriculture enabled us to overcome our economic backwardness and ensure the swift progress of the country's entire national economy.

The following table offers ample testimony of this increase in the physical volume of the gross industrial output of the U.S.S.R. (in percentages of 1913).

From this it is easy to see what striking progress has been made in the development of industry in Soviet times.

| Year | Industry as a whole | Large-scale industry |
|------|---------------------|----------------------|
| 1917 | 71 | 63 |
| 1921 | 31 | 21 |
| 1926 | 98 | 108 |
| 1928 | 132 | 152 |
| 1932 | 267 | 352 |
| 1937 | 588 | 816 |
| 1940 | 852 | 1,172 |
| 1945 | 782 | 1,085 |
| 1950 | 1,476 | 2,060 |
| 1955 | 2,723 | 3,900 |

The Soviet Union has been transformed from an agrarian country into an industrial power. Industrialization determined the technical reconstruction of the entire national economy which was accomplished on the basis of up-to-date engineering by mechanization of the labour-consuming processes. This circumstance enabled woman more extensively to apply herself in the leading branches of production.

Enormous changes have also occurred in agriculture. The establishment of collective farms has made it possible to use a great deal of machinery, which has considerably lightened arduous agricultural labour.

Because of the rapid development of our socialist economy, which does not know crises or any of their grave consequences, we were able to abolish unemployment as early as the beginning of the 30's and to provide full employment for the population. This offered women a real guarantee of the right to work.

Let me give you some figures demonstrating how Soviet women exercised their right to work already before the war.

From 1929 to 1941 the number of women workers and employees increased more than three and a half times and constituted about 12 million or 38.4 per cent of all wage-earners.

In industry the share of female labour increased from 27.9 per cent in 1929 to 41.6 per cent in 1939.

In tsarist Russia of all women wage-earners 80 per cent were employed as house servants or farm-hands, but in 1936 only 2 per cent were in domestic service, while the rest worked in various branches of production, in the state apparatus, in educational and scientific institutions.

These results in the realization of the women's right to work were effected by the tremendous efforts of the Soviet state, the trade unions, and other public organizations, to create the conditions enabling woman to work in her chosen field.

What has actually been done?

Tremendous work has been done to raise the cultural level of women: professional schools, courses, technical and other educational establishments have been set up, where women may acquire professions and improve their skills; an extensive state network of children's institutions to help the working mothers bring up their children has also been organized.

Already in 1941, on the eve of the war of the Soviet people against the Nazi aggressors, women played an important part in the entire life of the country.

The war against Hitler Germany seriously affected the development of our economy. It made us mobilize all our forces to ensure victory over the enemy.

It is well known how devastating the war was and what damage it inflicted on our country. The invaders destroyed 31,850 industrial enterprises, 98,000 collective farms, 1,876 state farms, 2,890 machine and tractor stations, 1,710 towns and more than 70,000 villages in the Soviet Union. About 25 million people were left without roofs over their heads. I shall not dwell on the millions of maimed and crippled, the families who lost their breadwinners, fathers, husbands and sons; or on the fact that each day of war required an enormous quantity of planes, guns and shells. The Soviet people spent tremendous mate-

rial and labour resources to produce them. They were forced to spend their energies to ensure victory over the enemy and then to restore what had been destroyed during the war. Of course, this could not but affect the living standards of our people, including the economic position of women.

The great constructive role of our women manifested itself particularly vividly during the hard years of war. With a profound consciousness of her duty to her country and to all mankind the Soviet woman worked selflessly in the rear replacing man in various branches of work. The Soviet woman worked heroically in the name of the freedom of her country, in the name of the safety of her children, for the sake of saving civilization and protecting the independence of other peoples.

After the war women could not and would not stand aside from the immense reconstructive work that had to be done.

We are often reproached by some foreigners that our women work in construction jobs and on road improvement. This situation is the result of the destructive war in which millions of the younger and physically stronger men were killed. We would prefer to see woman mainly at a control panel, at an automatic machine, in the position of engineer, teacher, physician, agronomist, or doing administrative work, etc. But would it have been at all possible for the Soviet Union to defeat the enemy and rise from the ashes and ruins without the help of the women? Could we possibly have reconstructed in four to five years the towns and villages, the plants and factories, the schools and homes destroyed by the war without the active participation of the women?

It is our aim to have our women work only where no great physical effort is required and we are doing all we can to bring this about.

In 1948 the Soviet Union reached the pre-war level of industrial production. In 1955 the pre-war level of industrial output was exceeded more than threefold and that of 1913 more than 27 times.

This rapid development of the country's economy was the basis for the growth of the national income, about three-quarters of which is used in our country for satisfying the personal needs of the population; it serves as the basis for the general rise in the living standard of our people and also for the improvement of the economic position of women.

Suffice it to say that during 1951-55 the national income of the U.S.S.R. increased by 68 per cent. On the basis of a systematic rise in the productivity of labour and reduction of prices, the real wages of factory, office and other workers increased in 1955 by 39 per cent compared with 1950, while the real incomes of the collective farmers increased by 50 per cent. The population is supplied with more foodstuffs and consumer goods with each passing year. Extensive housing construction is under way.

The rapid development of the national economy and the rise in the living standards of the population have set up favourable conditions for the realization of full, all-round equality of women in the economic sphere.

As you know, the Constitution of the U.S.S.R., under which the Soviet women enjoy equality in all walks of life, lays special emphasis on the guarantees of women's rights and the means of their realization.

Article 122 of the Constitution reads:

"... The possibility of exercising these rights is ensured by women being accorded an equal right with men to work, payment for work, rest and leisure, social insurance and education, and by state protection of the interests of mother and child, state aid to mothers of large families and unmarried mothers, maternity leave with full pay, and the provision of a wide network of maternity homes, nurseries and kindergartens."

Taking advantage of their right to work Soviet women play an important part in the various branches of the national economy and culture. They now constitute 45.4 per cent of all the factory, office and other workers engaged in industry. In 1954 the percentage of women workers in ma-

chine-building was 44, electrical engineering—47, radio engineering 55, machine-tool and tool-building—36, transport machine-building—40, and heavy machine-building—33. In some branches of production their proportion is even greater.

The percentage of women among all specialists with a higher education is 53, and among those with a specialized secondary education—66; among economists, statisticians, planning and trade experts—69 per cent; doctors—76, and all medical workers—91; lawyers—31; teachers—70, and library and cultural workers—72 per cent.

The labour of Soviet women engaged in industry has changed qualitatively. Owing to the mechanization and automation of production the number of women working on complex machinery requiring knowledge and skill rather than physical effort increases with each passing year. Thus, in 1954, 41 per cent of automatic machine operators and their apprentices were women, metal drillers—69 per cent, turret-lathe operators—70 per cent, grinders—51 per cent, milling-machine operators—38 per cent, machine-operators—64 per cent, and locomotive and motor drivers—42 per cent.

Many women act as organizers of production, work as forewomen, team-leaders, shop superintendents and directors of enterprises; 480,000 women with higher and secondary special education work as engineers and technicians.

I have already mentioned the fact that the collective-farm system and the high mechanization of agriculture have raised many millions of peasant women to the level of creative endeavour. You will no longer see women cutting wheat with a sickle or threshing it by hand. In 1955, 1,439,000 tractors (in terms of 15 h.p. units), 338,000 grain combines, 544,000 lorries and millions of other complex agricultural machines and implements were operated in agriculture. Woman has firmly taken her place as organizer of agricultural production. It is the usual thing today to see a woman in the position of team-leader, manager of a farm, head or

member of the board of the collective farm; up to 41 per cent of the agronomists, livestock breeders, veterinarians, and foresters with a higher education are women; women constitute 46 per cent of the specialists in these fields with a secondary education.

Let us now consider in greater detail the conditions and guarantees which have enabled Soviet woman so extensively to realize her right to work, and to play so important a part in the economic life of the country.

One of the most important conditions is the opportunity for employment for any woman who wants to work. The absence of unemployment and the rapid development of the economy offer woman unlimited opportunities for applying herself in any field of endeavour.

Age is no obstacle to the employment of women in our country. We do not and cannot have the problem of employment of older women, which is such a pressing one for the women of some other countries. In the U.S.S.R. even the women who receive old-age pensions frequently continue working if they want to. There are especially many of these among the women teachers, physicians and engineers, who even in advanced age do not care to quit their favourite occupation.

We know that the last session of the Commission on the Status of Women adopted a decision to put on the agenda the question "of working women, including working mothers who bear family responsibilities, and measures for improving their position." This problem concerns primarily married women.

It is well known that in some countries married women are either dismissed from work or not engaged. Their right to work is also restricted by the absence of children's institutions where they might keep their children while working.

In our country marriage or motherhood is no obstacle to being hired or a reason for dismissal. Moreover, Soviet laws severely punish anyone who would dare to infringe upon the rights of married women or mothers.

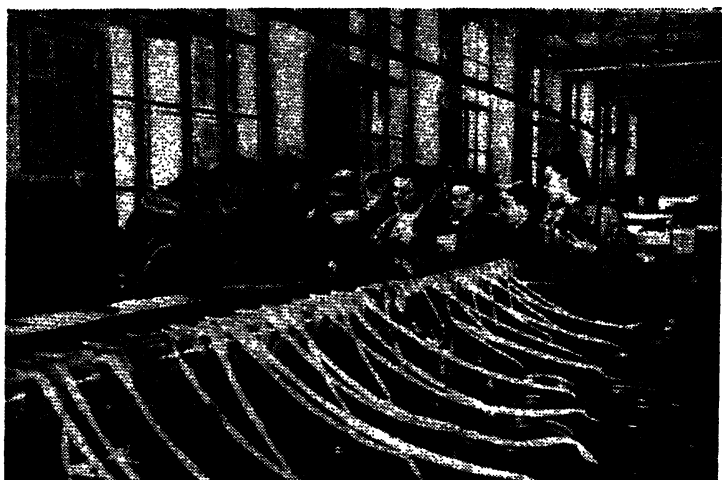
In the U.S.S.R. we have the necessary conditions to give mothers a chance to participate in socially productive labour. State protection of women in industry (of which I shall tell you somewhat later) and various children's institutions—crèches, kindergartens, children's clubs (houses and palaces of Young Pioneers and school children), sports, technical and biological stations, and extended-day groups in schools—help mothers bring up their children. While at work they do not have to worry about their children, who are in crèches or kindergartens under the supervision of teachers and physicians.

The children's summer vacations in Young Pioneer camps and country-homes serve the same purpose.

Of late the Soviet Government and the Communist Party have taken a series of new measures aimed at rendering the working mothers even greater aid in bringing up their children. Extended-day groups are being organized for this purpose in school where the school children will remain after school hours, do their homework and take recreation under the supervision of teachers. In school they will also be able to get dinner for a small fee. Similar groups of school children are being organized in clubs and under apartment-house managements.

Boarding schools, which will be organized in our country on a wide scale, will also greatly help the working mothers and the mothers of large families in rearing their children; 285 new boarding schools, where thousands of children live and study at full state expense, opened on September 1, 1956. The most favourable conditions for the proper physical and mental training of children have been provided in the boarding schools. Children of unmarried mothers and of mothers with large families are the first to be admitted to these schools.

One of the most important conditions which enable Soviet women so extensively to apply themselves in the various spheres of economy and culture, is the *right of woman to acquire an occupation or profession and to improve her*



At the spinnery of the Tryokhgornaya Textile Mill in Moscow, as everywhere else, the guests asked many questions

skill. This right is realized on the basis of universal, free and compulsory seven-year, and now ten-year, general schooling, and easily accessible higher education.

The network of industrial and technical schools, secondary specialized schools and various courses, where women have the same unlimited chance as men to acquire the desired speciality or skill free of charge, has considerably expanded, compared with the pre-war period.

In addition, skilled workers are also trained directly in the shops of the enterprises by means of team and individual apprenticeship. Our legislation protects the rights of apprentices and requires that they be given normal conditions for training.

At the Tryokhgornaya Textile Mill, Moscow, where most of the 5,000 workers are women, the personnel is trained as follows. Different courses are simultaneously attended by 470 people; the school for young workers, which offers a

secondary education, has an enrolment of 300; a secondary specialized school is training 100, while an engineering institute is teaching 60 more of the employees. A special trade school is also training skilled workers for this enterprise.

The present-day composition of the Tryokhgornaya personnel is as follows: 90 people have a higher education, 231 people have a secondary technical education; the rest of the workers have ten- or seven-year schooling in addition to their vocational training.

This is characteristic of most Soviet enterprises.

The following figures show the scope of personnel training and improvement of the workers' skill in our country.

Number of young workers taught factory, building, and transport trades at vocational schools:

| 1941-45 | 1946-50 | 1951-55 |
|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| 2,475,000 | 3,392,000 | 1,736,000 |

Number of farm machine operators trained:

| 1950 | 1955 |
|---------|---------|
| 513,000 | 578,000 |

Number of workers and other employees trained in the mass trades at industrial enterprises and other institutions:

| 1940 | 1950 | 1955 |
|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| 1,950,000 | 2,626,000 | 2,593,000 |

Number of workers and other employees in the mass trades at industrial enterprises and other institutions who have improved their skill:

| 1940 | 1950 | 1955 |
|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| 1,655,000 | 5,038,000 | 4,978,000 |

In addition, factory apprentice schools trained:

| 1940 | 1950 | 1955 |
|--------|--------|---------|
| 61,000 | 93,000 | 100,000 |

These millions of skilled workers include a big percentage of women.

One of the most important aspects of the problem of the equality of women is *opportunity for promotion*. This is closely connected with women's opportunities for acquiring a speciality and for improving their skill. Competence enables woman to win authority and recognition. Special attention is devoted to the promotion of women in our country. Our trade-union and other public organizations frequently discuss the problem of promoting women to leading positions. Women promoted to higher posts are rendered practical help and support.

You will meet many women in leading positions who have come all the way from a rank-and-file worker to a leader, from a worker to a shop superintendent or director of an enterprise.

Here are several actual examples: Maria Shaitanova began working in 1924 as a machine operator in the cake department of the Moscow Krasny Oklyabr Confectionery Factory. Somewhat later she was wrapping sweets in the candy department. From 1931 to 1937 she worked as laboratory technician and junior chemist in the factory's central laboratory. Then came years of study and work in organizing the technical training of the personnel in the same factory. In 1951 Maria Shaitanova was promoted to the post of Director of the Moscow Babayev Confectionery Factory, a position she still holds. The results in the work of this factory, which is one of the foremost enterprises, are a tribute to the quality of her management.

The career of Anastasia Makarova, Director of the Moscow Bolshevik Confectionery Factory, is analogous. At first she was a rank-and-file worker, then she was engaged in some administrative capacity. In 1940 she was promoted to the position of shop superintendent and in 1947 to that of Director.

From rank-and-file worker to manager of an enterprise through extensive practical work and study in higher educational establishments is the career of many women who

occupy responsible positions in industry. These include Maria Ivanova—Director of the Moscow Yava Tobacco Factory, Antonina Smolnikova—Director of a Leningrad confectionery factory, Sophia Tsvetkova—Director of the Vichuga Textile Plant, Menzira Rzayeva—Director of the Volodarsky Factory in Azerbaijan, and many others.

In Turkmenia, where there were hardly any literate women under the tsarist regime, 30 women are now in charge of industrial enterprises. In the small Tajik Union Republic, which was formerly also a tsarist colony, there are 240 women engineers and technicians, 80 shop superintendents and 286 forewomen, whereas before the Revolution you would not have met even a single literate and skilled working woman.

To give you a better picture of how our women developed and advanced, what difficulties they had to surmount in their way, I shall tell you about the peasant woman Pasha Angelina, the first Soviet woman to become a tractor driver.

To become a tractor driver she had to overcome many difficulties because during the first years of Soviet rule the ignorant and backward elements in the countryside resisted any attempt made by a woman to rise above the prejudices that had prevailed through the centuries.

Pasha Angelina remembers the day she drove her tractor on to the field for the first time. It was a long-awaited day, a day she had thoroughly prepared for. But she was stoned and the day ended for her on a hospital cot. Nevertheless, Pasha Angelina did not give in. She fought her way to the top and became a foremost worker, an innovator. The country knows and loves her and the famous tractor team she is leading at the Staro-Beshevsk Machine and Tractor Station. The life of this woman, who has mastered technique and become a model for many other girls and women, is typical. Angelina says that herself. Several years ago she received a biographical questionnaire from *Who's Who* (New York). Pasha Angelina answered through the press:

“The questionnaire was so detailed that it asked for the date of my wedding and my mother’s maiden name. But this detailed questionnaire lacked the main question: how have I, an illiterate farm-hand, become a state worker, a Deputy to the Supreme Soviet? Without this question ‘how?’ it is impossible to understand and appreciate the life of a Soviet person, and, consequently, my life. The main thing is not in my person, but in the fact that my rise is not an exception. I have risen together with the entire people and that is the main thing.”

The working career of our women, their study and advancement in work have proceeded, as you see, in battle to surmount difficulties, through struggle with prejudices and survivals of the past. It has not been as easy a career as it might have appeared at first sight. But the main thing, as Pasha Angelina puts it, is that the advancement of women is not the exception, but the rule. Our women are advancing together with the entire Soviet people.

In creating favourable conditions for the Soviet women to realize their right to work, the Soviet state has taken a number of measures to make housework easier for women.

We have a wide network of moderately priced dining-rooms from which meals can be taken home. Each enterprise, large institution and educational establishment has canteens and snack-bars and many workers and other employees take their meals there.

The sale of ready-to-cook foods is practised on an ever-increasing scale. More and more people are ordering and having food delivered to their homes; this is a great time-saver in housekeeping. Production of refrigerators, washing-machines, electric floor-polishers, vacuum cleaners and various devices for peeling and preparing vegetables and fruit is increasing. The number of laundries and repair shops is constantly growing and freeing women from the laborious work of washing, ironing, and darning underwear and clothes. And last but not least our homes are improving,

there are more and more houses with central heating and gas, hot and cold water, plumbing, baths, refuse chutes and lifts.

We are very well aware that we are still a long way from our goal in this field, but we have set ourselves the task of surmounting the existing difficulties in the very near future.

Let us examine the working conditions of Soviet women in greater detail.

It would be no exaggeration to say that next to the right to work, the most important problem for the women of many countries is the implementation of the principle of *equal pay* for equal work.

We know the place this problem occupies in the activity of the Commission on the Status of Women, the U.N. Economic and Social Council, and the International Labour Organization. Much attention is devoted to it by various international women's associations, trade unions, and other organizations. It was discussed at the World Women's Congress of 1953, at the Congress of the World Federation of Trade Unions, at the International Conference of Working Women and at many other international and national conferences and congresses.

That is why Convention No. 100 on equal pay for equal work, adopted by I.L.O., was met with approval.

The Presidiums of the Supreme Soviets of the U.S.S.R., Byelorussia, and the Ukraine ratified this convention in 1956, thereby reaffirming the principle which has been followed since the establishment of Soviet power. Soviet laws prescribe strict punishment for the least attempt to deviate from this rigid principle.

Our experience refutes the fairly widespread theory that the payment of women's labour on the same terms as that of men is a heavy burden on a country's economy.

In the Soviet Union, men and women workers are paid in accordance with the quantity and quality of what they produce. All workers on piece work, men and women, of the

same qualifications and carrying out the same work are paid at the same piece-rates.

Here is an example. At the Moscow Motor Works, 5th category workers Alexandra Kuznetsova and Ivan Glushko operate one and the same grinding machine in different shifts and do similar types of jobs. The following gives an idea of their earnings:

| | March, 1956 | April, 1956 |
|----------------------|--------------|--------------|
| Kuznetsova | 1,100 rubles | 1,200 rubles |
| Glushko | 1,160 " | 1,200 " |

If a woman is an executive she likewise receives the same pay, which includes the salary and bonuses which are based on output and quality. Here are some data from the Orjonikidze Machine-Tool Works, Moscow:

| Name | Position | Salary | Monthly pay in 1956, including bonuses (in rubles) | | | |
|------------------|-------------------------|--------|--|----------|-------|-------|
| | | | January | February | March | April |
| T. P. Komarova* | Supt. of finishing shop | 1,300 | 1,550 | 1,514 | 1,634 | 2,119 |
| V. A. Suslin . . | Supt. of machine shop | 1,350 | 1,650 | 1,850 | 1,350 | 1,350 |
| E. I. Trofimova* | Laboratory chief | 1,400 | 1,400 | 1,775 | 1,400 | 1,400 |
| V. V. Berdnikov | " " | 1,400 | 1,400 | 1,752 | 1,400 | 1,400 |

Equal pay with men is received by women teachers, doctors, office employees and women of other professions.

Thus, Soviet women not only have a legal right to equal pay with men for equal work but also enjoy that right in practice.

Having created real conditions for implementing the right of women to work, to learning a profession and to equal

* Komarova and Trofimova are women.—Tr

pay for equal work, the Soviet Government *is doing everything to safeguard the labour of women* and seeks to protect their health.

Taking into account the physiological peculiarities of women and the interests of maternity and child protection, Soviet labour legislation provides special guarantees for the protection of the labour of women.

First let us acquaint ourselves with what is being done to protect the labour of working people in general, men and women.

At the very beginning of Soviet power, the decision of the Council of People's Commissars of November 11, 1917, introduced an eight-hour working day for all working people.

In 1956, by decision of the Soviet Government, the working day for all working people was reduced by two hours on Saturdays and the eve of holidays without any cut in pay.

Beginning with 1957, all factory, office and other workers with an eight-hour working day will gradually go over to a seven-hour working day, and those engaged in the key underground trades in the coal and ore mining industries to a six-hour day without any cut in pay. This measure will be completed by 1960.

On July 1, 1956, juveniles of both sexes (from 16 to 18 years) returned to the six-hour working day, which was introduced during the first days of Soviet rule but was temporarily increased to eight hours because of the difficulties of the war years.

All Soviet factories and offices annually grant their workers and employees a paid leave of from two weeks to two months depending on the character of the work.

Soviet labour protection legislation is an important theme in itself for a report and I therefore cannot dwell on this question in detail. I shall only note that our legislation is based on solicitude for people, for their health. Soviet laws establish sanitary-hygienic standards for working conditions (lighting, ventilation, space, temperature of air, clothes lockers, showers, drinking water, greenery, and so

forth), safety rules (machine guards to prevent injuries, protective masks during work with hot metal, and so on), provide for the issue of working clothes, additional free special diets in harmful trades, etc.

Control of the observance of labour protection laws by the heads and managements of all enterprises, offices, etc., is carried out by the trade unions. Trade-union technical inspectors may make the head of any office, factory, plant or workshop administratively responsible for any violation of labour protection laws or safety regulations or take action against such executives through the courts.

In the U.S.S.R. no enterprise may be put in operation without the sanction of the State Industrial Sanitary Inspection and the trade unions' technical inspectorate.

The scope and importance of the work being done in the sphere of labour protection may be gauged from the fact that we have special labour protection research institutes in which thousands of highly trained scientists are working in close contact with industry.

We have already noted that Soviet legislation has instituted special rules and guarantees for the protection of female labour.

What, then, are these guarantees?

The code of labour laws *prohibits the employment of women on heavy or harmful work* (Art. 129, C.I.L.), such as the smelting and pouring of molten metal, rolling hot metal, cleaning gas mains. Women may not be employed in a number of branches of the chemical, printing, and meat industries, on a number of jobs in the railway, sea and local transport services as well as in the mining industry, construction and municipal economy.

As a result of greater mechanization and automation of industry and better industrial safety and sanitation, women began to take jobs that were formerly closed to them, such as, for example, tractor and lorry driving.

At the same time the Soviet Government passed special rules "On the Labour Conditions of Women Tractor and

Lorry Drivers," which provided for a monthly medical examination of these women and, depending on the results of this examination, their transfer to other jobs; special tractor starting devices and cushioned seats; paid leave during the menstrual period upon presentation of medical certificates, and so forth.

At enterprises employing large numbers of women workers, personal hygiene rooms containing separate cabins with running warm water and all the necessary women's personal hygiene articles have been opened. Trained nurses are in attendance at these rooms.

In our country particular care is devoted to the protection of the labour and health of mothers.

The law prohibits the employment of nursing mothers in overtime or night work. This applies also to expectant mothers beginning with the fourth month of pregnancy, and beginning with the fifth month, they cannot be sent on business trips unless they agree to go themselves. Nursing mothers are likewise exempt from trips. On the recommendation of a doctor, the management of a factory or office is obliged to transfer an expectant mother to lighter work without reducing her former average pay.

To create favourable conditions for the normal development of babies and protect the health of mothers, working women are, in addition to their annual leaves, granted maternity leaves. The duration of the latter is 56 days before and 56 days after the birth of the baby, i.e., 112 days or almost four months. In the event of an abnormal birth or the birth of more than one baby, the post-natal leave is longer. It is important to stress that during this leave women receive full pay. Unlike the situation in certain countries, in the Soviet Union a management may not refuse to grant such a leave or dismiss the worker at the end of the leave. The heads of factories and offices are charged with the responsibility of timing the regular leave to the maternity leave if the woman so requests.

No manager has the right to refuse to hire an expectant or nursing mother or to cut her pay for these reasons.

In order to give the working mother the opportunity of feeding her baby normally and on time, she is, in addition to the regular rest and lunch break, allowed a break of at least half an hour not less often than every three and a half hours of work. These breaks are paid for according to average earnings.

An approximately similar system of female labour protection is in force in the collective farms as well.

In the U.S.S.R. women have the same social insurance rights as men. Like the men, they receive grants out of the state social insurance funds in case of temporary disablement. (Pensions on account of old age and disability are paid out of social insurance funds and from the state budget. There is a special report on that.)

A distinguishing feature of our social insurance is that the workers do not bear the expense. The state social insurance fund is formed by contributions paid by factories and offices themselves. If you glance at the estimates of any factory or office, you will see a special item headed "Deductions for the Social Insurance Fund."

This state social insurance fund is administered by the trade unions. Local trade-union bodies determine the amount of temporary disablement grants against medical certificates.

Maternity grants, which I have mentioned, are likewise paid out of the state social insurance fund, but their size is equal to the full average earnings of the women receiving maternity leave, i.e., 100 per cent. Besides, allowances for care and feeding of the child are paid from the state social insurance fund.

The working woman is released from work in the event of her child falling ill and is paid an allowance from the social insurance fund.

The Soviet woman has the right to rest on equal terms with men.

The working people of our country, whether they are men or women, annually receive a paid leave of from two weeks to two months depending on the kind of work.

In order to give the working people the opportunity of taking a good rest during their leaves, there are holiday homes, sanatoriums and resorts in the loveliest and climatically healthful places of our country. These are accessible to all factory, office and other workers, their families, and students. They will be dealt with in detail in another report. I should only like to note that about five million men and women go to these holiday homes and resorts annually. The plan of our Seminar provides for a trip to Sochi, one of our southern resorts where you will see for yourselves how Soviet people spend their holidays.

In organizing the holidays of the working people, the Soviet Government and the trade unions devote particular attention to mothers. We have holiday homes that cater specially for mothers with children. The children are looked after by nurses. Meanwhile, mothers can have a good rest and be with their children at the same time.

It should be noted that some of the factory, office and other workers spending their leaves at sanatoriums or holiday homes pay nothing for their accommodation, while others pay only 30 per cent of the cost. The remaining 70 per cent is borne by the trade unions which get the money from the state social insurance fund.

In summing up, it must be remarked that the economic position of the working people of our country is determined not only by their earnings but also by state expenditure for social and cultural undertakings. If it is taken into consideration that factory, office and other workers receive social insurance grants, free passes or passes at reduced rates to sanatoriums and holiday homes, similar passes to children's establishments, annual paid leaves, free medical attention, free tuition for their children at secondary schools and institutions of higher learning, and if we take into account allowances for mothers of many children and for

unmarried mothers, stipends for students at universities, institutes and technical colleges, free vocational training and refresher courses, it will be found that they are receiving additions to their earnings which amount to nearly a third of their pay.

My report would be incomplete if I omitted mentioning the attitude of Soviet women to labour.

Here is what Maria Materikova, a worker at the Rabochi Weaving and Spinning Mill, Leningrad, has to say on the subject: "Some women abroad think it strange that most Soviet women are working in all fields—industry, agriculture and cultural work. Actually, there is nothing strange in that. Soviet women work because by their labour they actively help to build a new society and raise the material and cultural standards of their people. I cannot imagine myself shut off even for a short period from the common work which is uniting our whole people into one family. There is no such hour in my life when I do not feel the pulse of my people, who are building a new society."

Or take Shamama Gasanova, head of the May Day Collective Farm, Azerbaijan. She has three children. Her husband drives a lorry and she manages a huge farm. The people respect her and she has been given the Hero of Socialist Labour award twice. She is a Deputy to the Supreme Soviet. When asked if she wanted to be a housewife again and to have no interests other than her children and husband, she replied: "My children have all the care they need at the nursery school and at home they have their granny. Can anyone fenced off from the world by four walls be called happy? No, and while I have the strength I want to be with the people and to work for the people. I know what fruits my labour will bear and my children will be proud of their mother."

Take the case of Marina Soboleva, the wife of the director of a factory and the mother of three children. She was a technician, but when her children came she wanted to devote more time to their upbringing and left her job. When

her children grew up, Marina went back to work. She could sew, embroider and knit and was on the school committee. But all that did not satisfy her. She wanted to have a job that would draw her closer to public activity, give her the opportunity to develop herself and to live a full life.

The aspirations and thoughts of these women are characteristic of the majority of Soviet women.

Our women are working or seeking to work not only because their earnings add to the family budget or because it makes them economically independent. One of the reasons is that they want to share the common interests of the people and to contribute their share to that great and truly majestic work of construction that the Soviet people are engaged in for the sake of a brighter life and their children's happiness.

It can be safely said that labour is becoming a requirement of Soviet people, of Soviet women.

Labour is honoured in our country. Anybody, be it a man or a woman, who is a good worker, enjoys public respect. The Soviet Government has instituted the following decorations to be awarded to men and women for exemplary work: Medal for Valorous Labour, the Order of the Red Banner of Labour and lastly, the highest award—the Order of Lenin and the title of Hero of Socialist Labour.

Thus the Soviet Government accords recognition to the distinguished labour of both men and women.

* * *

In my report I naturally could not dwell at sufficient length on all questions connected with the equality of women in the economic field or the economic position of women. However, I believe that personal contacts with our women at factories, offices, and collective farms and first-hand knowledge of their labour conditions will give participants in this Seminar a better idea of our country.

Another point I should like to stress is that in our country the big and complicated problem of improving the economic

position of women and their conditions of labour is not considered as solved.

We frankly admit that we have our difficulties and shortcomings. For example, we still have cases when a manager violates labour legislation in respect to the protection of female labour, while the trade unions do not always take timely measures against such a manager. There are cases when the management of an enterprise does not ensure the building of children's and service establishments in time. After the severe destruction wrought by the war, in spite of the fast rate of construction, there is still a fairly acute housing problem. We have not yet attained the standard of living we should like to have.

We sharply and frankly criticize our shortcomings at meetings, conferences, congresses and in the press. We accept all just criticism, as that helps us to take effective measures to eliminate shortcomings.

But our difficulties are difficulties of growth and not of decline. Most of the difficulties arise in consequence of our country's extreme backwardness in the past and of the losses that our national economy sustained as a result of two world wars, foreign intervention and Civil War.

In their development, the Soviet people are forging ahead along unblazed trails and, naturally, quite a few difficulties arise on that uninvestigated road. It could not be otherwise, for we are building a new society which has no precedent in the annals of mankind, a society of which many progressives could only dream.

Today, our people are working on the tremendous tasks set by the Sixth Five-Year Plan of National Economic Development (1956-60).

In 1960 industrial production in our country is scheduled to reach a level 65 per cent above 1955, and output is to be 5.3 times greater than in 1940. The plan envisages the further mechanization and automation of industry at a rapid rate. Automation reduces the expenditure of physical labour to a minimum and thus creates the most favourable condi-

tions for still broader employment of women. The level of social production that has been attained enables the Soviet state to advance at a rapid pace not only the production of the means of production but also the production of consumer goods, which will increase by 60 per cent in the course of the current five-year plan. For instance, the output of footwear, clothes and underwear will increase by more than one and a half times, and the assortment will be increased and quality improved. Much more linen and the highest grades of woollen fabrics will be produced.

In 1960 the total intake of grain will reach 11,000 million poods and the output of meat and milk will be more than doubled as compared with 1955.

The country's national income will increase by 60 per cent. That will allow raising the real earnings of factory, office and other workers by an average of 30 per cent, while the incomes of the collective farmers in cash and in kind will grow by at least 40 per cent.

In its effort to improve the housing situation as speedily as possible, the Soviet Government intends to build twice as much floor-space during the Sixth Five-Year Plan as during the preceding five-year period. On state funds alone some 205 million square metres of floor-space will be built in cities, industrial settlements and rural localities. The buildings going up will have maximum conveniences. Besides, the Government does everything to encourage and help people to build private homes on their personal savings and on state credits.

There will be a sharp increase in the output of comfortable and inexpensive furniture and its quality will be improved.

Pursuing the line of rendering over-all assistance to working mothers and of creating conditions which would help women to combine their work with their duties as mothers and housewives, the Sixth Five-Year Plan envisages the building of 2.4 times more children's establishments than were built during the preceding five-year plan. There will be 44 per cent more accommodation at crèches

and 45 per cent more at nursery schools. Every year will see an increase in the number of boarding schools and extended-day groups at schools.

The network of service establishments, laundries, dress-making establishments, clothes and footwear repair shops is growing. There will be a substantial increase in the output of machines and articles that lighten housework—household electric appliances, washing and sewing machines, improved kitchen utensils.

The number of public dining-rooms, cafés and snack-bars selling inexpensive dishes will be considerably increased. More ready-to-cook food of all kinds will be put on sale. All this will save the labour of women in housework.

The pension scheme has been radically improved. More and more schools, clubs, theatres, libraries, maternity homes, hospitals, and homes for the aged are being opened.

All these measures will facilitate the further improvement of living standards and of the working and living conditions of women and will provide them with still greater opportunities of participating in industrial, cultural and social and political activity.

Soviet women are confident that the far-reaching Sixth Five-Year Plan will be fulfilled and that the Soviet people will thereby take another big stride along the path of happiness and prosperity.

REPLIES GIVEN BY N. POPOVA TO QUESTIONS ON HER REPORT

1. Question by Mme. Anne Odegaard (Open Door International, Norway).

Soviet labour legislation provides special guarantees for the protection of the labour of women, prohibiting their employment on heavy work. Such special legislation and guarantees may be detrimental to the woman worker, because they lower her status as a worker and sometimes segregate her at the bottom of the wage market. They limit her in the choice of employment and in reality protect man by creating a monopoly for him in certain fields.

Special regulations and laws for women are in contradiction to the United Nations Charter and to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. They are in contradiction to the striving of women all over the world in their struggle for equality. If laws give women certain advantages, then men, in their turn, have the moral right to demand special advantages.

I heard that it is your aim to have your women work only where no great physical effort is required. I want to warn you not to do that. It is not the right approach to the problem. A woman must be free to work and decide for herself what work she will do. Otherwise she is converted into a slave or an underdeveloped person.

You have a lower pension age for women. That is a discrimination against women. Such privileges put her in a

class apart and stamp her as an inferior person. It makes her less valuable to the employer.

In Sweden, for instance, the difference in pension age is being used as a most effective argument against the establishment of equal pay. In countries where the employer bears the cost of pensions, a lower pension age for women workers makes employers prefer to hire men. That, in its turn, prevents women from finding employment. A lower pension age may be used as an excuse by the employer to get rid of a woman employee at the very time when she is already skilled in her job and is receiving a higher wage. It may also be a temptation for the employer to replace older women workers by younger women workers. . . .

Every pension may be presumed to be considerably lower than the salary earned by the employee. Statistics show that these laws operate against women, against their interests, because they lead employers to take action that is directed against women. Therefore, the pension age should be determined by the kind of work.

I hold that special laws for women are contrary to the principles stated in the United Nations Charter and in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, which declare that there should be no discrimination on the basis of sex.

Reply: In order to explain all these questions we have to bear the following in mind:

1. Here, in the Soviet Union, where public ownership of the means of production is the basis of the relations of production, our attitude and practice in resolving human destinies in the provision of work is quite different from the procedure in many countries where power is in the hands of the capitalists.

There are no private enterprises and employers in the Soviet Union. The implements and means of production belong to the people. Our factories, plants and mines are not managed by private employers, factory owners or manufacturers, but by representatives of the state. For that reason, no factory director or mine superintendent can act arbitrar-

ily or do what he likes without regard for the existing Soviet orders. His sacred duty is strictly to observe Soviet laws that have been adopted and approved by the people. If the manager of any enterprise violates these laws he is criticized either by higher administrative bodies, the trade-union or other public organization, or by the Press. He is corrected and bound to conduct himself within the framework of the laws. Managers who persist in violating them are relieved of their jobs.

The second extremely important circumstance is that we have no unemployment. Moreover, even if our population increases at a still faster rate, we shall be able to engage an additional few score million people in our national economy because we neither have nor can have grounds for competition in obtaining work.

In posing her question, our esteemed Mme. Odegaard naturally proceeds from the conditions existing in countries where the implements and means of production are in the hands of private employers, who utilize their right as owners, and decide questions of hire and dismissal exclusively in the interests of personal profit, without taking any account of the interests of the working people. Therefore, Mme. Odegaard correctly emphasizes that in these conditions older people may be laid off so that younger women may be hired and that expectant and nursing mothers may be refused jobs. In Soviet conditions that can never take place.

One of the great achievements of the October Socialist Revolution is that it introduced laws and practices that made the drawing in of women into social production, the lightening of their labour, the improvement of their life and the provision of all kinds of privileges and advantages to them a major state concern. Bearing in mind that in most cases women are physically weaker than men, and taking into account the features of their physiology, their functions of motherhood, we deem it absolutely right that a lower pension age has been established for them. All women in the

Soviet Union without exception are deeply grateful to their Government for this approach to the important problem of social security.

2. If a man and a woman with the same qualifications apply for the same job, in whose favour is the issue decided? The same concerns promotion. To whom is preference given in this case?

In the Soviet Union women are not discriminated against. They enjoy equal rights with men both in political and economic life. The question of who should be taken on to fill a vacancy, when the candidates are a man and a woman with the same qualifications, is decided on the spot, depending primarily on who applied for the job first or depending on who is preferable for the given work. As an illustration, enterprises of the textile, light and food industries, as well as offices and administration bodies, willingly hire women, who, because of quite natural features, themselves strive to get a job which entails less physical effort.

In practice, problems such as these never arise, because our national economy develops in accordance with the laws of enlarged production and, as I have already said, we have no unemployment. Therefore, we neither have nor can have competition or any kind of rush for jobs.

The question of promotion is decided on the basis of efficiency only, the possibility of making better use of one person or another irrespective of sex. We have countless cases of women standing at the head of the most diverse sectors of work and even whole branches of industry, culture, science and public health.

3. Do girls have broad access to technical education?

Girls and women have full access both to secondary and higher technical education without any restrictions. Suffice it to say that 52 per cent of the 285,600 students (correspondence students bring that number up to 461,400) enrolled in institutions of higher learning in the 1955-56 scholastic year alone are girls and women. As regards vocational schools and other secondary specialized educational es-

tablishments, 55 per cent of the 600,000 pupils enrolled in them are girls. These figures convincingly show how extensive are the opportunities that women have of receiving a secondary and a higher technical education. Of the total student body of 3,828,000 in vocational schools and other secondary specialized educational establishments as well as in universities and colleges (including correspondence departments) about half are women and girls.

4. Are women allowed a partial, incomplete working day?

Soviet legislation gives the management of enterprises and offices the right to grant women (and men) a shorter working day or week if that is allowed by the working conditions.

In practice, a shorter working day is most frequently allowed in the public catering system, among ticket-collectors in cinemas and in some other professions.

5. Would it not be better to increase the wage of the married man and thus free the woman from having to work?

In the Soviet Union, women work not only because their earnings augment the family budget, although, naturally, that factor is very important. As active and equal members of society, they are building a new life shoulder to shoulder with men, and share in the production of material values that help to raise the living standard of the whole people.

In the U.S.S.R., labour has stopped being only a means of making a living; it is becoming a necessity that neither men nor women can do without. For many advanced people in our country, labour has even become a need to apply their knowledge and experience in the chosen field.

Insofar as in Soviet society every person can receive an education and professional knowledge, women make wide use of these opportunities and successfully work in all sectors of the national economy except those which might bring them harm as mothers. Full economic equality creates the conditions in which the woman receives material independence, an equal position both in society and in the family, and the tremendous moral satisfaction from the conscious-

ness that her destiny is indisputably in her own hands and that she is an active and equal builder of a new life.

Soviet working women have no intention whatsoever of giving up work and immersing themselves solely in family affairs. If they had that would have amounted to a long step back from the far-reaching democratic achievements scored by the women of the Soviet Union in the past 40 years.

6. Are mothers the only people who are responsible for the upbringing of children in your country?

The notion that in our country only the mother bears the responsibility for the upbringing of children and that the entire burden of looking after them rests on her is deeply erroneous. This notion has nothing in common with reality. By law, the father bears as much responsibility for the upbringing of children as does the mother. But you and I are women, and each of us realizes that nobody can replace the mother and for that reason it is quite natural that most of the cares connected with the upbringing of children lie on her shoulders. It cannot be otherwise, especially if it concerns children of pre-school age. In that case it is difficult for the father to substitute for the mother and there is no need for making unnecessary demands of him. We, women, are proud that we are adequately fulfilling our honourable duties as mothers. When the children grow up and begin to go to school, the father begins to take a larger share of the responsibility for bringing them up. In our country there are no exceptions in this: both the mother and the father have equal rights in the upbringing of their children.

Insofar as motherhood brings with it many cares, we fully realize that in order to secure genuine equality for women they must be given special additional conditions in which they would really feel that their lot is easier and would be able to participate in social production and cultural life. For this purpose, in particular, in the Soviet Union we have a network of crèches and nursery schools (we do not think

we have a sufficient number of them and are taking steps to enlarge the network); public dining-rooms that deliver lunches, ready-to-cook food and foodstuffs; a network of public laundries and factories producing articles that lighten the work of women; long pre-natal and post-natal leaves; the opportunity to get extra leave, and so forth. Thus are additional conditions created and the solicitude for the work and life of women carried into effect.

7. Does not the upbringing of children in children's establishments lead to their estrangement from their parents?

The entire Soviet system of public education of the rising generation is built up on the principle of close contact between the children's establishments and the surrounding life and, first and foremost, the family. Everything is done to get parents to help organize the life and activity of children in schools, nursery schools, boarding schools, extra-class establishments and so on that are being set up by the state. That is one of the greatest requirements of the Soviet system of public education and pedagogical science.

It must be pointed out that today a large number of children go to day nursery schools. Children stay in these schools for as long as their mothers are busy at work or at study. The length of the working day of mothers is such that in most cases children spend sufficient time with the family.

However, there are women who are employed at enterprises where the work is done in shifts: morning, evening and night shifts (communications, hospitals, bakeries, municipal transport, etc.). Women who are employed on long-distance trains, the civil airways, the river transport and so forth, are compelled to be away from home for longer periods.

In order to meet the needs of these mothers in the best possible way and to create normal conditions for the upbringing of their children, we have boarding groups and boarding nursery schools. The children live there and go

home for the week-ends and holidays. Now that the working day on Saturdays and on the eve of holidays has been shortened by two hours, children spend considerably more time with their families on these days. In addition, the nursery school managements welcome visits by parents. At any time that is convenient to them and the nursery school, parents come to see their children.

Besides these schools, we have countryside boarding schools and sanatoriums for both healthy children and for children with weak health. The children do not lose touch with their parents. They go home on Saturdays and come back on Mondays. Where that cannot be done, the parents go and see their children themselves. When parents go on their annual leaves, they usually take their children with them. In children's sanatoriums and during the summer, when the children are taken to the countryside, they meet their parents regularly.

Enrolment in a boarding school likewise does not mean tearing children away from the family. First of all, they are accepted in a boarding school only at the request of their parents. Women engaged in production or in public life regard boarding schools as establishments that are called upon to help them bring their children up as cultured, educated and healthy people.

As I have pointed out, enrolment in a boarding school does not by any means lead to estrangement from the family. First, parents may visit their children, for which purpose there are special guest-rooms. Second, children go home for week-ends and holidays and also for the duration of vacations. Third, in line with the assistance rendered to boarding schools by the public, parents help them in their work, do spells of duty, help the teachers, organize holidays and so forth. All the educational work in nursery and boarding schools is conducted with an eye to bring out, sustain, and develop the children's love for their parents. The children make presents for their near ones and invite them to their parties.

Public pre-school and school education in the Soviet Union is realized in close unity with parents and is based on genuine respect for the family and on the strengthening of the authority of the child's near ones.

8. Does not large-scale mechanization and automation worry you? Will it not lead to unemployment?

Insofar as our economy is founded on public ownership, and all branches of the national economy are developing in accordance with a plan based on actual raw material, fuel and power resources, on a calculation of all the productive forces in the country, there can be no danger of unemployment. Moreover, we are doing everything in our power to introduce automation, mechanization and telemechanics, and all the achievements of science and engineering, into all fields of production and economy in order to lighten the labour of the workers and to free as many industrial, office and other workers as possible for other sectors of production, where there is a shortage of personnel.

Through large-scale mechanization and automation we aim and shall continue to aim at providing workers with safer and better labour conditions.

Mechanization and automation do not provoke fear among our people for another reason; they are a means of further reducing the working day. We have already started preparations to shorten the working day to seven and six hours. Already now a number of enterprises and pits have gone over to the seven- and six-hour working day. Within the next few years, the shorter working day will be universal in this country and after that, as the national economy and labour productivity will grow, the working day will be shortened still further without any reduction in wages and salaries at a time when living standards will undoubtedly be higher.

In our country, every year witnesses both an increase in the number of industrial, office and other workers and a growth of the wages and salaries fund.

9. On what principle are industrial, office and other workers given leaves in the Soviet Union?

Industrial, office and other workers receive an annual leave of a fortnight or a month depending on the kind of work they do. A month's leave is given to workers engaged in heavier or harmful work, to doctors, workers in the timber industry and so on, and all juveniles under 18.

Two months' leave is granted to teachers of schools, vocational schools, colleges and universities, workers employed underground, the medical personnel of isolation hospitals and hospitals for mental diseases, workers and employees in the Far North, and others.

To make the picture complete, I shall add that at the disposal of industrial, office and other workers there are 1,083 sanatoriums with accommodation for 178,000 people. In addition there are 939 holiday homes (apart from one-day holiday homes) with accommodation for 160,000 people.

Tens of millions of working people spend their leaves in the Crimea and the Caucasus, on the shores of the Sea of Azov, the Black, Caspian and Baltic seas, and in the numerous picturesque spots throughout the country.

10. Are Soviet trade unions empowered to impose sanctions on the management of enterprises or establishments for violating labour legislation whether with regard to women or to working people in general?

Yes, they are. According to Article 133 of the Criminal Code, any business executive may be made answerable, taken to court if necessary, for violating the collective agreement or labour legislation. Our trade unions have extensive rights.

The purpose of trade unions in our country was defined by Lenin, who called them a school of administration, a school of management, a school of communism.

At a recent sitting of the U.S.S.R. Central Council of Trade Unions, we examined violations of labour legislation at two factories. The directors of these factories were relieved of their posts by the Ministry concerned.

11. Are profits the result of overfulfilment by all workers of their work quotas or does the general income of enterprises depend on other reasons?

The income or profits of an enterprise depend not only on the fulfilment or overfulfilment of the work quotas by the workers (although that is the main reason) but also on a precise and proper organization of the production process as a whole.

Overfulfilment of the work quotas testifies to the higher productivity of the labour of workers, which leads to greater profits for the enterprise and to a growth of wages and salaries, because in our socialist conditions growth of labour productivity multiplies public wealth and gives rise to greater prosperity among the working people.

At Soviet enterprises, the absolute majority of workers fulfil or overfulfil their work quotas. This is fostered by systematic betterment of the organization and conditions of labour, improvement of the technological process, and the introduction of new machinery. In cases where the work quotas are not fulfilled the management and the trade-union body at the enterprise help the workers to raise their qualification, see that they get the proper training, and take steps to improve the organization and the servicing of the workbenches.

12. Don't you think that the large-scale construction of private houses encouraged by your Government might result in the restoration of capitalist orders?

No, because these houses cannot be used for gain. They are the personal property of the consumer, which is something we have never renounced. Every citizen may own the articles he uses, may build a house, have a summer cottage and other articles of comfort and household use. In our country, such ownership cannot be an instrument of profit, an instrument of exploitation.

13. How are wages set for workers who cannot be put on a piece-rate?

The main principles of payment for labour are established by the Government on the recommendation of the Ministries. Furthermore, the Government sets the lowest wage that enterprises and establishments may pay for labour. The wage-rates in the different branches of industry are set by the Ministries concerned with the approval of the Central Executive Committee of Trade Unions.

Higher rates are set for workers engaged in hot shops, heavy or harmful work, and so forth.

Workers who cannot be put on a piece-rate because their labour does not allow instituting a quota and cannot be calculated (for example, electricians, repair fitters, technical control department inspectors, and others) are paid a fixed wage. In addition, these workers receive bonuses for qualitative indices in their work such as for economizing on material, fuel or electric power, for reducing the number of rejects and idle hours, etc.

14. Is it true that farmers are not members of a trade union and that the conditions of their labour are determined by resolutions of the collective farm or cooperative?

Members of a collective farm or a producers' cooperative do not belong to a trade union and their labour conditions are determined by the rules of the collective farm or cooperative concerned, by the resolutions of the board of directors of these enterprises and by the decisions of the general meetings of members of the collective farm or producers' cooperative.

Workers of state farms and machine and tractor stations are members of a trade union as are the workers and employees in other branches of the national economy.

15. Does every factory pay a part of its profits to the state?

In the U.S.S.R., factories and plants are the property of the state and therefore their relations with the state are fundamentally different from what is usual in capitalist society.

Every enterprise has its fixed and working capital allotted to it by the Government. It uses this capital for its economic activity. It is natural that as a result of its productive activity an enterprise receives a profit, or, in other words, a net profit. This profit is the excess of the receipts over the sale of the products and the cost of these products. The size of the profits of an enterprise depends on the quantity of the output and the extent to which costs are reduced. The lower the costs and the more products the enterprise puts out, the higher its profits will be.

Every enterprise contributes a deduction from its profits to the State Budget, while many enterprises, depending on the character of their output, pay a so-called turnover tax.

The fact is that in the Soviet Union prices for the products of the heavy industry are such that they cover only the expenses of the enterprise concerned and yield a small, 4-5 per cent, profit. Thus, machines, fuel, electric power and raw materials are received by enterprises of the light industry at prices that are below the actual cost. For that reason, in the light industry costs are low while profits are relatively high since they also include the profits that were not received for the products of the heavy industry. It is this profit, which is actually due not to the light but to the heavy industry, that the state deducts from the profits of enterprises of the light industry in the shape of a tax on the turnover.

The entire profit (net profit) received from state enterprises is the property of the people and is used by the state either for extending production, improving cultural services and the living conditions of the working people, or for general state requirements.

In the event of an enterprise lacking funds, the state returns part of the deductions from its profit in the shape of special appropriations: for enlarging the working capital, for capital construction, for the purchase of new machinery, for the training of personnel.



**A representative of Sudan talks with Ukrainian collective
farmers**

The remainder of the profits, after the contribution to the State Budget has been deducted, stays at the disposal of the enterprise concerned. Part of it is used to extend production, the rest goes into the so-called fund of the enterprise.

The money from this fund is used for the upkeep of children's establishments, for equipping holiday homes and sanatoriums, for bonuses to the workers, engineering and technical personnel and employees, for grants to people in need, and so forth. About half of the money from this fund is used for housing construction and for any repairs needed in the dwelling-houses owned by the enterprise.

16. Three-quarters of the national income is used for the social needs of the population. From where does the state get the money for industry and defence?

Our national income is that part of the social product created by the workers in the socialist national economy which is left over after the means of production consumed for the given period are made up.

In the Soviet Union, where private ownership of the means of production does not exist, the entire national income is the property of the working people. The purpose of its distribution is to achieve a steady rise in the welfare of the whole Soviet people.

The socialist state concentrates a part of the national income by means of the State Budget. Tremendous sums of money are earmarked for social and cultural measures, pensions, grants, for the salaries of public education and public health workers, as well as for the expenses of the social and cultural establishments themselves (heating, lighting, medicines and so forth). In addition, certain sums are appropriated to pay the working people engaged in the administrative apparatus and in the country's defence.

The money spent on the personal requirements of all the working people engaged in industry, cultural and service establishments, administration and defence, as well as on the upkeep of enterprises that serve the working people,

amounts to approximately three-quarters of the national income.

About a quarter of the national income in the shape of part of the profits of state and cooperative enterprises, deductions into the indivisible funds of collective farms, and means from the State Budget used for financing the national economy, remains at the disposal of the Government, cooperative enterprises and collective farms. This part of the national income is used for the promotion of socialist production through the accumulation of the fixed and working capital of industry, agriculture, transport and other branches of material production, for increasing the funds earmarked for cultural and everyday needs, for the maintenance of enterprises, administration and defence and for other general state and public needs.

In the U.S.S.R., the national income is growing steadily: in 1955, it was 17 times greater than in 1913 and 68 per cent greater than in 1950. In 1960, the national income will be 60 per cent above the 1955 level.

In 1955, the real wages and salaries of industrial, office and other workers have increased by 39 per cent over the level in 1950, while the incomes of the peasants in cash and kind have increased by 50 per cent in the same period. In the course of the five years between 1955 and 1960, real wages and salaries will grow by another 30 per cent while the peasants' incomes in cash and kind from social and individual economy will grow by 40 per cent (in terms of one worker).

VISIT TO THE KRASNY OKTYABR CONFECTIONERY FACTORY, MOSCOW

September 19, 1956

Anna Grinenko (Director of the Krasny Oktyabr Confectionery Factory):

We have nearly 3,000 workers of whom 85 per cent are women. Our confectionery produces chocolate, sweetmeats, and all the other sweet things that both children and adults love.

We work in two shifts and have a daily output of about 180 tons of confectionery, or an annual output of 50,000 tons. All our products are machine-made. We have machines for making sweets, finishing and wrapping them. That lightens the physical labour of our workers.

Machines help us to increase our output, the more so that by the completion of the five-year plan, our factory has to raise its output to 60,000 tons annually. It must be borne in mind that we are preparing to go over to a seven-hour working day. In other words, we shall be working less even though our output will be higher. For that reason our women in the designing and technological departments, and in the chemical laboratory, are already seeking ways that will allow spending less physical effort and stepping up output at the same time.

Many of our women have children. The children go to nursery schools run by our factory.

We regret that our guests did not come in the summer (we hope they will do that on another occasion) for we



Maria Van Lanschol (the Netherlands) got along without an interpreter at the Krasny Oktyabr Confectionery Factory

cannot invite them to our suburban summer cottages. A lot of small children spend the summer in these cottages. There we frequently hold parties, and the concerts staged by the children are recorded on a tape-recorder and later played over the radio-system in our factory. The children love to appear on the stage, which, of course, pleases their mothers. The successes of these little concerts are such that they may be envied by any professional actor.

To save mothers from worrying about their children, we have a notice-board on which we hang up every day the list of dishes served to the children at the summer cottages.

We have a small out-patient hospital of our own where all our workers receive free medical attention and, what is

most important, advice on disease prevention. Physicians systematically check the health of the workers.

At the confectionery factory, we have a dining-room where the workers can have a meal without wasting time. In addition, they can buy ready-to-cook food so as to reduce their household work. You should note that the manager of the dining-room is a woman, who knows all the needs of women.

All forms of sanitary outer garments are provided free of charge. These garments are laundered and ironed at the factory. Each worker has up to three sets of these garments.

We have our own hairdressing establishment at the factory where our women can get a manicure to keep their hands clean. During working hours, women are not allowed to wear polish on their nails. That sometimes leads to misunderstandings, because our girls, too, like to have beautiful hands. The same thing concerns kerchiefs. We make our women wear their kerchiefs tied tightly round their heads, but some of them persist in curling their hair and letting the curls show from under the kerchiefs. (*Laughter in the hall.*) I suppose it can't be helped because women are women. We all like to look attractive regardless of age and position.

At the factory, we also have a two-year trade school where we train personnel for our shops. Furthermore, we have a general-education secondary school, where youth and girls have the opportunity of receiving a secondary education without interrupting their work. The schools are located near the factory.

Maria Van Lanschot (Dutch Union for Equality of Women):

What is the difference between the secondary school and the two-year trade school?

Anna Grinenko:

At the trade school instruction is mainly in the production of confectionery. Most of the attention there is given to the technology of confectionery production and mechanization and organization of production. True, general subjects are also taught but to a lesser extent. This school is

for people who come to us and have not had a secondary education. Meanwhile, the secondary school provides the opportunity of receiving a general education in order to qualify for enrolment in an institute.

Many of our workers who finished the secondary school without interrupting their work have enrolled in evening and correspondence institutions of higher learning either in our field of work or in some other field that they chose themselves.

Laili Roesad (Member of the U.N. Commission on the Status of Women, Indonesia):

On what budget do these schools operate?

Anna Grinenko:

The money for the upkeep of the premises comes from the factory, all other expenses are covered by the state through the Department of Labour Reserves (trade schools) and the Ministry of Public Education (secondary schools).

Monica Whately:

Do the pupils receive a trade degree when they finish the school?

Anna Grinenko:

Yes, of course.

Monica Whately:

After getting the degree are they entitled to work at any factory?

Anna Grinenko:

Yes.

Maria Van Lanschot:

How many hours a day have to be devoted to study in the trade school and in the ordinary school?

Anna Grinenko:

In the ordinary school studies are conducted for four hours after work, while in the trade school four hours are devoted to theoretical studies and two hours to production practice every day.

The curriculum of the trade school is planned for two years. For that reason, the first year is devoted mostly to

theory and less to practice and the second year is devoted chiefly to practical work.

Maria Van Lanschot:

Evidently, the pupils in the trade school have to study more than in the ordinary school in order to enrol later in an institution of higher learning?

Anna Grinenko:

Graduation from a trade school does not give the right to enter an institute or university. That right is given only after graduation from a secondary school. Our labour legislation entitles young men and women, who study at a secondary or technical school, or an institute without discontinuing work, to additional paid leave. That gives them time in which to prepare for their examinations.

Maria van Lanschot:

Does your evening school give pupils sufficient knowledge to enrol in a university or institute?

Anna Grinenko:

Yes.

Zena Harman:

What is the age of the pupils in the secondary evening school?

Anna Grinenko:

It is different. Mostly between 16 and 18, but there are elderly people as well.

Monica Whately:

What is the lowest age for work at the factory?

Anna Grinenko:

We accept young people from the age of 16. They are taken on as apprentices and study for two years; they work for four hours a day in the day shift only. When they are 18 and receive a definite qualification, they go over to the full eight-hour working day.

Saida Nayer (Iran):

Do all factories of your type have dining-rooms, schools, nursery schools and crèches? And do you export your products?

Anna Grinenko:

I am not acquainted with all factories, but the factories I know all have nursery schools, crèches, dining-rooms and so on.

In the textile and light industries there are enterprises where a large number of women workers are concentrated. As a rule, these have children's establishments as that helps to employ female labour in our factories.

Our products are exported, for example such sweets as *Teddy Bear*.

Our factory participated in a few international exhibitions. This year, for instance, we displayed our products at 16 international exhibitions.

Mehrangis Dowlatshahi:

You said you have a dining-room, an out-patient clinic and other establishments for women. Do you have the same for men or are they for men and women together?

Anna Grinenko:

Yes, together.

Mehrangis Dowlatshahi:

But are the men separated from the women?

Anna Grinenko:

No. We do not have many men, only 15-20 per cent.

Mehrangis Dowlatshahi:

Do the workers pay for their meals in the dining-room?

Anna Grinenko:

Naturally.

Mehrangis Dowlatshahi:

What about medical treatment?

Anna Grinenko:

That is free.

Mehrangis Dowlatshahi:

You said you have 3,000 workers. In one shift or in two?

Anna Grinenko:

In two.

Safiyeh Firouz (Women's Council of Iran):

Are your apprentices paid for their work?

Anna Grinenko:

Yes, of course.

Safiyeh Firouz:

How is their work paid?

Anna Grinenko:

Apprentices are paid in accordance with pupils' norms. At first they are set a stipend, which they get for a month or two, depending on the sector they are working in. After they master the work and can do it independently, they receive the corresponding wage.

Kamala Ratnam (All-Indian Women's Conference):

Do you have a sliding scale for wages?

Anna Grinenko:

No. Every worker is paid depending on how much he produces. In addition, we have a progressive wage scale, where for every per cent over and above the established quota the worker receives double pay.

Kamala Ratnam:

Do you have a standard unit of labour productivity per hour and a wage for this hour?

Anna Grinenko:

That depends on the kind of work. All our work is divided into qualifications and grades, and the pay for the quota depends on the grade. For example, the wage for a fifth-grade quota is 20 rubles a day if the quota is fulfilled. If a worker of the fifth grade does more than the quota calls for, the wage will be higher.

Safiyeh Firouz:

What are the earnings of a worker?

Anna Grinenko:

The range is fairly wide, but the average monthly wage fluctuates between 700 and 800 rubles.

(Anna Grinenko invites the visitors to inspect the factory.)

Question to Anna Grinenko: Have you been working here long?

Anna Grinenko:

After finishing the institute, I became shop foreman, then

production manager. For the past six years I have been the director.

(After an inspection of the shops, the talk was continued.)

Mehrangis Dowlatshahi:

Since the laws in your country offer women great opportunities, then, evidently, the factories that employ many women, yours for instance, spend more money on their social and everyday needs than the factories where men workers predominate. How do you cover such expenses?

Anna Grinenko:

Apart from the money allocated to us by the Government, we have our own fund. It is this money that we can use for all additional social and everyday expenses. The fund is formed out of our profits. Therefore, our women know that if they work well, the factory will have bigger profits and, consequently, the fund will also be bigger. Then we can buy more passes to sanatoriums, have better equipment for our nursery schools and crèches, improve the medical service and other forms of assistance, increase bonuses and so forth.

Mehrangis Dowlatshahi:

When women make use of such opportunities as maternity leave, which lasts for four or five months, that, of course, is linked with additional expenses for the enterprise. How does the enterprise manage to cover these expenses?

Anna Grinenko:

All expenses connected with maternity leaves are borne by the state and not by the enterprise.

Monica Whately:

How do you know when a child needs special nourishment?

Anna Grinenko:

We have a paediatrist who looks after children, and if a child needs special nourishment he prescribes it. The same concerns adults who rest in our suburban summer cottages.

Every cottage has a small plot of land planted to fruit-trees. There are cows and chickens. That allows us to supply children with fresh food all summer. The cottages are

situated 30 kilometres from Moscow, in Peredelkino, a very picturesque spot.

Monica Whately:

Do the workers have gardens?

Anna Grinenko:

The workers have gardens which they tend after work. At the beginning of every year we draw up a leave timetable for each shop. That gives the workers the opportunity to settle all their home affairs connected with their leaves.

(The delegates inspect the out-patient clinic.)

Anna Grinenko:

Allow me to introduce Angelina Demyakhovskaya, the chief physician of our out-patient clinic.

Zena Harman:

How big is the staff in the out-patient clinic?

Angelina Demyakhovskaya:

The workers of the Krasny Oktyabr Factory are served by a small out-patient clinic. We have a gynaecologist, two dentists, who work in the morning and evening, a surgeon and two therapists. We have a physiotherapy cabinet. There is a neuropathologist, the chief physician, a physio-therapist and a roentgenologist.

Anna Grinenko:

The principal aim of this out-patient clinic is to prevent diseases. In addition to their work, the doctors carry on an extensive sanitary educational activity in the shops. They tell mothers how to feed, bring up and look after new-born babies. Our women listen attentively at these talks and ask many questions.

Zena Harman:

What do you do to avoid accidents?

Anna Grinenko:

At the factory we have a safety engineering and labour protection department which studies all our machines and production processes in order to prevent accidents.



In the confectionery shop of Bakery No. 3, Leningrad, the guests watched the complicated process of making cream roses.

(The delegates inspect the hydropathic department.)

E. Voitsekhovskaya (nurse at the hydropathic department):

The workers and employees make use of the facilities here. They take radon and carbonaceous baths and all kinds of showers—Charcot, Scottish, and others.

Laili Roesad:

Do both men and women take these treatments?

E. Voitsekhovskaya:

Yes.

Laili Roesad:

What is the difference between the various showers and baths?

Angelina Demyakhovskaya:

All this is applied depending on the condition of the patient or on the disease he or she is suffering from. After treatment, the patients rest in a lounge for 15-20 minutes.

(Shows the lounge.)

Fuki Kushida (Federation of Japanese Women's Organizations):

Besides all this, is there a sanitary inspection at the factory?

Angelina Demyakhovskaya:

Yes, we have a sanitary inspector.

Laili Roesud (addressing Anna Grinenko):

Does your factory have its own holiday homes or sanatoriums?

Anna Grinenko:

No, but we send our workers to sanatoriums operated by other enterprises.

Laili Roesad:

How many confectionery factories such as this are there in Moscow?

Anna Grinenko:

Seven.

(The delegates inspect the nursery school.)

Anna Grinenko:

Allow me to introduce Fanya Berkenblit, the manager of our nursery school.

Laili Roesad:

What is the daily routine in the nursery school?

Fanya Berkenblit:

The children stay here from seven o'clock in the morning to half past eight in the evening. They start the day with exercises and breakfast. After breakfast they play, go for a walk, then have their lunch, and rest. When they get up they have their tea, go for a walk and come back for dinner.

Zena Harman:

How many children are there in the nursery school? Of what age?

Fanya Berkenblit:

We have a hundred children from three to seven years of age.

Zena Harman:

What do their parents pay for their upkeep here?

Fanya Berkenblit:

That depends on the wage. Sixty rubles a month is the average.

Zena Harman:

How many teachers and attendants do you have per number of children?

Fanya Berkenblit:

We have four groups. The staff consists of 28 persons, including cooks, nurses and teachers. We have one teacher to every 25 children. The teachers work in two shifts of six hours each.

Laili Roesad (addressing Anna Grinenko):

Are the workers provided with apartments?

Anna Grinenko:

Yes. We are doing our best to solve the housing problem. The new house that we are building in the south-western district will have 2,500 square metres of living space.

Laili Roesad:

I thank you in behalf of all the Seminar participants here for your hospitality and for all that you have shown us. Everything that we saw here is extremely interesting. Our visit to your confectionery has been very pleasant and we are grateful to all of you.

VISIT TO TRADE SCHOOL No. 1, MOSCOW

September 21, 1956

Solodkaya (Head of Moscow City Department of Labour Reserves):

Dear friends, allow me to introduce B. Selenkov, the headmaster, who will acquaint you with his school.

The Moscow Department of Labour Reserves runs three kinds of vocational technical schools—trade schools, technical schools and one-year building schools.

The term of instruction at the trade schools varies between two and four years, depending on the trade. These schools accept boys of 14 and girls of 15 with a middle (seven-year) school education. They choose the trade they want to learn.

Technical schools admit young people with a secondary (ten-year) school education. The term of instruction is one or two years since the general educational level of the pupils is sufficiently high.

The third kind of vocational technical schools, building schools, admit boys and girls of 16. The term of instruction is one year. That explains the higher admission age.

The state system of training labour reserves was introduced in the Soviet Union in 1940. Its chief aim is to train skilled workers for the national economy—industry, construction and agriculture. The importance of vocational schools may be illustrated by the following figures: in the 16 years that vocational technical schools have been in ex-

istence, they have trained some 273,000 young workers in Moscow alone; nearly four million skilled workers will be trained by the Labour Reserves system in the course of the current five-year plan.

Young people go to these schools willingly, study diligently and, as a rule, become good workers. Girls are doing just as well as boys. We know of quite a few cases where they even outstrip the boys in mastering trades, especially those of turner and milling-machine operator, and work much harder and with greater precision. In the class-rooms and shops you will have an opportunity to talk to our boys and girls and see how they work.

The Government devotes much attention to vocational schools and provides all the facilities for successful study and work. All schools, including ours, have study rooms, well-equipped workshops and laboratories and experienced teachers, many of whom are women.

Comrade Selenkov, the headmaster, will now tell you about his school.

B. Selenkov:

We have 840 pupils—boys and girls. The term of instruction is two years. We train workers in ten trades: turners, milling-machine operators, grinders, tool-makers, electricians, and so forth.

As in other Labour Reserves schools, tuition is free. While they are in the school, the pupils are maintained entirely by the state; they are fed and clothed (in addition to overalls and work clothes they are given clothes to wear in off-hours) and are provided with text-books and study aids. Though our pupils live at home, their parents pay nothing for their transportation and the excursions. That is paid for by the school.

We have enough shops to provide each pupil with a workbench.

In addition to practical instruction, our pupils study theoretical technical and general-educational subjects in

study rooms equipped with visual aids—objects and posters—which are usually made by the pupils themselves in their spare time. We use visual aids as widely as possible, for it is not easy to train a skilled worker of the 4th-5th rating in two years.

The six hours that the pupils spend in school every day are devoted alternately to theoretical and practical work.

In the process of instruction, we produce such complex items as screw-cutting lathes and various fitting and measuring instruments, for which the pupils are paid.

Towards the end of the second year of instruction, four months before graduation, to be more exact, the pupils do practical work in a factory. The factory management lets them have workbenches, instruments and raw material, and pays them a third of the sum they earn during practical work. After graduation, the pupils pass qualification tests for a 4th or 5th rating.

Immediately after the tests, we send them to the factory where they did their practical work. Before they start work, however, they get a month's leave, which is paid by their factory according to their rating. Thus, already before the leave the young worker knows the factory he is going to work at, and his superiors. The factory management treats our pupils very well and values them as future workers.

In addition to practical and theoretical instruction, we carry on extensive extra-curricula work, for we aim to bring up cultured and educated people. We have many circles including musical, literary and historic, and technical, and many athletics groups.

Our task is to draw every pupil into extra-curricula activities so as to bring out and develop his tastes and inclinations.

When the pupils leave for their winter holidays (January 1st-11th), they receive a sum of money to pay for their upkeep at home or elsewhere.

The summer holidays last for six weeks, from July 15th to September 1st. The pupils who have no opportunity of

spending the holidays in the countryside may go to summer camps maintained by our school. All this helps us train skilled workers.

(The guests begin their inspection.)

B. Selenkov:

This is our reading-room. The windows look out on the stadium belonging to the school and the factory. There is a football field and tennis court. In summer this is a field for athletics, and in winter it is converted into a skating-rink.

Our drawing study. These girls are in their first year. They will be milling-machine operators. Yesterday they did practical work and today they are taught theoretical subjects. At the drawing lesson they learn to read blue-prints; that helps them to master their trade faster.

They spend their free time as they like. This girl, for example, is a keen amateur actor. The badge she wears was awarded to her during a Labour Reserves Amateur Talent Review.

Vera Semmens (International Cooperative Women's Guild, Great Britain):

Just what kind of amateur activity does she prefer?

Pupil Sharapova: Acrobatic gymnastics.

Zena Harman (Member of the U.N. Commission on the Status of Women):

And what is this? (Points to the badge worn by another girl.)

Pupil Kotikova: My Komsomol badge.

Zena Harman: Do you live with your family?

Pupil Kotikova: Yes.

(The inspection continues.)

B. Selenkov:

This is our technical mechanics shop.

Here the pupils study theoretical subjects and do laboratory work. There is all the necessary equipment, but since engineering is making very rapid progress we have to keep installing new equipment. On every table you will find everything that is needed for laboratory work.

In these machine shops we teach second-year pupils how to cut and mill metals. . . .

This is No. 2 turning shop. The pupils here are in their first year. They were enrolled on September 1.

Vera Semmens:

Good children. Very serious-minded.

Solodkaya:

These lathes were made by the pupils of the senior group. Work changes children. They try to be serious and neat.

B. Selenkov:

These are first-year pupils. Today they are running a lathe for the first time. Up till now they have been studying mechanisms.

Representative of Burma:

Do they receive marks for working metals?

Solodkaya:

Yes. But today they will not get any marks for they are beginners.

B. Selenkov:

This is No. 3 turning shop, which is also for first-year pupils.

The master turner is in charge of 25 pupils for two years. Besides the practical training, he spends part of his free time with them, playing football or singing.

The pupils at the benches came here only 20 days ago. Of that time 10 days were devoted to theory and 10 to practical work in the shops.

Tezer Taskiran (Turkey):

What will that young man be and what is he doing now?

Pupil Semyonov:

I shall be a turner of the 4th or 5th rating. I am machining a detail.

Tezer Taskiran:

What trade is preferred most here?

Master turner Mezhenin:

First, turner, then fitter and milling-machinist.



These girls at Metal-Workers Trade School No. 1, Moscow, like their work. Centre—Inger Jensen (Denmark)

Zena Harman:

How do pupils choose trades for themselves?

B. Selenkov:

Often a boy applying for admission wants to be a fitter because that is what his father or brother was. If he is fit physically his request is granted. If not, he is offered another trade.

Zena Harman:

Are they medically examined before entering the school?

B. Selenkov:

That is obligatory. After the examination they are issued the corresponding health certificates.

Tezer Taskiran:

What trade do girls choose most of all?

Master turner Mezhenin:

Usually grinder.

Vera Semmens:

For how many hours do the pupils work?

B. Selenkov:

Four hours when the studies are in the workshops and six hours when they have their theoretical classes.

The girls working here were admitted on September 1, 1956. This is grinding shop No. 5.

Metal grinding requires great precision and attention. As a rule girls are more attentive and more persevering than boys.

Fernanda S. Balboa (Pacific South-East Asia Women's Association, Philippines):

Are boys and girls taught separately?

Solodkaya:

No. The groups are subdivided only according to the trade taught. At this school most of the girls decided to be milling-machinists and were put in one group. Our turners' group includes both boys and girls.

Fernanda S. Balboa:

What are they producing?

Master turner Mezhenin:

Metal parts.

Fernanda S. Balboa:

Are they for lathes?

Master turner Mezhenin:

Ninety per cent of what they make goes for assembling lathes; the remainder includes study aids and spoilage which naturally cannot be avoided in the first year of training.

The products made by second-year pupils go entirely for lathes.

Vera Semmens:

Where are graduates assigned to?

B. Selenkov:

Usually, to the Likhachov Motor Works.

This is our fitters' shop No. 9 The pupils here are in their second year and they are making parts for turning lathes.

Solodkaya:

Every pupil has a complete set of instruments which he keeps in his locker.

Master turner Sablukov:

When our pupils go to work in the factories, we keep in close touch with them. I am interested in how my pupils are doing, visit them and they come to see me. Incidentally, they take the successes and failures of the group they studied in very close to heart.

Vera Semmens:

If a pupil fails in the examinations, does he stay behind for a second year?

B. Selenkov:

Only if protracted ill-health is the reason. If the pupil was ill or lags behind in his studies we get the teachers or the best pupil to help him.

This is our assembly shop, where second-year pupils learn to assemble machine-tools. Today they are studying theory.

Pupil Borodin presents Tezer Taskiran with a Labour Reserves badge.

Tezer Taskiran:

What is your name? I am very happy that the inscription on the badge begins with the same letter as my name. I shall keep it as a souvenir. Thank you very much.

B. Selenkov:

This is the methodological study. The creative activity of the teachers and pupils is concentrated here.

Master turner Sablukov tells the guests about the work done in the shops and class-rooms, how he prepares for the

lessons, and shows them technical documents, the work done by the pupils, and so forth.

Fernanda S. Balboa:

Do you like your job?

Sablukov:

Very much. Permit me to give you this book about my work methods.

(The guests go to the recreation room, where the school's brass band is rehearsing.)

Vera Semmens (addressing a pupil):

What do you plan to do after you leave school?

Pupil Sajronov:

I shall work at a factory and continue my studies.

Solodkaya:

We have seen the study rooms and the shops. Have you got any questions?

Representative of France:

Are the years the pupils spend at the school taken into account as part of the service record necessary for a pension?

Solodkaya:

Yes, for both girls and boys.

Representative of France:

What rating do the pupils get after one year at a building school? Can they understand the simplest designs and blueprints?

Solodkaya:

We think that one year of instruction at a building school is not enough to train a skilled worker. These schools will be probably switched over to a three-year programme.

Zena Harman:

I have been greatly impressed. The children are very interested in their work. The order in the school is amazingly good.

Ellen Barker Lea (Pacific South-East Asia Women's Association, New Zealand):

I should like to express my thanks for what you have shown us.

SOCIAL SECURITY IN THE U.S.S.R.

**REPORT by NONNA MURAVYOVA,
Minister of Social Security of the R.S.F.S.R.**

The Soviet system of state social security is one of the most important gains of the people of this country. Article 120 of the Constitution of the U.S.S.R. establishes that "Citizens of the U.S.S.R. have the right to maintenance in old age and also in case of sickness or disability. This right is ensured by the extensive development of social insurance of industrial, office, and professional workers at state expense, free medical service for the working people, and the provision of a wide network of health resorts for the use of the working people."

This ensures the Soviet citizen security in old age or in the event of disability.

In 1955 budget expenditures for social and cultural measures totalled 147,000 million rubles. The 1956 appropriations are 161,500 million rubles, or 14,500 million rubles more.

Since October 1, 1956, Soviet citizens receive larger pensions in conformity with the new State Pension Law adopted by the U.S.S.R. Supreme Soviet. This law once again shows that the people's welfare has always been, and always will be, the prime concern of our Government. The Pension Law enables the Soviet citizen to go about his work calmly and confidently, without any worries about his material position on reaching old age or if he becomes incapacitated.

The new law raises the annual outlay for pensions by more than 13,000 million rubles.

In addition to the government social security scheme there are other systems of social insurance in the Soviet Union for the aged and the disabled. These apply to producers' cooperatives, whose members are insured and paid benefits at the expense of their cooperatives, and to collective farms, which have special funds to help aged and incapacitated members.

The social security scheme in the Soviet Union displays particular consideration and concern for women. It gives them a number of advantages over men.

The Soviet Union's social security bodies carry out many important functions: they award and pay out old age, disability, length of service and loss of bread-winner pensions; they maintain institutions for invalids and the aged; they provide vocational training for disabled persons, help them to find suitable employment, and assist them in solving everyday problems; they pay out lump sum and monthly allowances to mothers of large families and to unmarried mothers; they supervise the medical commissions which establish the degree of incapacity for work; they are in charge of the manufacture and provision of artificial limbs, and also of research in this field.

OLD AGE PENSIONS UNDER THE NEW LAW

Factory, office, and other workers are eligible for old age pensions on reaching a specified age and completing a specified period of employment. Pension age and length of service depend on the type of occupation. The general pension age is 60 for men, with not less than 25 years' service, and 55 for women, with not less than 20 years' service.

In the case of persons employed on underground work, work under harmful conditions of labour, or in hot shops, men are pensionable on reaching the age of 50, after 20 years' service, and women on reaching the age of 45,

after 15 years' service. In other jobs with difficult conditions of labour, men are entitled to pensions at 55, if they have worked 25 years, and women at 50, if they have worked 20 years. It should be pointed out, though, that very few women are employed on arduous jobs, and that with each passing year fewer women are so employed.

In the case of blind persons, men qualify for old age pensions at 50, after 15 years' service, and women at 40, after 10 years' service.

As you can see, the pension age and period of employment required are, as a rule, five years lower for women.

Taking into account the fact that women devote a lot of time to bringing up children, as a result of which they sometimes have to give up employment for a while, the Law provides a reduction of five years in the pension age and employment period in the case of women who have given birth to five or more children and reared them to the age of eight. The amounts of old age pensions are the same for men and women, ranging from 50 to 100 per cent of earnings. There is a minimum pension of 300 rubles a month and a maximum of 1,200 rubles.

The following old age pension increases are granted:

a) an increase of 10 per cent for continuous service of more than 15 years, or for a total of not less than 35 years' service in the case of men, and 30 years' service in the case of women.

b) an increase of 10 per cent for non-working old age pensioners having one dependent incapable of work, and 15 per cent if they have two or more dependents incapable of work.

These increases are a new feature of the pension scheme in the Soviet Union.

Although the period of employment required for a length-of-service pension increase is 5 years less for women than for men, the amount of the increase is the same for both. A pensioner entitled to both the above increases receives a 25 per cent addition to his pension.

An important feature of the Law is the provision entitling persons to old age pensions even if they have not completed the specified period of employment. If a citizen reaches pension age without having worked the specified number of years, but not less than five years, including not less than three years directly before applying for a pension, he will not be refused a pension, as was the case until October 1, 1956. Now he will be awarded a pension in proportion to his length of service, the minimum being a quarter of the full pension.

When a person awarded an old age pension continues to work, he is paid a pension of 150 rubles a month if his earnings do not exceed 1,000 rubles. If he earns more than 1,000 rubles a month, payment of pension is suspended. On retirement he becomes eligible for the full amount of the pension awarded him.

Particular concern is shown for working pensioners who receive old age pensions on specially favourable terms because of employment on underground or injurious jobs. They are paid a pension of 50 per cent of the established amount regardless of their present place of employment or the amount of their earnings.

DISABILITY PENSIONS

Disability pensions are granted in the Soviet Union to factory, office and other workers in the event of prolonged or permanent loss of capacity for work. Invalids are divided into three categories according to degree of disability. Category and cause of disability are established by a medical examining commission, with the participation of trade-union and social security representatives.

In determining the degree of disability the commissions take into account such factors as the nature of the person's occupation, sex, age, and working and living conditions.

It should be noted that the number of invalids in the Soviet Union is steadily decreasing, thanks to the great con-

cern shown by the state for the people's health and welfare.

Many different groups of persons are eligible for disability pensions. Besides factory, office and other workers, servicemen and former war partisans, the scheme embraces students of secondary and higher educational establishments and of training courses and schools in all branches of the national economy, as well as citizens who become incapacitated in connection with the execution of state or public duties. Factory, office and other workers are entitled to disability pensions irrespective of when they become incapacitated—in the period of work, before starting work, or after retiring.

Servicemen are entitled to disability pensions if they became disabled while serving in the armed forces, or at any time after the discontinuation of military service if the disability was caused by a wound or illness sustained while in military service. Pensions are paid to servicemen irrespective of the length of their service in the forces.

In the case of factory, office and other workers under the age of 20, and also persons whose disability resulted from an industrial accident or an occupational disease, no specified period of employment is required.

To qualify for a pension, factory, office and other workers who become incapacitated as a result of a general disease must have completed a specified period of employment, which is not large and which varies depending on their age. If they have not completed the required period of employment they are entitled to a disability pension in proportion to the length of service, but not less than a quarter of the full pension. Citizens who become invalids of the first or second category are entitled to a minimum of one quarter of the full pension irrespective of the length of time they have been employed. In other words, if a person loses his capacity for work before he has completed even one month's employment, he will be paid one quarter of the full pension.

Women have an advantage over men in that they need a shorter period of service to qualify for a full disability pension. For example, men between the ages of 41 and 46 have to have 12 years of service, whereas only 9 years are required for women. This is another example of the solicitude for women, as mothers and household managers.

A still shorter period of service is required in the case of persons employed underground, in injurious occupations, or in hot shops. For example, a person of this category aged between 41 and 46 requires a length of service of only 7 years instead of 9 or 12. It should be borne in mind that the person in this category has to have worked only half of the specified period underground, in a hot shop or in an injurious occupation, in order to become entitled to a pension on specially favourable terms. Interruptions in employment do not affect the calculation of the length of service in this type of pension.

The amount of pension varies according to the person's earnings, category and cause of disability, and his working conditions and occupation. This means that all other factors being equal, a person who became disabled because of an industrial accident or occupational disease is awarded a larger pension than one who became disabled because of a general disease. Similarly, persons employed underground, in hot shops, or in injurious occupations, are granted higher pensions than those who lost their capacity for work owing to a general disease.

The minimum monthly pensions for disability resulting from an industrial accident or occupational disease are 360 rubles for first category disability, 285 rubles for the second category, and 210 rubles for the third category. The maximum monthly pensions are 1,200 rubles for the first category disability, 900 rubles for the second category, and 450 rubles for the third category.

If a person becomes disabled owing to an industrial accident through the fault of the management he is entitled to a compensation in addition to the pension. On the basis of

a court decision, he is paid, by the enterprise in which he was employed, the difference between his pension and the amount he was earning before the accident.

Pensions on account of disability resulting from a general disease are somewhat lower (by 10 to 20 per cent) than those paid for disability due to an industrial accident or occupational disease.

Servicemen who prior to military service were factory, office, or other workers, and who were disabled by a wound, shock, or injury connected with their service in the forces, are entitled to the same pension as persons disabled by an industrial accident, the only difference being that a higher minimum is established for servicemen. Disabled servicemen who were not employed prior to military service are also eligible for pensions. Non-commissioned and petty officers are granted pensions ten per cent higher than those paid to privates.

The following increases in disability pensions are provided for:

a) 10 per cent of the pension for continuous service of from 10 to 15 years, and 15 per cent for continuous service of more than 15 years (this applies to factory, office and other workers having 1st or 2nd category disability);

b) 15 per cent of the pension as a nursing allowance to invalids of the 1st category (factory, office and other workers and servicemen);

c) a "family" increase to non-working invalids of the 1st and 2nd categories who have dependents incapable of work: for one dependent incapable of work—10 per cent of the pension, and for two or more dependents incapable of work—15 per cent.

As a result of the above-mentioned increases the pension may amount to more than a person was earning before he was invalidated. The Law permits this in the case of 1st category disability; the maximum for the other categories of disability is 100 per cent of earnings.

To sum up, in the Soviet Union women enjoy the same privileges as men in respect of disability pensions, while the length of service requirements are considerably lower for them.

PENSIONS FOR LOSS OF THE BREAD-WINNER

Besides old age and disability pensions, the Soviet Pension Law provides for the granting of pensions for loss of the bread-winner.

Dependents who are incapable of working are entitled to a pension if they lose their bread-winner. Children and parents incapable of work who were not dependents of the deceased are eligible for a pension on the latter's death if, subsequently, they lost their means of livelihood.

A guardian's allowance for loss of the bread-winner is granted to children, brothers, sisters and grandchildren of the deceased if they are under sixteen years of age, and under eighteen years of age if they are school children.

Children, brothers, sisters and grandchildren of the deceased who are attending school are eligible for an allowance even if they are receiving a stipend from the state.

Parents of a deceased bread-winner are pensionable if they become incapacitated for work or reach pension age (60 for men and 55 for women), regardless of when—before or after the death of the bread-winner—they reach this age or become invalids.

The spouse (wife or husband) of the deceased is eligible for a pension if he or she reaches pension age or becomes disabled before the death of the bread-winner or not later than five years after.

Also eligible for this type of pension are the grandfather and grandmother of the deceased if they do not have any relatives who are obliged by law to support them.

Adopters are pensionable on equal terms with parents, and adopted children on equal terms with the bread-winner's own children.

The family of a bread-winner whose death is due to an industrial accident or occupational disease, or who was a pensioner himself (irrespective of the type of pension he received or the cause of his death) is eligible for an allowance regardless of the bread-winner's period of employment.

Pensions for the families of servicemen are granted irrespective of the length of service or previous employment of the deceased.

The families of factory, office or other workers who died from a general disease or accident not connected with their work are eligible for a full pension if the bread-winner had completed a period of employment which would have entitled a person of his age (at the time of death) to a disability pension.

If the bread-winner had not completed the required period of employment, the family is entitled to a proportionate pension amounting to not less than one quarter of a full pension.

The factors which determine the amount of pension are: the number of pensionable members of the family, the bread-winner's occupation, and the cause of his death. The rate is higher for the families of bread-winners whose death was due to an industrial accident or occupational disease.

The higher rate also applies to families which include children who have lost both parents or children of a deceased unmarried mother, irrespective of the cause of the bread-winner's death.

A point to be emphasized is that the Law provides for the following increases in loss of bread-winner pensions:

a) 15 per cent of the pension if there are three or more dependents unable to work of a person who died from an industrial accident or occupational disease;

b) 10 per cent of the pension to dependents of a person who died from a general disease and had a continuous service-record of 10 to 15 years, and 15 per cent if he had a service-record of more than 15 years.

If the bread-winner was not a factory, office or other worker (if he was a college student, for example) the pension is calculated on the basis of the number of dependents and the cause of his death.

In concluding this description of the pension scheme we should like to point out that the higher pensions mean a definite rise in the living standard of the aged, the disabled, and families who have lost their bread-winner. They bring material well-being to many and many a family. Here are two examples. Under the new law Yevdokia Khromova, conductor at the Bauman Tram Depot in the city of Moscow, with average earnings of 583 rubles a month, receives an old age pension three times as large as before: 481 rubles a month instead of 150 rubles. V. V. Vasilyev, a worker employed at the Kirov Plant in Leningrad, whose average earnings were 1,000 rubles a month, receives an old age pension of 660 rubles a month instead of 165 rubles.

PROVISION OF EMPLOYMENT FOR INVALIDS

The Soviet state gives all possible assistance and encouragement to men and women who want to work and be useful members of society notwithstanding their disablement. Considerable achievements have been registered in the Soviet Union in the provision of suitable employment for invalids. At present more than 67 per cent of the country's disabled persons are working.

Under Soviet law an invalid may be employed only with the permission of a medical examining commission. Such commissions are set up by each district, city and regional department of social security. They are staffed by some 15,000 highly qualified physicians.

The agencies in charge of employment assistance and other aid to invalids, the families of servicemen who were killed in action, and other pensioners are the Ministries of Social Security of the Union republics. They also guide the

activities of the Society of the Blind and the Society of the Deaf and Dumb.

The Soviet Union has big research institutes, with their own clinics, laboratories and experimental workshops, which study problems of employment assistance and the working capacity of different categories of invalids, on the one hand, and the design and manufacture of artificial limbs, etc., on the other. Such institutes are functioning in Moscow, Leningrad, and Kharkov and they have branches in other large cities.

The institutes which specialize in employment assistance are now seeking improved devices and work organization methods for disabled persons who have jobs in producers' cooperatives, in industry and in agriculture. They devote their main attention to the blind, the deaf and dumb, persons with nervous and mental ailments, and invalids who have difficulty in moving about.

We pay special attention to vocational aid for persons disabled by traumas of the extremities and other organs, for these are chiefly young and middle-aged people.

The provision of suitable employment for disabled ex-servicemen is regarded in our country as a sacred duty of the state and the people at large; it is a duty in which all industrial and agricultural establishments, institutions and organizations are doing their share.

The state furnishes invalids free of charge with artificial limbs, orthopaedic footwear, wheel chairs (with and without motors) and treatment at health resorts. Any invalid who so desires may enter an institutional home, where he will be fully maintained by the state, or a vocational school, where he can learn a new trade.

All this shows that the scientific system of all-round assistance to invalids in the U.S.S.R. is based on lofty humanitarian principles.

Invalids are given every facility and opportunity to engage in socially useful labour, and it must be said that they themselves are eager to be useful members of society.

Men and women who are invalids take up employment chiefly in producers' cooperatives and state establishments in which the working conditions are best suited to their health: factories manufacturing items of general merchandise, toys, food products, haberdashery, knitted-goods and garments; printing establishments, small shops, and in the arts and crafts. Tens of thousands of invalids are now learning new skills directly on the job.

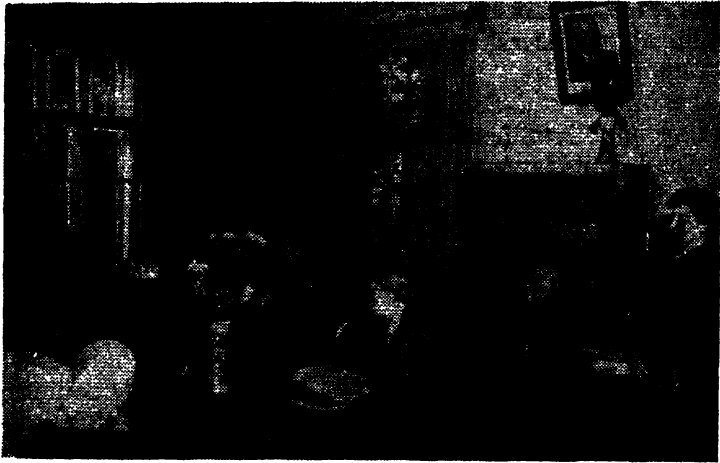
Experience has shown that invalids are making a full-fledged contribution to the national economy and that in the overwhelming majority of cases both their labour productivity and earnings are comparable with those of healthy persons.

The provision of artificial limbs and other aids occupies a significant place in the vocational and general welfare programmes for invalids. In the Soviet Union there are about 100 factories manufacturing artificial arms and legs, orthopaedic footwear, footwear for artificial limbs, special corsets, hearing aids, artificial eyes, etc. Invalids are supplied with artificial limbs and the like at the expense of the state, annual expenditure for this purpose coming to about 150 million rubles.

The Soviet state maintains research institutes specializing in the theory and practice of artificial limbs and their manufacture.

OCCUPATIONAL TRAINING OF INVALIDS

One of the important types of aid given in our country to invalids, including women, who want to take up suitable employment is a system of free training and re-training in special boarding schools. These schools train agriculturists, book-keepers, cinema projector operators, radio technicians, sewing-machine and knitting-machine repair mechanics, laboratory assistants, skilled workers for the shoe and garment industries, etc. In the Russian Federation there are



Visiting the home for aged workers of the Tryokhgornaya
Textile Mill, Moscow

50 schools of this kind. More than 30 per cent of the trainees are women.

Invalids, men and women alike, have the right to choose any trade from a list recommended by a medical examining commission as being suitable to their health. The course of study in the boarding schools for women invalids ranges from two to four years, depending on the trade. Tuition is free of charge. The state also provides free board, lodging, bed linen, medical service, medicaments, clothing, textbooks, notebooks, etc. During the period an invalid attends boarding school his pension is paid to his dependents.

Besides good living conditions the schools provide every facility for fruitful study.

After completing their course of study, women invalids take up jobs in their new trade in agriculture, the light industries or other branches of the national economy.

Occupational training and re-training of invalids, including women, is also carried out at courses, workshops and

factories of the societies of blind persons and the deaf and dumb, at producers' cooperatives and at state factories of various industries.

The Ministry of Social Security of the Russian Federation spends 42 million rubles annually on vocational training for invalids.

All the schools have the necessary equipment for practical study.

Each farm school has from 500 to 1,250 acres of land, tractors, combines and other machines, and implements, as well as a sufficient number of livestock. The industrial schools are equipped with the necessary lathes and other machines. Much attention is paid to recreational facilities. The schools have amateur talent activities, chess clubs, orchestras, photography clubs, etc. Film showings and lectures are arranged.

Upon completing school the invalid is placed in a job in the locality where he resides.

Besides the employment assistance and occupational training programmes, the social security bodies help invalids and old people a great deal in the way of health-resort accommodation, in house building and repair, in buying a cow or other livestock for their personal use, etc.

During 1956 more than 100,000 invalids, both men and women, will be provided with accommodation in health-resorts or holiday homes. A total of 157,000,000 rubles is to be paid out to pensioners in 1956 in the form of lump sum allowances. Such an allowance is given when an invalid is urgently in need of help.

In the summer of 1955, accommodation in summer camps and other health-building centres was provided for 768,000 children of pensioners. The 1956 figure has risen to 1,000,000.

When collective farmers become incapacitated or reach old age they are supported by the management board of the collective farm and by the collective farmers' mutual aid fund. Each collective farm sets up an aid fund for the aged and

disabled. The fund is administered by general meetings of the members of the given collective farm. The greater part of it is turned over to the collective farmers' mutual aid fund.

During the past three years more than 39,000 head of cattle and small livestock, and tens of thousands of tons of grain, bread, and potatoes and other vegetables were issued to the families of servicemen killed in action, disabled servicemen, and labour invalids. Housing assistance (the provision, construction or repair of homes or flats) was given to 445,000 disabled persons, old people and their families.

Persons in need of institutional care are placed in homes for the aged or homes for invalids, where they are completely supported by the state.

In 1955 there were about 900 such homes in the U.S.S.R. in which a total of about 120,000 old people and invalids were being cared for.

Appropriations for the upkeep of the homes are increasing from year to year; the food, medical service and other facilities are improving all the time. Many homes for invalids have workshops in which inmates may work if they wish, and be paid for it. Many homes for invalids develop small farms to supplement the rations. These farms are exempt from taxes and deliveries of produce to the state.

A typical institution for the aged is the Vidnoye Home, situated in a beautiful country spot not far from Moscow. The inmates live in comfortable, well-furnished buildings, and receive excellent food and medical care. Recreational facilities include a club-house where films are shown, a library, and radio and TV sets.

There are similar institutions in the Ukraine, Byelorussia and the other Union republics.

One of the Ukrainian homes for the aged, for example, stands on the picturesque bank of the River Vorskla, in the small town of Leshchinovka, Kobelyaki District, Poltava Region. The home consists of 14 buildings. The inmates are

275 factory, office and other workers and collective farmers who have lost their capacity for work. They live in bright, comfortably furnished rooms having radio relay outlets. The meals are wholesome and tasty. All in all nine such homes have been set up in Poltava Region, one of the many regions comprising the Ukrainian Soviet Republic. A tenth is to be opened this year.

In the Soviet Union pensioners, men and women alike, enjoy many privileges, including lower taxes and levies, smaller deliveries of farm produce to the state, and lower rents, as well as privileges with respect to employment, education, and medical treatment. All this supplements the pensions and earnings of women invalids, making their standard of living higher.

In each of the Union republics there are societies of the blind, and deaf and dumb, which, with constant assistance from the Government and the public, carry out extensive work to improve living conditions for people with these afflictions.

The Soviet Government has provided wide opportunities enabling the blind to live as normal human beings and citizens. They can get an education, learn a trade and find employment, take part in recreational activities, and raise families.

One of the main objectives of the societies of the blind is to satisfy the desire of blind persons, both men and women, to lead a life of useful activity, to feel that they have a place in society.

The self-supporting training and production establishments set up by these societies successfully combine the tasks of giving vocational training to blind persons and drawing them into useful work. In the Russian Federation there are 250 such establishments and they produce goods to the value of nearly 900 million rubles annually. The Government grants them many privileges.

During the sixth five-year plan period it is planned to build for the blind: 37 homes, 41 workshops, 86 apartment

houses, 33 clubs, and two houses of culture. The cost of this construction will total more than 400 million rubles.

A six-hour working day and an annual paid holiday of not less than 24 days, not including Sundays and regular holidays, have been established in the Soviet Union for blind persons. They have the right to free travel on urban transport; they are exempt from all taxes and from payment of the radio license; they receive free medical care, and can order books in Braille from any library in the Soviet Union.

There are special boarding schools with an eleven-year course of instruction for blind children. They are free of charge, all the expenses being borne by the state.

The doors to colleges and universities are open to the blind. Thousands of them have received a higher education and are now successful teachers, lawyers, lecturers, etc.

State publishing houses put out scientific literature, fiction and poetry in Braille.

The basic objective of the deaf and dumb societies is to draw members into socially useful work, improve cultural and everyday services for them, help them to raise their political and general education, enhance their professional standards, and in this way to bring them into the ranks of active builders of communism.

Men and women who are deaf or deaf and dumb are employed in enterprises and establishments in all parts of the country. There are quite a few engineering works in which 300 or more members of the society are employed. Many are skilled workers who take an active part in production, and in community affairs, and are steadily raising their cultural and professional standards. More than 6,000 members of the society, including a large number of women, have been decorated by the Government of the U.S.S.R. for long and meritorious service.

Good housing and other conditions are provided for deaf or deaf and dumb workers employed at state or cooperative establishments. Persons with families are given flats, while

bachelors live in comfortable boarding houses; children of members of the society are given preferential accommodation in kindergartens and summer camps. The material well-being of the deaf and deaf and dumb is steadily improving. Every year many of them are provided with accommodation in health resorts or holiday homes free of charge or at a nominal cost.

Many deaf and dumb collective farmers are among the leading workers on their farms. They are tractor drivers, combine operators, livestock experts, gardeners, bee-keepers, etc.

The All-Russian Society of the Deaf and Dumb has a network of about 450 special clubs and club-rooms and a large number of libraries, reading-rooms and motion picture installations. Talks and lectures in the hand alphabet, the demonstration of films with sub-titles, hand alphabet readings of fiction, and amateur talent performances are arranged. The society sponsors some 800 amateur talent groups with a membership of several thousand persons.

The 14,000 deaf and dumb sportsmen in the Russian Federation include quite a few first-rate athletes. Russian Federation sports competitions are arranged at regular intervals.

Sixty-five per cent of the Society's budget is spent on cultural and educational activities. The state appropriates large sums for the maintenance of schools for the deaf and dumb.

More than 400 members of the society are now attending secondary technical school or college. Deaf and dumb students are paid higher stipends than other students.

Many deaf and dumb persons have obtained a higher education in Soviet times and are now working successfully as designing engineers, technicians, technologists, economists and agronomists.

The All-Russian Society of the Deaf and Dumb has training and production establishments in 44 regions, territories

and autonomous republics. They manufacture garments, footwear, knitted-goods, furniture, and other commodities.

Deaf and dumb boys and girls are taught a trade at these establishments. Instruction and clothing are free of charge, accommodation in hostels is provided and stipends are paid. Under the guidance of experienced instructors the boys and girls learn to work the sewing-machine or to be tailors, carpenters, fitters, turners, or workers in the knitted-goods and shoe industries, and so forth.

During the fifth five-year period these schools taught trades to 4,800 persons.

The All-Russian Society of the Deaf and Dumb allocates a substantial part of its funds for the construction of dwellings, workshops and club-houses, the purchase of equipment for its establishments and institutions, and for current repairs. The expenditure for these purposes during the sixth five-year plan period will amount to more than 87 million rubles.



Every year the social security departments in the Russian Federation alone pay out more than 3,000 million rubles in allowances to the mothers of large families and unmarried mothers.

We should like to stress the fact that in the social security departments, which are called upon to serve people especially in need of a kind and considerate attitude, women comprise some 70 per cent of the personnel. Many are in charge of district, city, regional and territorial departments of social security, and hold such posts as Deputy Minister or Minister of Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republics.

A woman, N. M. Shakhova, is head of the Moscow Department of Social Security. In Leningrad the department is also headed by a woman, Dr. Z. D. Makarova.

Quite a few of the women employed in the social security system are doctors and school teachers by training, and have been doing good work in this field.

Professor N. A. Shenik, for example, has been working fruitfully for many years in the sphere of orthopaedics and prosthetics; she has developed a new theory of prosthetics for patients with paralysed lower extremities. Professor Y. K. Molodaya has a record of many years' outstanding service in the Central Research Institute of Prosthetics; she is the author of many scientific works. Professor I. S. Kosinskaya is assistant director of the Leningrad Institute which deals with the medical examination of invalids to determine working capacity.

* * *

Our country devotes much attention to the question of social security. The increased pensions will undoubtedly raise the living standard of many families. The concern of the state for improving the well-being of the population is not restricted to that, however. It finds expression also in the measures being carried out by the Communist Party and the Soviet Government further to raise the living standard of the Soviet people under the Sixth Five-Year Plan.

REPLIES GIVEN BY M. TSVETOVA TO QUESTIONS ON THE REPORT BY N. MURAVYOVA*

1. Does the pension paid for the loss of the bread-winner cover all the expenses of the family if the widow does not work?

As has already been said in the report, the family receives from 45 to 100 per cent of the deceased bread-winner's earnings, depending on the size of these earnings. Besides, the family is eligible for an increase if the deceased bread-winner had a continuous-service record, and to a second increase which depends on the number of people in the family who are incapable of work. Thus, if there are three or more people in the family, the pension with the increases may be more than 100 per cent of the deceased bread-winner's earnings. Furthermore, if the pension is granted to the children and the mother goes to work, the rate of pension is not reduced. In that case, the mother will be paid her full salary or wage and the widow's pension regardless of whether her children are of school or pre-school age. Children who go to school are eligible for a loss of bread-winner pension until the age of 18.

If the mother does not work and looks after the children, she will receive, in addition to the pension for the children,

* Due to N. Muravyova's absence, the report was read and the questions were answered by M. Tsvetova, Deputy Minister of Social Security of the R.S.F.S.R.

a pension for looking after them until they are eight years old.

In the event of the mother being in financial difficulties, she is helped by the trade-union body to which her deceased husband belonged and by social security departments which have special funds allocated by the Government for rendering such families additional material aid.

2. If a woman cannot find a job, will she receive a pension and if so how much? What is the pension age?

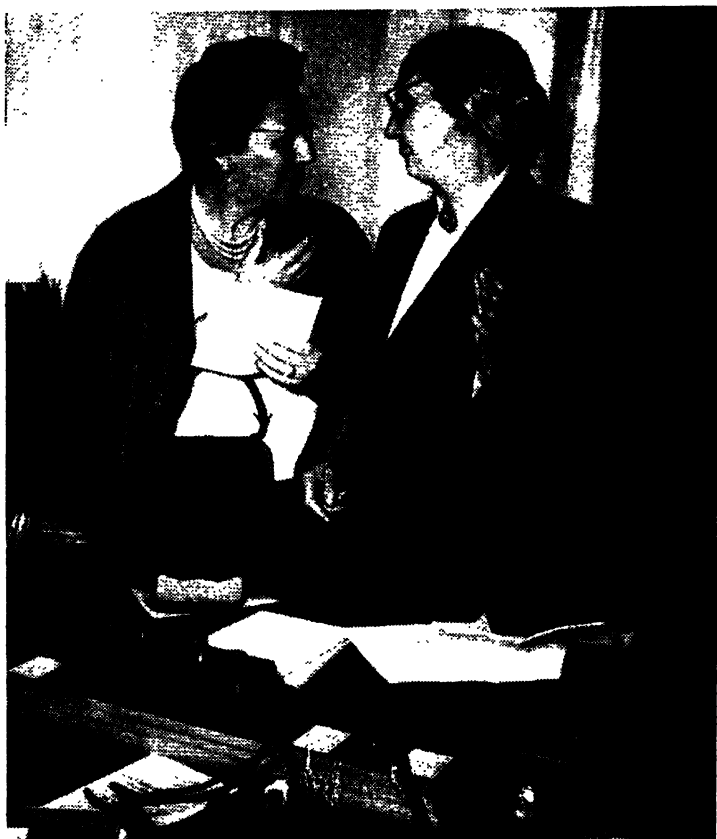
As has already been said, there is no unemployment in the Soviet Union and there can be no question of a woman not being able to find a job if she wants to work. When a woman reaches old age or, for some reason, becomes an invalid, she is granted a pension.

3. What is the situation in a family when the husband reaches pension age and stops working and his wife is ten years younger? Must the two of them live on his pension, especially if the wife never worked before?

If the wife is incapable of work, the husband will receive an increase in his pension. If, for one reason or another, the husband's pension is not enough, the wife and the husband can go to work if they are fit and want to. Work will always be found for them. You must remember that when the husband is granted an old age pension, he can continue working, because by law an old age pension is granted irrespective of a person's capacity for work, in other words, it may be granted to an able-bodied citizen.

4. Are there courses where women, who had formerly devoted themselves entirely to their household duties and to the upbringing of their children, can learn a profession or acquire a new qualification?

In the Soviet Union, we have a wide network of schools and courses in all branches of the national economy, where a woman can acquire or improve her qualification, learn any profession or take a refresher course in her former profession if she had not worked for a long time. Women can study not only by attending schools and courses. They can



In the interval between sessions. Eugenie Cotton, President of the Women's International Democratic Federation (right), and Maria Maddalena Rossi, Vice-President

stay at home and study by correspondence in special schools, courses and departments at vocational schools, and institutions of higher learning. Women who are busy during the day have the opportunity of attending various evening educational establishments.

5. What are the requisites for acceptance in a home for the aged and whom do these homes accept? What is the reception procedure?

Any aged citizen, irrespective of whether he is a pensioner or not, or has a service record or not, but who does not have close relatives obliged to support him by law, and any invalid who requires attention but has nobody to look after him, is eligible for full state maintenance in a home for the aged or in a boarding house for invalids. There is no reception procedure.

As a rule, the district social security departments know the people in their district or sector who stand in need of a home for the aged or a boarding house for invalids. These people are registered and helped to get into the required establishment.

6. Can an invalid who is refused a pension go to court or some other body? Can he file a complaint with, say, the International Committee of the Red Cross?

Every citizen of the Soviet Union is entitled to go to any higher body with a complaint against any infringement of his rights. If it turns out that the lower body had indeed infringed his right, the error will be corrected, the lawful demands of the citizen satisfied and the guilty party punished. This means that any invalid may appeal against any decision he is dissatisfied with.

The Pension Law provides that questions concerning the granting of pensions are decided by a commission specially formed for this purpose at every district and city Executive Committee of the Council of Working People's Deputies; trade-union representatives also sit on such commissions. This law establishes the order in which an appeal may be lodged against the decisions of the commission. In the interests of its citizens, the Soviet state passes special laws establishing the order and time-limit in which complaints and statements from the working people are examined.

7. What provisions are made for civilians who became invalids as a result of war?

Civilians who worked in the firing-line zone or fought in a partisan unit receive pensions as war invalids. Citizens who became invalids as a result of bombing or machine-gunning from the air are ensured pensions as civilian invalids whose invalidity is due to an industrial accident.

And lastly: will the participants in the Seminar have the opportunity of visiting an establishment where invalids can learn a new trade or an enterprise producing artificial limbs?

You are welcome, dear guests. Any time you wish you may visit any establishment run by social security departments.

PUBLIC HEALTH AND MOTHER AND CHILD WELFARE IN THE U.S.S.R.

**REPORT by MARIA KOVRIGINA,
Minister of Public Health of the U.S.S.R.**

BASIC PRINCIPLES OF THE SOVIET PUBLIC HEALTH SYSTEM

The Soviet socialist state regards the protection of the people's health as one of its chief tasks and duties.

Through a united, scientifically based state public health service, built up on principles of planned development, the Soviet socialist state ensures the country's entire population free medical assistance and organizes and carries out far-going sanitary measures aimed at preventing disease and promoting healthful conditions of labour and everyday life, a higher capacity for work and greater expectancy of life.

With the purpose of securing uniformity in the solution of the basic problems of public health in all the Union republics, public health measures in various spheres are guided by laws passed by the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. as well as by decisions and instructions of the Council of Ministers of the U.S.S.R.

As the supreme organ of state administration, the Council of Ministers of the U.S.S.R. directs the work of the Ministry of Public Health of the U.S.S.R. and approves practical measures aimed at improving the work of public health organs and offices.



In the rostrum M. Kovrigina, U.S.S.R. Minister of Public Health; left—N. Spiridonova, U.S.S.R. representative in the UNO Commission on the Status of Women

The Ministry draws up plans of prospective development in the sphere of public health in the country, works out standards of public medical and sanitary service, inspects the ministries of public health of the Union republics and renders them organizational and methodological assistance, and helps the ministries and departments of the U.S.S.R. to organize medical-prophylactic and sanitary anti-epidemic activities.

Furthermore, the Ministry of Public Health of the U.S.S.R. approves the State Pharmacopoeia and the uniform standards for all drugs, controls the quality of drugs and medical instruments and equipment, draws up plans for the development of the medical industry, and guides the work of the major enterprises of the medical industry; it supplies the Union republics with drugs, bacterial preparations and medical apparatuses.

The Ministry of Public Health of the U.S.S.R. works out the norms of planning and building public health establishments, plans the distribution of the graduates of higher medical and pharmaceutical educational institutions, and ensures the publication of literature on problems of medicine and pharmacy.

All medical-prophylactic and sanitary anti-epidemic measures in the country are carried out by local public health bodies as well as by corresponding bodies and offices of other ministries and departments under the supervision of the Ministry of Public Health of the U.S.S.R.

The activity of all medical establishments in the country, irrespective of the department or organization to which they are subordinated, is based on the uniform principles and methods fixed by the Ministry of Public Health of the U.S.S.R., which controls the medical and sanitary work of all public health establishments in the country.

Public health departments play an exceptionally great role in the implementation of prophylactic measures aimed at improving the sanitary conditions of labour and everyday life, protecting health and prolonging the life span of the population. The Ministry of Public Health of the U.S.S.R. drafts all-Union laws and decisions on sanitary and anti-epidemic problems, elaborates and approves sanitary standards and rules, which are binding upon all establishments, enterprises and citizens of the U.S.S.R. It also organizes control of hygienic requirements in the planning of standard building projects as well as the supervision of state standards and technical norms for foodstuffs and manufac-

tured goods, whose quality may affect the health of the population. In addition it shares in the state planning of measures to abolish and prevent the pollution of the air, reservoirs, and the soil.

No plan of erecting industrial, dwelling or other buildings, and no technical norm for the output of foodstuffs or consumer goods whose quality may affect the health of the population, may be approved without the permission of the Ministry of Public Health of the U.S.S.R. or its local departments.

In our country nobody may sell to the population low-grade foodstuffs or rotten, stale goods because this, too, comes under strict sanitary control.

We know that environment, the conditions in which people live, work and rest, nourishment, the family budget, and so forth, directly or indirectly influence the health of people, their capacity for work and their span of life. A good environment favourably influences a person's activity, his health and life: conversely, a bad environment has an unfavourable, pernicious influence. In order to solve the problem, not only of preventing diseases, but also of strengthening the health of the population it is necessary to carry out nation-wide health improvement and sanitary measures with the participation of all the ministries and departments, Soviets, trade unions, Red Cross and Red Crescent societies, and the entire population.

The strengthening of people's health, raising of physical fitness and lengthening of expectancy of life, and the improvement of the sanitary conditions of their environment, are being furthered by such important measures undertaken during Soviet years, and earmarked for implementation during the new, Sixth Five-Year Plan, as large-scale housing construction, improvement of public utilities and services in inhabited localities, the extension of the water supply and sewerage, gasification and district heating, the increase of real wages, and the large-scale expansion of the output of meat, milk, butter and other important foodstuffs.

Protection of the health of Soviet people is also the aim of measures such as the application of up-to-date technique in industry—electrification, mechanization and automation of production processes, all of which substantially lighten the labour of man.

In our country, we are carrying out planned sanitary measures to protect the air, water, and soil. Ministries and departments are forbidden to launch new enterprises and certain shops and plants that discharge harmful gases, steam, and dust into the air, if no provision is made to purify industrial waste.

To make for greater sanitary protection of water supply lines and sources of water supply, there invariably is a sanitary protective zone around the open and underground sources of water supply in every inhabited locality. It is forbidden to discharge harmful or polluted sewage within this zone. Enterprises and establishments are obliged to discharge their sewage into the common sewerage system or purify it at their own purifying plants before discharging it into reservoirs.

The launching of new or restored enterprises, shops and plants that may pollute the air and reservoirs is allowed only with the sanction of the Central State Sanitary Inspectorate of the Ministry of Public Health of the U.S.S.R.

The sanitary protection of the soil of inhabited localities from contamination, pollution and bogging up is effected in a similar way.

Inspection and state supervision of measures aimed at improving the sanitary and hygienic conditions of the work and everyday life of the population are carried on by the State Sanitary Inspectorate of the Ministry of Public Health of the U.S.S.R. and the sanitary and anti-epidemic service of the local public health departments.

The Sanitary Inspectorate is empowered to direct the heads of enterprises, establishments and organizations as well as separate citizens to take sanitary anti-epidemic measures, and it can stop the operation of enterprises, cul-

tural and service establishments, and so on, until the necessary sanitary measures are carried out.

Chief sanitary inspectors and medical officers have the right to fine managements for breaking the rules of sanitation and hygiene, or to fine enterprises, establishments, and organizations at which sanitary legislation is violated.

Can it be said that all our cities and inhabited localities are exemplary as far as sanitation is concerned? For the time being, unfortunately not. The air and water sources in a number of cities are still being polluted by industrial waste; some industrial enterprises are continuing to pollute reservoirs with sewage. However, the necessary material conditions are being created in our country for the provision of all industrial enterprises with purifying plants and for the elimination of all defects in this sphere.

At state public health establishments, medical assistance is rendered to the population free of charge—from the most elementary to the most complicated operations, from the removal of a mote from the eye or a splinter from a finger to operations on the heart, lungs, brain or spinal cord.

Nothing is charged for laboratory tests (blood, urine, phlegm and other tests), X-ray examinations, and treatment with X-rays, radium, electricity, medicinal muds, and other methods. It must be noted that, depending on the condition of the patient, such tests and treatments may be undergone at a hospital, polyclinic, and even at home. All patients treated at hospitals, clinics, and institutes pay nothing for medicines, food and care.

Out-patients buy medicines at prices fixed by the Government. The exceptions are sintomycin, vermifuges and insulin, which are free.

Generally, a charge is made for artificial teeth and eyes. Artificial teeth and jaws and facial plastics are free for personal pensioners, war and labour invalids of the 1st and 2nd disability categories, and old age pensioners.

A number of cities have medical establishments requiring payment so that citizens may have the opportunity of con-

sulting a specialist of their own choice. For a small fee medical assistance is rendered by any of the specialists at these establishments.

In the U.S.S.R. private medical practice is also allowed.

With the existence of free state medical aid, the share of the assistance rendered by establishments requiring payment, and by private medical practitioners, is quite negligible.

Medical assistance in the U.S.S.R. is accessible to all. This is ensured by a broad and ever-increasing network of general and specialized medical-prophylactic establishments, by making their services available to the whole population, and by increasing the number of doctors.

The following data on public health expenditure may be taken as an objective index of the growth and development of public health services in the country.

TOTAL EXPENDITURE ON PUBLIC HEALTH
(excluding the Ministry of Railways)
(In millions of rubles)

| Year | 1926-27 | 1929-30 | 1939 | 1940 | 1945 | 1950 | 1955 | 1956 |
|------|---------|---------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|------------------|
| | 253 | 460 | 10,300 | 11,200 | 14,518 | 24,500 | 33,100 | 33,569 (plan) |

Medical-prophylactic assistance is rendered to the population by an extensive system of hospitals, polyclinics, dispensaries, and other medical-prophylactic and sanitary anti-epidemic establishments. In 1950, the Soviet Union had 140,380 public health institutions, while in 1955 their number rose to 153,020.

The total number of hospitals was 4,554 in 1913 compared with the 24,431 hospitals in 1955, while the number of beds was 207,000 and 1,290,000 respectively. In 1913 there were 13 hospital beds for every 10,000 persons in the country, while in 1955 this figure stood at 65.

In 1913, Russia (within the present boundaries) had 28,000 doctors, i.e., 1.7 doctors per 10,000 persons, but in 1955 there were 334,000 doctors or 16.7 doctors per 10,000 persons. Over 70 per cent of the doctors are women.

In 1913, doctors were trained at the medical faculties of universities. There were such faculties at 13 educational institutes with an average of 8,600 students a year, graduating annually an average of 1,500 doctors (1,246 doctors in 1913).

Today, doctors are trained at 68 medical institutes, which graduate 13,000-16,000 doctors annually and in the 1955-56 scholastic year had 135,000 students. Within the next five years, 20,000-25,000 doctors will be graduated annually.

It should be noted, that *at higher and secondary medical educational institutes tuition is free*, as at all educational establishments of our country, and all students who make good progress receive a state stipend, while those needing hostel accommodation are provided with it.

Compared with pre-revolutionary days, the increase in the number of doctors and hospital beds was particularly great in Central Asia and Kazakhstan, as the following figures show:

| | Number of hospital beds | | Increase in 1955 over 1913 | Number of doctors (including dentists) | | Increase in 1955 over 1913 |
|----------------|-------------------------|--------|----------------------------|--|-------|----------------------------|
| | 1913 | 1955 | | 1913 | 1955 | |
| Kirghiz S.S.R. | 100 | 9,285 | 93 times | 15 | 2,217 | 148 times |
| Tajik S.S.R. | 40 | 9,187 | 230 " | 13 | 1,691 | 130 " |
| Uzbek S.S.R. | 997 | 40,012 | 40 " | 128 | 8,278 | 65 " |
| Kazakh S.S.R. | 1,800 | 55,546 | 31 " | 196 | 9,251 | 47 " |
| Turkmen S.S.R. | 277 | 9,936 | 36 " | 56 | 1,944 | 35 " |

The number of feldsher stations rose from 4,539 in 1913 to 68,203 in 1955.

There were more than 9,700 chemist's shops in 1940, but in 1955 this number increased to 12,700; the corresponding figures for chemist's stalls are 13,864 and 70,766.

In recent years, sanitary aviation has been doing a great deal in making medical assistance available to the inhabitants of remote and out-of-the-way localities. Sanitary aviation stations brought medical assistance to 87,600 persons in 1940 and to 642,000 persons in 1955.

Public health establishments and their personnel make every possible use of all the achievements of science and engineering.

The services of the teaching staffs of medical educational establishments and research institutes, of which there are more than 400 with a total of 27,500 scientific workers, are enlisted to provide the population with qualified medical advice.

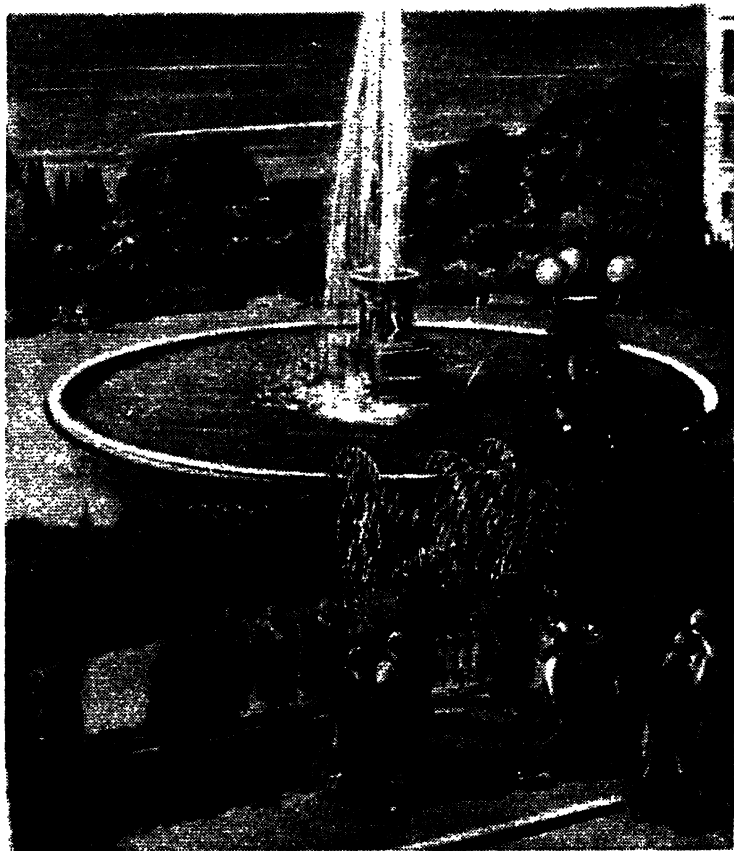
Public health establishments raise the qualifications of their doctors by periodically sending them for advanced training and specialization to institutes or to refresher courses. In 1940, refresher and specialization courses were attended by 13,645 doctors, and in 1955—by 23,362 doctors.

The qualifications of junior medical workers are improved through specialized courses, which trained 28,838 persons in 1940 and 32,635 in 1955.

Sanatoriums and holiday homes, at which some 5 million people annually take cures, rest, and spend their leaves, *are a major means of improving the health of the population*. In 1955, the country had 3,117 sanatoriums and holiday homes with accommodation for 444,000 people.

At children's and bone tuberculosis sanatoriums treatment is free, but at all other sanatoriums a fee is charged. A fee is also charged for accommodation at holiday homes.

It should be borne in mind that a large portion of the passes to sanatoriums and holiday homes are bought by state enterprises and establishments and by the trade unions and resold to factory, office and other workers at a discount of 70 per cent; in addition, the trade unions hand out 20 per



**Splendid place for a holiday! The picture was taken in Sochi
on the Black Sea coast of the Caucasus**

cent of the sanatorium passes and 10 per cent of the holiday home passes free of charge. In the case of low-paid factory, office and other workers who go for a rest cure or reduced price or free passes, the trade unions also bear part of the cost of the transportation to and from the health resort.

One of the most important ways of strengthening the health of the population is through physical culture. In our conditions, physical culture is not only a method of disease prevention and improving people's health, but also a means which is widely applied at medical establishments in the treatment of almost all diseases.

Today, physical culture and sport have a mass following in the Soviet Union. Towards the beginning of 1956, there were nearly 200,000 athletic clubs with a total membership of 17,500,000.

I have already said that the Government is carrying out such large-scale prophylactic measures as sanitary protection of air, water, soil, and so forth. Now, I should like to show how the public health bodies, establishments, and individual workers combine curative and preventive medicine.

This could be best shown by the example of the work of public health establishments which serve industrial workers.

Workers are rendered medical assistance both at their homes and directly at industrial enterprises. Special hospitals and polyclinics are set up at factories, plants, and mines while at big shops there are medical stations headed by doctors or feldshers. The task of the medical establishment at industrial enterprises is not only to give assistance to workers who fall ill or are injured, but primarily to prevent diseases and injuries by securing healthful conditions of labour and removing all factors that may harm the health of workers (draughts, dust, etc.).

The medical workers here organize prophylactic measures against grippe and other diseases, systematically check the health of every worker, keep a strict eye on the sanitary condition of the shops and service quarters (showers, locker

rooms, lavatories), supervise the water supply and preparation of food for workers, and secure the organization of medical diets at dining-rooms. In the coal and ore-mining industry, quartz lamp treatment is provided for workers employed underground; in the ore-mining industry medical workers control the fulfillment of the Government's decisions on compulsory wet drilling for the purpose of preventing silicosis among workers.

At big enterprises there are night sanatoriums (prophylactoriums). Workers accommodated at these sanatoriums continue their regular work. After working hours they go to the sanatoriums where they are fed, receive medical attention, and, if necessary, undergo treatment and rest cures. In the morning, after breakfast, they leave for work fresh and cheerful. As a rule, a sojourn at a sanatorium lasts for one month.

Public health workers also carry on extensive work to prevent infectious diseases. In particular, they vaccinate the population against diphtheria, smallpox, typhus, and so forth. With the purpose of preventing tuberculosis, 90 per cent of the newborn babies are given Calmette-Guérin inoculations; anti-tuberculosis inoculations are given to older children and to juveniles.

The entire fight against infectious diseases and the control of the sanitary condition of cities, towns and villages are united and led by sanitary-epidemiological stations operating in every city, town, village and city district.

In the Soviet Union, people who consider themselves healthy are subjected to prophylactic examinations en masse with the purpose of bringing to light early forms of tuberculosis, cancerous, and other diseases. During these examinations, doctors make wide use of laboratory, X-ray and fluorographic tests. Prophylactic examinations reveal diseases in their earliest stages and make their immediate cure possible.

Every year, tens of millions of people undergo these prophylactic examinations.

It should be noted that prophylactic examinations, inoculations, and vaccinations, as well as disinfecting the homes of patients suffering from infectious diseases are likewise free of charge.

Public health bodies spread sanitary and hygienic knowledge among the population, by means of lectures, talks, films on sanitary education, and so on.

As many people as possible are drawn into the work of medical-prophylactic establishments.

The Ministry of Public Health of the U.S.S.R., its scientific institutions as well as the local public health services devote particular attention to cardio-vascular diseases and malignant tumours as the principal causes of death among the adult population.

One of the main tasks of the public health services is to diagnose and properly treat cardio-vascular diseases and rheumatism in their early stages.

For this purpose there are special dispensaries for such patients, special cardioreumatological consulting-rooms are being set up, experienced therapeutists are encouraged to specialize in cardio-vascular diseases, the latest achievements of medical science are being utilized in treating patients, and special medical establishments and sanatoriums are being opened. Sanitary-epidemiological stations control the conditions of labour at industrial enterprises and take steps to secure a steady improvement of the labour and life of Soviet citizens.

The organization of the oncological service is directed by special oncological dispensaries, of which there are 188. Besides, there are 1,140 oncological consulting-rooms and departments at hospitals.

At the present time, the object of research into the problem of malignant tumours is to reveal the causes of these diseases and to work out reliable methods of diagnosing, treating, and preventing them.

In the Soviet Union, as in other countries, the problem of cancer is as yet unsolved, but the ways of fighting it are

outlined quite clearly: prophylaxis, early diagnosis and timely treatment by methods of combined therapy.

The most effective method of fighting cancer is to subject the population to examinations which allow diagnosing and treating pre-tumour diseases and cancer in their early stages. In the past seven years over 70 million people were examined and of these 0.1 per cent were found to have cancer and 0.9 per cent—pre-tumour diseases. Of all the registered cancer cases, 21 per cent were discovered during prophylactic examinations. The number of neglected cases of cancer dropped from 31.6 per cent in 1949 to 24.3 per cent in 1954.

Due to the combined methods of treatment the percentage of patients cured of cancer has risen from 45.8 in 1949 to 67.5 per cent in 1954.

What, one may ask, are the principal demographic indices?

The following figures show the birth-rate, death-rate and net increase in the population of the Soviet Union:

| Year | Births per 1,000 inhabitants | Deaths per 1,000 inhabitants | Net increase in population per 1,000 inhabitants |
|------|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|---|
| 1913 | 47.0 | 30.2 | 16.8 |
| 1926 | 44.0 | 20.3 | 23.7 |
| 1940 | 31.7 | 18.3 | 13.4 |
| 1950 | 26.5 | 9.6 | 16.9 |
| 1951 | 26.8 | 9.6 | 17.2 |
| 1952 | 26.4 | 9.3 | 17.1 |
| 1953 | 24.9 | 9.0 | 15.9 |
| 1954 | 26.5 | 8.9 | 17.6 |
| 1955 | 25.6 | 8.4 | 17.2 |

As a result of the advance of public health and the further rise of the well-being of the people, in 1955 the death-rate dropped 2.2 times compared with 1940 and 3.6 times compared with 1913.

The average longevity of the population of the U.S.S.R. is about double the average longevity in pre-revolutionary Russia.

MOTHER AND CHILD WELFARE

As soon as Soviet power was established, the Government proclaimed that mother and child welfare was the primary concern of the state.

In spite of the difficulties of that time, children were surrounded with universal attention and care. The first laws issued by the Soviet Government included the decrees on the prohibition of child labour and on the improvement of nourishment for children. The country started building up a network of children's establishments.

In December 1917, a board was set up at the People's Commissariat of Public Welfare "for the study and implementation of urgent measures to protect and promote maternity as a social function of women and for the protection of children as the direct duty of the state."

The implementation of a number of urgent government measures on maternity and child protection was called forth by the high death-rate among mothers during delivery and among children during their first year of life.

In 1911, according to available statistics, infantile mortality in the European part of Russia was 29.1 per 100 babies born alive. In some gubernias, child mortality was even higher. For example, in 1908-12 the figure stood at 40 per cent in Perm Gubernia, 34.4 per cent in Nizhny Novgorod Gubernia, and 33.9 per cent in Vyatka Gubernia. In Moscow, infantile mortality was equal to 32.1 per cent in 1911.

In January 1918, the Government issued a decree aimed at drawing the country's entire population into the struggle against child mortality. The decree stated:

"Two million infant lives that had barely begun were lost annually in Russia owing to the ignorance and backwardness of an oppressed people and to the neglect and

indifference of a class state. Two million grief-stricken mothers annually flooded the Russian land with bitter tears as they buried with their work-worn hands these innocent victims of a hideous state system.

“... You, women workers, toiling citizen-mothers, with your sensitive hearts, you, courageous builders of a new society, you, high-minded pedagogues, pediatricists, obstetricians—the new Russia calls upon all of you to dedicate your hearts and minds to the construction of a new edifice of social protection of future generations.

“All big and small children’s establishments of the Commissariat of Public Welfare, from foundling hospitals in the capitals to modest village crèches, shall merge into a single state organization from the day this decree is published and come under the jurisdiction of the Department of Maternity and Child Protection in order to form an indissoluble association with maternity establishments, to take over from them and continue fulfilling the nation-wide task of bringing up spiritually and physically strong citizens.”

In our country solicitude for the health of a child begins long before its birth.

This solicitude, supported by state laws, is implemented through systematic improvement of the sanitary and hygienic conditions of the labour and life of women, the dissemination of sanitary knowledge among the population, and the rendering of timely free and qualified medical and prophylactic assistance by maternity homes, maternity departments of hospitals, gynaecological hospitals, and women’s consultation centres.

In pre-revolutionary Russia there were rudimentary measures taken to organize medical assistance for expectant mothers and women in and after childbirth. However, these were limited in scope and were of an accidental and mostly philanthropic character.

On January 1, 1914, throughout the whole of the Russian Empire there were 6,824 maternity beds, while on January 1, 1918, this number fell to 5,854. Moreover, in

the territory of Azerbaijan, Armenia, Tajikistan, Kazakhstan and Kirghizia there was not a single maternity bed, neither in the cities nor in the villages.

The lack of medical assistance during childbirth led to a tremendous death-rate among women. In 1917, Professor A. A. Redlikh wrote: "It is not surprising that in Russia, where 95 per cent of the women give birth to children without any medical assistance, 30,000 women die annually of childbirth in the prime of life."

From the very beginning of its existence, the Soviet state set about organizing a mass midwifery service that would be open to every woman. Midwifery service includes assistance to women not only during childbirth but also during the entire period of pregnancy.

The extension of the system of maternity homes and women's consultation centres proceeded at its most rapid pace in 1936-40, after the publication of the decree of June 27, 1936, "On the Prohibition of Abortions, Greater Material Assistance for Women in Childbirth, the Institution of State Aid to Mothers of Large Families, the Extension of the System of Maternity Homes, Crèches, and Nursery Schools, Greater Penal Punishment for Evading the Payment of Alimony, and on Certain Amendments in Divorce Legislation."

These years saw the building of 200 new maternity homes with 16,677 beds.

Prior to the Second World War there were 107,736 maternity beds in hospitals (maternity homes and maternity departments of hospitals) and, in addition, 8,330 collective-farm maternity homes with 25,622 beds.

As with the entire national economy, the public health service suffered great losses during the war. Many lying-in hospitals suffered as well. The rehabilitation of these hospitals was started towards the end of the war, after the publication in July 1944 of the Decree of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. "On Increasing State Aid to Expectant Mothers, Mothers of Large Families and Un-



The guests photographed in front of the Obstetrics and Gynaecology Institute of the U.S.S.R. Ministry of Public Health

married Mothers, Greater Maternity and Child Protection, the Institution of the Honourable Title of 'Mother-Heroine' and the Order of the 'Glory of Motherhood' and the 'Medal of Motherhood.'"

That decree envisaged a large measure of material assistance to expectant mothers and mothers for the upkeep

and upbringing of children. State grants were instituted for women with three and more children and for unmarried mothers; provision was made for improving the diet of expectant mothers and nursing mothers, extending the network of lying-in hospitals and children's establishments, increasing the output of children's clothes, footwear, and so on. All this meant a great deal to the population during the difficult war years.

Altogether, in 1955 the country's hospitals had 138,440 maternity beds, 52,530 gynaecological beds; in addition there were 23,070 beds in collective-farm maternity homes, and tens of thousands of midwifery stations.

The problem of fully ensuring the urban women with hospital accommodation during childbirth has been practically solved in a quantitative respect. Almost all expectant mothers from among the urban population bear their children in maternity homes or in the maternity departments of hospitals.

The task of providing all women in rural localities with medical assistance during childbirth is nearing completion. In 1955, medical personnel assisted in more than 90 per cent of the births in the countryside.

A large share of the medical assistance to women is borne by collective-farm maternity homes organized on the initiative of collective farms with the purpose of making the midwifery service available to collective-farm women. Midwives are sent to collective farms and paid by the state. In her work, the midwife does not limit herself to assisting in childbirths, but also does prophylactic work among expectant mothers and regularly advises them on proper infant care.

The principal midwifery-gynaecological establishment is the maternity home with a women's consultation centre which serves expectant mothers, women in childbirth and gynaecological patients.

In the Soviet Union, the midwifery-gynaecological service is, as with all the other departments of public health,

based on a synthesis of both aspects of medical activity - prevention and cure.

All expectant mothers residing in the district served by a consultation centre (each centre serves the population of a definite district) receive the attention of a specialist in obstetrics and gynaecology in the early stages of pregnancy and remain under his care until childbirth. On the average, if the course of the pregnancy is normal, every expectant mother visits a doctor from six to eight times.

Every expectant mother goes to a consultation centre (in case she falls ill she receives attention at home) where she is attended not only by a specialist in obstetrics and gynaecology, but also by a therapist; when necessary she can consult specialists in other fields as well. Laboratory tests (analyses of the urine, blood, roentgenoscopy, etc.) are made systematically for every expectant mother.

In their daily work, women's consultation centres make use of the method of providing expectant mothers, women in confinement, and gynaecological patients, with consultation at their homes.

Such a system allows for early diagnoses of any complication or disease that may set in during pregnancy.

Sanitary and educational work not only among expectant mothers and gynaecological patients but also among other sections of the adult population residing in the district served by a women's consultation centre occupies a large share of the centre's activities. Special attention is devoted to preventing complications and diseases by popularizing scientific knowledge on the ways and means of protecting the health of mothers and children.

Mass prophylactic examinations of women play an exceptionally great role in bringing to light gynaecological diseases and, in particular, malignant tumours.

The medical personnel of each women's consultation centre investigate the working conditions of women and control the observance of laws protecting the labour of women and, especially, of expectant mothers. All prophylactic

measures, such as the provision of the proper working facilities, the transfer of women to lighter work whenever necessary, and so forth, are carried out by the doctors of a women's consultation centre jointly with the heads of enterprises and trade-union organizations broadly assisted by public bodies.

Besides the growth of the network of midwifery-gynaecological establishments and the change in the character of their activity, Soviet years witnessed an improvement in the objective indices of the quality of the midwifery-gynaecological service. First and foremost, this concerns the maternity death-rate. Prior to the Revolution, the death-rate among women during and after childbirth at the hospitals of many gubernias was 1.0 per cent and over. In 1955, the maternity death-rate at lying-in hospitals throughout the U.S.S.R. was 0.07 per cent, i.e., more than 14 times less than before the Revolution. Post-natal cases of sepsis have almost completely disappeared.

There are many times fewer cases of eclampsia, the present index of which is 0.29 per cent at urban lying-in hospitals and 0.22 per cent at rural maternity homes.

The stillbirth-rate has decreased several times. In 1940, it fluctuated between 4 and 4.5 per cent at the maternity homes in Moscow, but in 1955 it dropped to 1.85 per cent at all urban maternity homes and maternity departments of hospitals in the U.S.S.R.

There has been a large drop in infantile mortality in maternity hospitals and maternity departments of general hospitals. In 1955 the death-rate of new-born infants was 1.2 per cent in urban hospitals and 0.84 per cent in rural hospitals.

A birth is a happy event in every Soviet family. But women do not want the appearance of a baby to be accompanied by suffering and pain.

For a long time the noble idea of delivering women from birth pangs has been occupying the minds of advanced

Russian scientists, who have done much to investigate new methods of painless childbirth.

Until 1951, births were rendered painless mainly with drugs, but this was not a mass practice. In 1951, Soviet scientists worked out a new method of making births painless—the method of psychoprophylaxis. This method is based on the teachings of the great physiologist I. P. Pavlov on the leading role of the central nervous system. Its essence lies in successively preparing an expectant mother for childbirth, banishing her fear of childbirth, and acquainting her with the course of normal births during which pain and suffering are not unavoidable. The expectant mother is taught what to do during childbirth and, as a result, becomes the doctor's active assistant at the delivery of her own child.

The psychoprophylactic method is physiological in character and is completely harmless to the mother and the foetus, a fact which distinguishes it from other existing methods of anaesthetization.

Every passing year sees this method becoming more and more widespread. At present it is being applied not only in towns and cities, but also at rural medical-prophylactic establishments, including midwifery stations and collective-farm maternity homes, where only midwives are in attendance.

Today, this method of painless childbirth is used during 60 per cent of the births in towns and cities and during 44 per cent of the births in rural localities. In some republics the percentage is higher. For example, in the towns of the Ukraine, Georgia, Lithuania, Estonia and other republics over 70 per cent of the births are rendered painless.

The method of psychoprophylaxis does not exclude the possibility of employing medicinal anaesthetics in the rare cases when the psychoprophylactic preparation does not yield the desired effect.

The expansion of the midwifery-gynaecological service at polyclinics and hospitals demanded an increase in the

number of specialists in obstetrics and gynaecology, midwives and feldsher-midwives. In the U.S.S.R., the number of specialists in obstetrics and gynaecology has doubled in comparison with the pre-war period and in 1955 was 20,670.

Still more striking improvements were achieved with respect to the junior midwifery personnel—midwives and feldsher-midwives. Against the nearly 9,000 self-trained and trained midwives of pre-revolutionary Russia, there were 136,370 midwives and feldsher-midwives in the country's medical establishments in 1955.

However, it would be incorrect to credit all the achievements scored in the midwifery-gynaecological service to the public health service. Much depended on the nation-wide measures on maternity and child protection, the introduction of which was begun during the first years of the Soviet power and which have become part and parcel of the life of the Soviet people. Among them is the law on providing working women with paid pregnancy and maternity leaves. Today this leave is 112 days long (56 days before childbirth and 56 days after childbirth) while in the event of an abnormal birth or the birth of twins the post-natal leave is increased from 56 to 70 days.

The law prohibits the employment of expectant mothers and nursing mothers on night work and to send expectant mothers on business trips beginning from the fifth month of pregnancy.

Special legislation prohibits the employment of women on work which may affect their organisms. In case of necessity, expectant mothers are transferred to lighter jobs without any reduction in pay. Strict punishment is meted out for violation of any of these laws.

Particular mention must be made of the question of abortions.

The problem of permitting or prohibiting abortions was resolved in various ways at different stages of our country's development.

In pre-revolutionary Russia, the law prohibited abortions when there were no medical grounds for them. According to the Criminal Code of the Russian Empire, persons performing abortions were punishable as criminal offenders. In spite of the ban, the number of abortions grew from year to year. For example, in Moscow their number increased two and a half times in the period between 1909 and 1914. Taking into consideration the grave consequences of illegal abortions, the economic disorder prevailing in our country in 1918-20 and the material insecurity of the population, the Soviet Government found it expedient to issue in 1920 a law providing for free abortions in hospitals.

During the first few years after that law was published, the number of abortions increased considerably. However, the higher figures were due not only to the actual increase in the number of abortions, but also, to a great extent, to the registration of illicit abortions that became legal. It is noteworthy that after the publication of the law, instead of falling, the birth-rate considerably increased, particularly in Moscow, where the number of births per 1,000 inhabitants was 14.7 in 1918 and 25.6 in 1922.

The law of 1920 legalizing abortions remained valid until 1936, when the problem was reviewed by the Government.

In conformity with a new law, abortions were permitted only where there were the necessary medical grounds.

During the first two years after the law prohibiting abortions was published, the number of illicit abortions was small. However, beginning with 1938, their number again began to grow. As a rule, women who underwent illegal abortions were brought to medical establishments with haemorrhage and, in many cases, with grave complications against which treatment did not always prove effective. Furthermore, abortions performed privately frequently led to serious gynaecological diseases and to sterility.

In 1955, with the aim of safeguarding the health and lives of women, the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. issued a Decree abrogating the prohibition of abortions, considering that as a culturally advanced person, the Soviet woman can decide for herself whether or not to undergo an abortion and that a real drop in the number of abortions can be achieved by further encouraging motherhood, as well as by measures of an educational and explanatory character. Now, women who want to cut short their pregnancy do not have to risk their health and lives by resorting to the services of quacks.

Statistics show that in the course of the nine months since the publication of the Decree, the sick-rate among women has decreased and the death-rate due to abortions performed has dropped to zero in hospitals. It should be added that sick leave paid for out of social insurance funds is granted to women for the period they stay in a hospital in connection with an abortion and for several days after they are discharged.

But the legalization of abortions does not mean that they are encouraged, inasmuch as even when performed in a medical centre they may affect the health of women. Therefore, the Ministry of Public Health of the U.S.S.R. has ordered the public health services to disseminate knowledge on the harmfulness of abortions and, in addition, to ensure the availability of preventives. Unfortunately we do not yet have preventives that fully guarantee against pregnancy. A number of research institutes are now working to produce effective preventives.

The steadily rising material and cultural standards of the population of the U.S.S.R. and the measures taken by the Soviet Government to protect the health of our people—longer pre-natal and post-natal leaves, a shorter working day on Saturdays and on the eve of holidays, the new pensions law, and so forth—will help to reduce the number of abortions, to increase the birth-rate, and to lower the death-rate.

In our country, the protection of the health of children is ensured by the wide provision of children's medical-prophylactic institutions: children's consultation centres, children's hospitals, milk kitchens, children's sanatoriums, crèches, and other services whose number is continuously growing. Strictly speaking, until the Revolution, Russia did not have medical establishments for children, and sick children were treated at polyclinics together with adults. Altogether, in 1913, there were nine mother-and-child consultation centres and several small children's hospitals only in the big cities —Moscow, Petersburg, Kiev.

Today, our children's consultation centres take care of every new-born baby. The main thing is to help the mother during the first days after a baby is born when the least mistake in feeding or nursing may cost it its life. The workers of consultation centres do not wait for the mother to come to them with the baby, but call on the new family upon receiving a notification from the maternity home that the mother and baby have been discharged.

Children's consultation centres popularize widely the correct ways of feeding babies and have taught millions of mothers how to look after, feed, and nurse their babies, as a result of which infant mortality has dropped drastically. In order to ensure the proper feeding of babies, milk kitchens have been set up and there is a special service which obtains and provides donors' milk for babies who do not receive enough from their mothers.

With the general growth of the material welfare of the population, children's consultation centres have secured a high level of physical development in infants, one-year-olds and older children. According to a number of pediatric research institutes, babies born in 1950-52 are more broad-chested and weigh more than pre-war babies.

At the moment, the country has an extensive scheme of children's medical-prophylactic establishments: there are over 7,200 children's consultation centres and polyclinics against the 9 in 1913 and 5,900 in 1940.

This year the number of hospital beds for children reached 183,000, which is twice as many as in 1940.

In 1948-51, the system of hospital and polyclinic services for both adults and children was reorganized as a result of which children's consultation centres became single complex centres embracing polyclinics and hospitals. This reorganization was aimed primarily at improving the qualification of a huge number of district doctors by giving them the opportunity of systematically working in a hospital directly at the bedside for 3-4 months every one or two years and of learning to fight for the lives of their patients with the use of the latest methods of diagnosis and treatment in hospital or at home.

At the same time, the children of each district are now tended by one and the same paediatrist. This new system made it possible to assign paediatrists to a definite district with approximately 1,000 children of all ages so that they could serve these children from birth to adolescence, observe their physical development and, in case of illness, treat them at their homes or have them hospitalized.

In serving such a definite district, the paediatrist and his constant assistant—the district nurse—have the opportunity not only of studying the health of the children in their charge, but also of knowing and, if necessary, influencing the conditions in which the children's families live; this is extremely important for the implementation of all-round measures aimed at improving the health of children.

Through constant contact with parents and children residing in his district, the paediatrist, like the therapist, becomes a real family doctor and friend.

The basis of a paediatrist's work is to prevent disease. First and foremost, this is facilitated by health educational work among the population, especially among mothers. The training of mothers begins in a women's consultation centre long before the birth of the child and continues in the maternity home and later in a children's consultation

centre. For this purpose there are so-called "schools for mothers" where women are taught in accordance with a special programme and are supplied with the necessary popular literature.

While attending the children during the first year of their lives (at home or at a consultation centre), the doctor and the nurse see to it that mothers are well informed on nursing and feeding their babies and begin giving them proper additional foods after five or six months. This is extremely important in the struggle against rickets and hypotrophy. Everybody knows that healthy children are much less susceptible to disease and when they do fall ill they recover much more easily.

The long experience and the theoretically substantiated data of Professors Speransky, Maslov, Lepsky, Dulitsky and others showed that children who are fed at the breast develop properly and are not susceptible to grave forms of rickets because mother's milk contains mineral salts in the quantities and ratios that a baby's organism requires.

Simultaneously with educational work, district pediatricists and district nurses vaccinate or inoculate their charges against smallpox, diphtheria, tuberculosis and so on at specified intervals.

When a child falls ill, the attending pediatricist examines him and, depending on the character and gravity of the disease, treats him at home or sends him to a corresponding hospital.

In recent years, thanks to the over-all and successive character of the work of children's polyclinics and hospitals and the early diagnosis of diseases and their timely treatment, the death-rate due to pneumonia, dysentery, toxic dyspepsia and other grave diseases has been reduced to a minimum at many hospitals and this is undoubtedly contributing towards a systematic drop in infant mortality.

In the Soviet public health system much attention is devoted to medical services for school children. The staff of every children's consultation centre and polyclinic includes

special school pediatricists and trained nurses. They carry out the whole complex of prophylactic and sanitary measures directly at the schools and jointly with the headmasters and teachers see to the creation of favourable sanitary-hygienic conditions for physical training and scholastic studies.

One cannot help mentioning a remarkably effective type of children's establishment which is *contributing greatly towards building up the health of children*. This is the permanently functioning sanatorium for children needing health improvement or special medical treatment.

The children's sanatoriums are medical-prophylactic establishments in which children are ensured a strict health regimen. They spend as much time as possible in the open and extensive use is made of up-to-date special methods of treatment, physical exercise, special diets, etc.

The educational work carried on among the children, the walks in the open, music, rhythmic, and other diversions fill the lives of the children with invigorating impressions and enrich their minds with new knowledge.

These sanatoriums accommodate more than 100,000 children. There is no region, territory, or big city where children do not have the opportunity of getting whatever sanatorium treatment their doctors may prescribe for them.

The Soviet Government annually spends large sums of money on the upkeep of children's sanatoriums, completely freeing parents from paying for the maintenance of their children at sanatoriums throughout the entire period of treatment.

In the Soviet Union, a special type of children's sanatorium, chiefly for school children, is being developed on a broad scale. These are the Forest Schools and their purpose is to improve the health of children in suburban conditions with a special sanatorium regimen, dietetic nourishment, and the application of corresponding methods of physical treatment: physical exercise, physiotherapy,

electro-helio-hydrotherapy, etc. All this is combined with studies in accordance with the established school programmes. Such studies are carried on also in a number of other sanatoriums, where children have to stay for prolonged periods because of the type of disease.

Among the mass measures taken to build up the children's health, mention should be made of the provisions for the annual summer holidays of the children of factory, office and other workers.

Every summer over five and a half million children and juveniles spend their holidays at suburban or urban Young Pioneer camps, while children from nursery schools and crèches are taken to suburban areas.

In 1955, more than 540 million rubles were allotted out of the social insurance budget for the organization of the summer holidays of school children alone.

Such children's medical-prophylactic and educational establishments as crèches, nursery schools and schools help Soviet parents to bring up their children.

Crèches, which cater for children up to the age of three, are extremely popular with the people, especially with working mothers.

They allow working mothers, who have small children, to share actively in economic, cultural and social life and to couple this activity with the fulfilment of the honourable duties of motherhood. Furthermore, crèches free women from many petty household cares and create the conditions for the correct physical and mental development of children.

In 1913, Russia had only a few crèches, which, taken together, could accommodate 550 children.

At present, the country has 22,436 crèches with accommodation for 906,000 children, which is more than in pre-war years.

Besides the permanently functioning crèches, seasonal crèches are opened at collective farms for the duration of the summer fieldwork. In the summer of 1955, these seasonal crèches accommodated 2,330,000 children.

Nevertheless, the existing number of crèches does not yet fully satisfy the growing requirements of the population. For that reason, the Sixth Five-Year Plan for Economic Development of the U.S.S.R. envisages a 44 per cent increase in the number of crèches by 1960 and the building of 2.4 times more premises for them than during the fifth five-year period.

The data yielded by research conducted by Soviet medical scientists made it possible to establish a precise regimen for every age group, taking into account the health of each child. The regimen adopted at these children's establishments is striking root in home conditions as well. This is being furthered by constant contact between the medical personnel of the crèches and the family, which is achieved through nurses regularly visiting the homes of the children and mothers taking spells of duty at crèches.

The functioning of the crèches is planned, taking into account the needs of mothers, the conditions of their work at enterprises and offices, the living conditions of the family, and the health of the children. For that reason, the children are organized into groups which stay at the crèches for 8, 10, 14 or 24 hours.

In addition to the usual groups, crèches with accommodation for 60 and more children have special isolation wards for children who fall ill but do not require treatment at a hospital. At these isolation wards, where medical personnel are on duty every hour of the day and night, children recover rapidly and this saves mothers from having to stop working in order to look after sick children.

The expansion of the range of crèches was accompanied by an improvement of the service. The staffs of crèches—doctors, teachers, instructresses, nurses, cooks, and so on—have been and continue to be painstaking in their efforts to create in crèches the most favourable sanitary-hygienic and pedagogical regimen that would ensure the best possible conditions for the harmonious development of children.



Can't help smiling when you look at these lively babies. During a visit to the crèche of the Krasnaya Roza Factory, Moscow; right—Maria Acosta Ferreira (Uruguay), left—Amanda Palma (Argentina)

Developing stamina in the first years of life is an essential element of the physical education of children. Wide use is made of air baths, physical exercises, and sleep in the open air in all seasons. Particular attention is devoted to the feeding of nursing infants, and hence working mothers are allowed additional time off during the working day to feed their babies in crèches close to the place of work.

Every year sees the Government spending ever larger sums of money on the upkeep of crèches and nursery schools. Parents pay only a small portion—15 per cent—of the cost of maintaining their children at these establishments. Unmarried mothers, mothers of many children, and invalids of the Patriotic War enjoy the additional privilege of paying even less for the maintenance of their children in crèches.

Long experience of operating crèches and nursery schools has revealed the inexpediency of continuing to maintain separate places for children under the age of three and for children from the age of three to seven. This separation complicates the life of mothers who have children of different ages, for they have to take them to different establishments every morning before going to work and make the same round in the evening after work.

At the moment plans are being worked out to build new combined institutions of a standard type which would serve children between 2-3 months and seven years of age, i.e., until they are ready to go to school. The principle of separating children into age groups will be preserved, however.

The maintenance and upbringing of a child in one and the same establishment during the first seven years of his life precludes the painful readjustment which accompanies transfer from one group of children to another, and from a familiar circle of teachers and nurses to a new circle.

Wherever they are, children have pediatricists and trained nurses looking after their health. Today, there are more than 38,000 pediatricists in the country.

Until 1930, the training of doctors in the Soviet Union was general, i.e., without specialization. However, due to the specific anatomy and physiology of children and the diseases that affect them it was found necessary to organize special training for children's doctors.

Today, there are 23 departments offering specialization in pediatrics; besides, children's doctors are trained at the special institute of pediatrics which was founded in Leningrad in 1932. The number of pediatricists increases by more than 2,500 annually.

The qualification of the doctors of children's medical-prophylactic establishments is systematically improved through practice as house physicians at clinics and through attendance of refresher and specialization courses.

One of the ways of improving the knowledge of medical personnel, especially of chief doctors, which is also a means of exchanging experience, is the holding of inter-republican and republican scientific conferences and meetings to discuss the most effective methods of preventing, diagnosing and treating diseases.

The work of the medical personnel of midwifery-gynaecological and children's medical-prophylactic establishments---doctors, midwives, trained nurses, teachers, and so on---rests on the achievements of medical science.

In addition to the establishments safeguarding the health of mothers and children, the system of the Ministry of Public Health of the U.S.S.R. includes special research institutes which are working on scientific methods and practical problems in this sphere. Altogether there are 18 such research institutes in the Soviet Union.

In the plan of economic development for the next five years, the Soviet Government provides for the further advance of public health, greater prophylactic activity by public health bodies, and better medical service for the population.

In 1960, the number of hospital beds will be increased by 28 per cent compared with 1955; accommodation in

crèches will increase by 44 per cent, in nursery schools—by 45 per cent, at sanatoriums—by 10 per cent, and in holiday homes—by 13 per cent.

Moreover, by 1960 the number of beds in hospitals under the Ministry of Public Health of the U.S.S.R. alone will be increased by 340,000 as against the 265,000 beds that were installed during the Fifth Five-Year Plan.

Big outlays will be made to provide medical-prophylactic establishments with the latest medical equipment. The output of the medical industry will increase two and a half times.

Important tasks are facing medical scientists, who will have to apply every effort to find new methods and means of preventing and treating diseases.

REPLIES GIVEN BY M. KOVRIGINA TO QUESTIONS ON HER REPORT

I should first like to say a few words to supplement the answers to some questions submitted to the preceding speakers.

1. What is the percentage of divorces in the U.S.S.R.? Is their number increasing or decreasing?

It is customary the world over to compute the divorces per 1,000 population. The data on divorces are usually compared with those of marriages also computed per 1,000 population. There were 5.6 marriages per 1,000 population in the Soviet Union in 1940 and 11.4 in 1955. Thus, the number of marriages increased during that period nearly twofold. There were 1.1 divorces per 1,000 population in 1940 and 0.6 in 1955. As you see, the number of marriages in the U.S.S.R. is increasing, while that of divorces is decreasing.

The members of the Seminar would probably like to know about the marriages and divorces in other countries. Let me cite some data: the number of marriages per 1,000 population was 9.8 in the U.S.A. (1953), 7.8 in Austria (1954), 8.6 in West Germany (1953-1954), 7.8 in Britain (1953), 7.3 in France (1954) and 7.4 in Italy (1954). The number of divorces per 1,000 population (for the same period) was 2.5 in the U.S.A., 1.3 in Austria, 1.0 in West Germany, 0.7 in Britain, 0.7 in France and 0.5 in Italy.

2. Yesterday, in asking a question on the report made by N. Popova, our good friend Anna Odegaard (Open Door International) voiced a certain dissatisfaction and disagreement with the line which is consistently and ever more persistently pursued in our country, the line aimed at liberating women from hard and harmful work. N. Popova answered this remark. As a physician I should like to say a few words concerning this question.

Wherever a woman may work and whatever work she may be doing, she is still a woman with the great function of bearing children endowed to her by nature. Any nation and any state, if they intend to live, develop and build a still more beautiful future, cannot help being concerned for women, cannot but safeguard woman who gives life to human beings.

There are occupations and branches of production where the work is harmful to the child-bearing function of women. Science has proved that hard physical labour impairs woman's sexual organism, frequently leads to disturbances in the menstrual cycles, to the inability to carry pregnancy to a normal end, to a ptosis and sometimes to a prolapse of the internal sexual organs. In addition, it has been observed that women who work in the chemical and mining industries frequently experience difficulties in pregnancy as a result of the systematic exposure to hazards in these industries. These women much more frequently show premature climacterium, i.e., early termination of the sexual function.

Poisons (lead and mercury) may unfavourably affect the embryo cells and cause sterility, miscarriages, and premature childbirth; they may also be responsible for defective physical development of the children. In addition, these poisons find their way into the milk of nursing mothers and may thus produce a toxic effect on the breast-fed children.

I shall not take up more of your time. I think these examples are sufficiently convincing. The results of the studies conducted by various institutes of the Ministry of Pub-

lic Health, which I have just mentioned, serve as the basis for prohibiting female labour in a number of branches of Soviet industry.

I am all for equality of women, my dear friends, but at the same time I am also against employing women in hard and harmful work. Even if a mine is mechanized, it is still a mine. And if we ourselves had to mine coal, we would use it more sparingly in the first place, and would be the most fervent agitators for taking woman out of the mines and freeing her from other hard labour, besides.

3. The last question: what are we doing to overcome the prejudice which is still rather widespread in a number of countries, namely, male "superiority"?

Before answering this question, let me give you a little historical information. As you well know, the history of the struggle of women for their rights is rather old and long. The opponents of woman's equality, in addition to coarse administrative measures against women who wanted to occupy an equal place in society, tried to prove their case by scientific data, that is to say, they attempted to provide a scientific basis for woman's inequality. The pamphlet of the German scientist Möbius *On the Physiological Weak-Mindedness of Women* was an attempt "scientifically" to prove woman's inferiority. The author argued that women generally had weaker mental faculties than men and that they lost their mental powers sooner than men. Möbius maintained that women possessed feelings and instincts that made them animal-like and dependent creatures, that they were incapable of creative work, and fit only to be mothers and to rear children.

There were opponents, scientific opponents, if we may say so, of woman's education, of woman's participation in the development of science. They tried to prove that woman was incapable of pursuing scientific studies since, as they maintained, her brain weighed less than that of man. (*Laughter in the hall.*) As a matter of fact, the weight of the brain was studied by many scientists and most of them

have arrived at the conclusion that the brain of woman weighs little less than that of man. The average weight of a man's brain is 1,368 grammes, that of woman—1,227 grammes. The scientists have also proved that the size of the brain is affected by the person's height; the taller the person, the higher the absolute weight of his brain. The weight of the brain is also influenced by age.

At the same time, modern scientists believe that no direct parallel can be drawn between the weight of the brain and the degree of mental development. Mental development depends on many other factors: on the number of convolutions of the cerebral cortex, on the number and quality of nerve-cells, on the area of the cortex, on the degree to which the neural axones are branched, on the blood supply to the brain, etc., etc. Incidentally, the weight of the brain of outstanding people varies very widely, i.e., it may equal the mean weight and may be considerably higher or lower than the mean weight. For example, the brain of Turgenev weighed 2,012 grammes, while that of Anatole France weighed 1,017 grammes.

Consequently, the somewhat smaller brain of woman, as compared to that of man, is not connected with the level of mental development, but depends on the size of the body and that of the cranium. Incidentally, we cannot consider a whale the cleverest creature in the world only because his brain weighs five kilogrammes.

I shall not cite any other theories; I shall only mention the fact that one of the most furious opponents of woman's education had a brain weighing less than the mean woman's brain. (*Laughter in the hall.*) I can hardly say today whether this should be explained by the fact that he was a very brilliant person or simply that he was of a very small stature.

After this rather long excursion into history, allow me to give you a concrete answer to the question about what we are doing to overcome the prejudice concerning male "superiority."

I must emphasize that in our country we have essentially overcome this prejudice. Objective scientific research shows that in her mental faculties and potentialities woman is not inferior to man and that there is no particular male superiority in this respect.

The practice of all countries proves convincingly that woman copes with the work assigned to her no worse than man does. The enormous experience of our country confirms it. According to my own personal observations, there are in no way fewer incapable or lazy men than there are women.

Now I shall answer the questions put directly to me.

1. Do Soviet physicians agree with those of other countries who maintain that the development of a small child, who does not spend at least a few hours a day with his mother, is retarded?

Our scientists do not agree with this. They have demonstrated scientifically and have shown in practice that a child can be brought up without a mother from the very moment of its birth but only on the condition that everything be done to bring it up and protect its health.

If you had a little spare time you could visit our special children's institutions, the children's homes. These homes bring up little children who have lost their parents, particularly in the rare cases when the mother died soon after childbirth. The children in these institutions develop normally and are in no way inferior to the youngsters brought up in the family.

2. Are women allowed to join the Soviet Army?

In war time, in accordance with the law of universal military service, women of a number of professions (physicians, medical nurses, communication workers, pilots and navigators of civil aviation, etc.) are conscripted and appointed to the same positions as men. In peace time there is no need for a large army, and only men of conscription age are, therefore, called up. However, there is still a small group of women of the above-mentioned specialities in our Army.

3. Anna Odegaard, Representative of the Open Door International, voiced her opinion that the granting of leave to women before and after childbirth is a discrimination against women. In this case, Mme. Odegaard referred to the fact that it will embarrass the employer to free woman from work because of pregnancy and childbirth and to pay her during leave.

In this connection, I must say that we live under different conditions and regard this problem from a different point of view. In our country the employer is not a private owner, but the state, vitally interested in protecting the health of the people, and in bringing up a well-developed and healthy generation. We can, therefore, never have the differences and contradictions that exist in many countries between the employers, on the one hand, and employees on the other.

4. Mme. Monica Whately (I want to answer her question at the same time) said, that in a socialist, in a communist state, woman must also mine coal if there is a problem of coal-mining.

I must answer this as follows: we value coal, we need coal, but to our country and to our people the health of the human being is more valuable and more important than coal. If we take this into consideration, our position will appear very simple and clear: woman does not have to mine coal herself, because this work is too hard for a woman. In addition, the solution of the problem of supplying the country with coal does not necessarily mean actual work at the face. Woman can and does help to solve this problem according to her physical strength and abilities in lighter work and not underground.

5. How do we train auxiliary medical personnel and do we have enough of it?

By auxiliary medical personnel we imply workers with a secondary medical education: X-ray technicians, medical-apparatus technicians, etc. We train these cadres in special educational establishments and have enough of them. The course of training of the auxiliary medical personnel lasts

2.5 years for ten-year-school graduates and 4 years for seven-year-school graduates.

6. Now we have a question about breast-feeding of babies.

In our country it is customary to suckle babies, and our scientists approve of it. However, we are not against the foreign practice of artificial nursing of babies. We are now carefully studying this practice. It is not improbable that good experience will in some measure be also adopted by us. Generally speaking, we never reject anything that is good abroad and we believe mutual exchange of experience to be very useful.

7. What percentage of the women of our country suckle their babies?

The overwhelming majority of women suckle their babies up to 9-10 months of age. Artificially-fed babies constitute 6.3 per cent.

8. How is this problem solved if the mothers work?

To begin with, every mother, factory or office worker, has a 2-month paid leave after childbirth and stays with the child. Furthermore, each mother has the right to add her regular leave to that given for pregnancy and childbirth. Women most frequently take this leave after childbirth. Thus, the leave after childbirth, when the mother is with her child, is prolonged.

Going back to work, every woman can continue suckling her baby because the law allows each nursing mother at least a 30-minute recess every 3 hours to feed her baby.

9. Are there any difficulties in drawing girls into the profession of medical nurses?

There are none. Usually, there are at least two applications for every place in the secondary medical schools and as a result of competition, the girl with greater knowledge is admitted.

10. Is there a law making the use of medical aid in case of infectious disease obligatory?

There is no such law, but we are conducting extensive educational work explaining the need for resorting to the

aid of a physician in any disease, especially in infectious disease in order to begin treatment in good time and to take prophylactic measures to prevent the spread of infectious diseases.

11. How is the regimen of the child in the family and in the crèche coordinated?

The crèche keeps in constant touch with the family, with the mother. The life of the child in the crèche is so organized as not to violate a sound home regimen.

The mothers come to the crèches daily; they bring and take their children away. In addition, workers of the crèches visit the children in their families. From time to time mothers voluntarily perform certain duties in the crèches in order to know what's doing there and to keep an eye on the life and rearing of their children.

12. Are men and women given a medical examination before marriage?

No, no such medical examinations are given in our country. Man and woman contracting marriage sign a statement to the effect that they are aware of each other's health, particularly as regards venereal and mental diseases, and tuberculosis. According to our Criminal Code, infection of a person with a venereal disease by one who was aware of his disease is punishable by imprisonment.

13. Now about obstetrical aid in the countryside: is its organization similar to that in the city?

In my report I have already mentioned the number of maternity beds, obstetrical and feldsher and midwifery stations in the countryside. I can only add that according to the Rules of the Agricultural Artel, every collective-farm woman is granted pregnancy and childbirth leave for 60 calendar days: 30 days before and 30 days after childbirth.

Many collective farms now give their women the same pregnancy and childbirth leave as the women workers and employees have in the cities, i.e., 112 calendar days.



The foreign audience does not embarrass the young dancers at the crèche of an Uzbek collective farm

14. Why are there so many women in the medical profession? Why are there so many women physicians?

I think this is primarily explained by the fact that the profession of a physician is closest to a woman's heart. Opinions have been expressed here that the low earnings of a physician might be the reason that there are so few men engaged in this work. I must say that the physicians in our country earn no less than teachers, agronomists, engineers, etc., so that this motive is excluded.

15. Is there any venereal disease in the Soviet Union and what do we do to fight it?

There is still some venereal disease in our country, though its incidence is decreasing with each passing year. Thus, the incidence of infectious forms of syphilis in 1955 was $\frac{1}{5}$ that of 1950.

We have a wide network of specialized institutions for the struggle against venereal disease: dermatological and venereological dispensaries, consultation rooms and wards in

hospitals. Venereal patients are treated free of charge. All patients with infectious forms of syphilis are hospitalized without fail during the first 24 hours after the disease has become known. Patients evading treatment are given enforced treatment by medical institutions. People who are sources of infection, but do not know it themselves, are immediately given treatment.

16. What percentage of women are given treatment for painless childbirth and does Soviet medicine have the means of rendering all childbirth painless?

As I have already mentioned in my report, 60 per cent of the births in the cities and 44 per cent in rural communities are administered by the method of painless childbirth.

The psychoprophylactic method predominates. Pharmacological means are also used. We have the necessary means and facilities to render all childbirth painless and this is the goal we are striving for.

17. How many years must one study to become a physician or a dentist?

Our medical institutes admit graduates of secondary (ten-year) schools. The institutes offer a six-year course of training. Dentists in our country are considered specialists with a secondary education and study three years. We have stomatologists who study for five years at stomatological institutes and in corresponding faculties. These physicians practise maxillary and facial surgery rather than only treat and prevent dental disease, as do the dentists.

18. How are psychology and psychiatry developing in the U.S.S.R.?

Scientific research in the field of psychology and psychiatry is conducted in the Soviet Union all the time.

We have seven research institutes of psychiatry. They are working on very important problems, such as schizophrenia, epilepsy, etc. In addition to these institutes, scientific-research work is also conducted by 80 chairs of psychiatry and neuropathology in medical institutes.

The Academy of Pedagogical Sciences has a special insti-

tute of psychology which conducts all-round scientific investigations in this field. Moscow State University has a special faculty of philosophy and psychology which trains teachers of psychology for higher educational establishments.

Special journals dealing with problems of psychiatry and psychology are published.

19. What is the total population of the Soviet Union?

The population of the Soviet Union (at April 1956) is 202 millions; of these, 113.2 million people live in the countryside and 87 millions in cities.

20. Are there many people who wish to enter medical schools?

Let me give you the following figures: in 1955 we were supposed to admit 27,600 students to medical institutes. Examinations were taken by 81,742. There is approximately the same situation in the secondary medical schools.

21. What scientific degrees are there in medicine?

There are two scientific degrees: Candidate of Medical Science, and Doctor of Medical Science.

22. Here is a question on advanced training of physicians.

Every physician in our country has the right and the opportunity to take advanced training. Physicians working in rural communities are obliged to take graduate work every three years, which is given due consideration in our plans for the advanced training of physicians.

23. Are all the workers of the Ministry of Public Health physicians?

In addition to the medical we also have economic functions, which are discharged by people without a medical education. All posts connected directly with medical affairs are occupied by physicians. This holds true not only for the Ministry but also for all public health bodies.

24. Are any attempts made to make the unmarried mother marry the man who is the father of her child?

In general, we never force anybody into marriage in our country. We believe every woman must decide this problem herself.

WOMEN'S RIGHT TO EDUCATION IN THE SOVIET UNION

REPORT by **LYUDMILA DUBROVINA**,
Deputy Minister of Education of the Russian Federation

The purpose of my report is to acquaint you with what has been done in our country to give effect to the full equality of women in the field of education.

The question of women's education has always been one of the chief issues of the women's movement. Throughout the centuries many of the best minds sought ways and means of solving it.

The great English utopian Thomas Moore upheld the right of women to attend the "halls of science" and to study there with men.

Tommaso Campanella, the Italian utopian, had the men and women of his *City of the Sun* mastering learning together.

Jan Amos Komensky, the great Czech educator, devoted one of the chapters of his *Great Didactics* to this question, saying that girls should be admitted to the schools. "Women," he wrote, "have the same gift as men (and sometimes more so) for rapidly grasping knowledge."

Russian progressives like Belinsky, Chernyshevsky and Dobrolyubov were also champions of women's education. They pointed out that an all-round education was necessary for women not merely in their personal lives, but primarily to enable them to serve society.

However, the emancipation of women and their equal rights in the field of education were out of the question in the conditions of the old society. Only the revolutionary transformation of society could bring about the complete emancipation of woman and make her a full-fledged, equal builder of the new society and the new culture.

WOMEN'S EDUCATION IN THE PAST

The path to women's equality in the field of education was a long and difficult one.

The young Soviet Republic inherited a bad legacy from pre-revolutionary Russia. Before the October Revolution the people, the producers of all material and cultural values, were denied all possibility of enjoying them. And as regards education and culture, women were the worst victims of this robbery.

According to the 1897 census (the last census before the Revolution) a mere 21 per cent of the population from the age of 9 years and upwards were literate. The percentage of literacy among men was 35.8, and among women, only 12.4. Practically all women in the outlying regions were unable to read or write.

Barely one-fifth of the children of school age attended the schools in the old Russia, and among these the number of girls was much lower than boys. This was true even of the elementary schools, to say nothing of the other educational establishments.

For the best part of two centuries representatives of advanced thought in Russia waged a resolute fight for female education.

Girls' secondary schools began to appear in Russia in the second part of the 18th century. These were special boarding schools for the children of the privileged nobility. This was designed to prove that Russia had an "enlightened monarchy."

In the second half of the 19th century the Ministry of

Public Education formally allowed girls from all sections of society in the girls' schools, although actually only the children of the well-to-do classes were in a position to avail themselves of the opportunity. These schools were the forerunners of the girls' gymnasium and progymnasium. However, the knowledge one could acquire in these gymnasiums in the basic subjects (Russian language, mathematics, physics, history, and others) was less than in the male gymnasiums, and their graduates could not enter the university or any other state higher educational establishment.

And so, irrespective of social status, higher education for women remained only a dream.

The history of higher education in Russia knows only of a few instances when women succeeded in getting into university auditoriums. The University Rules introduced in 1863 barred the entry of women into the universities. When students protested and staged demonstrations against these rules, the tsarist government temporarily closed the St. Petersburg University and imprisoned many of the demonstrators in the Peter and Paul Fortress.

At that time Russian women could get a higher education only abroad. But to do this they had to overcome many prejudices both in society and in their own families. In order to enter the higher educational courses which functioned parallel to the universities but which did not confer degrees, women had to have the consent of parents or husband.

Women seeking intellectual work encountered all kinds of obstacles. Consequently, even those of them who managed to get a higher education were unable to apply their knowledge.

The workers and peasants, who took power in their hands in October 1917, were faced with the great task of realizing genuine equality of women with men in the sphere of education, of making knowledge accessible to millions of women. But despite the difficulty and the unprecedented scale of the task, it was carried out in a remarkably brief period.

RADICAL CHANGES IN PUBLIC EDUCATION

Since the first days of its existence the Soviet Government has devoted close attention to public education, culture and science. The transformations effected and the success achieved in these spheres during the years of Soviet rule add up to a genuine cultural revolution.

This cultural revolution was made possible by and effected on the basis of deep-going political and socio-economic changes—the reconstruction of the entire national economy on a socialist foundation. The transformations in the sphere of culture were carried out with the active support and widespread participation of millions—men and women—vitaly interested in reaching the summits of human culture.

Socialist culture was created on the basis of a critical assimilation of all advanced knowledge of previous generations and of the domestic and world cultural heritages that have been handed down to us.

In our country all material and cultural values became the property of the people after the Revolution. The words of the great Lenin have come true: "In the past the human mind and genius were devoted solely to ensuring that some enjoyed all the blessings of technique and culture, while others were deprived of the most essential—education and development. Now, however, all the wonders of technology and all the gains of culture have become common property, and from now on the human mind and genius will never be used as a means of violence, as a means of exploitation."

The right of all citizens of the Soviet Union to education is recorded in and guaranteed by the U.S.S.R. Constitution. This right is ensured by universal, compulsory seven-year education, by broad development of secondary education, free tuition in all schools, both secondary and higher, the system of state stipends for students, teaching in the native language, and by free industrial, technical and agricultural

training in factories, state farms, machine and tractor stations and collective farms.

The entire population of our country—children and adults, men and women—are making use of their right to education. Something like 35 millions of boys and girls take their places every day at the desks in general schools and in technical schools. The number of students in the higher educational establishments, including correspondence students, amounts to 1,867,000. Three million people in industry and agriculture are acquiring a secondary or higher education after working hours. All forms of study, including courses for improving qualifications, cater for some 50 million people.

Public education in the U.S.S.R. is a function of the state. All expenditure on schools, technical training and higher education is covered by the U.S.S.R. State Budget and the budgets of the Union republics.

Another feature of Soviet education is its thoroughly democratic nature; it is available to all, irrespective of sex, race, nationality, property or religious status. Strictly unified programmes and methods of study are observed in the various links of the system, beginning with the kindergarten and continuing through the general schools, specialized secondary and higher educational establishments, and research institutes.

The school has been separated from the church and the church from the state. Consequently, there is no religious instruction in our schools. For those who want a religious education there are schools under the jurisdiction of the corresponding denominations.

One of the most important indications of the accessibility and genuinely popular character of Soviet education is the fact that it is free of charge. True, during the past few years small fees were charged in the senior classes of secondary schools and in the specialized secondary and higher establishments. Beginning with the current year, however,



Senedu Gebru (Ethiopia) makes new friends at School
No. 717, Moscow

such fees have been abolished and tuition is free in all types of schools.

The Soviet Union has been transformed into a country of complete literacy, into a country which is now in the process of switching from general seven-year education to general secondary education.

Actually, general secondary education (we have in mind secondary education in general schools and in specialized schools) is already practised in all the large cities and industrial centres. Good progress in this direction is being made in rural localities as well. More than half the pupils completing the seven-year village schools go on to the secondary ten-year schools. By 1960 the transfer to general secondary schooling will have been carried out in the main in all towns and villages.

This year 1,400,000 pupils finished secondary school. The coming years will see an increase in this figure. In the next

few years, the entire younger generation in our country will be receiving at least a general secondary or specialized secondary education.

These developments necessitated a big school-building programme. Before the Revolution Russia had a little more than 100,000 schools, most of them elementary; secondary schools were in the region of 2,000. Now there are over 200,000 elementary, seven-year and secondary schools—the latter numbering 34,000, 17 times more than in pre-revolutionary days. Over 75,000 of these schools have been built since 1929. In a single five-year period (1933-37) 18,800 schools were built, approximately as many as were built in old Russia in 200 years.

Teaching personnel has increased considerably. Before the Revolution there were 231,000 teachers, now there are 1,700,000, a seven-fold increase.

Equally astonishing is the spread of higher and specialized secondary education. The old Russia had 91 higher educational institutions, with a register of 112,000 students. Today there are 765 universities, academies and institutes with a student body 16 times greater than in pre-revolutionary days.

The years of Soviet rule have seen the rise of a new intelligentsia which has come from the people and is wholly devoted to the people. In 1913 specialists with higher and secondary education were less than 200,000. The figure for January 1, 1956, was 5.5 million. This year nearly 760,000 specialists with higher and intermediate education have graduated from our schools—120,000 more than last year.

The Soviet state has placed before itself the aim of making all industrial workers and peasants, men and women, cultured and educated, of raising their educational level to the level of engineering-technical personnel. This task is being carried out gradually but surely. Nowadays there are factories in which the majority of the workers have not only seven-year schooling, but also a secondary or specialized secondary education.

Striking proof of the attention bestowed on public education is the steady increase in the budgetary allocations for educational and cultural purposes.

In 1955, allocation amounted to 68,400 million rubles; in 1956, 72,600 million. The over-all allocation for social and cultural measures amounted to 161,500 million rubles, 9 per cent more than in the previous budget.

The increase in educational expenditure has been made possible, among other things, by cutting military expenditure. In 1956, military expenditure, compared with 1955, has been cut by 10,000 million rubles. The demobilization now being effected of 1,200,000 men, the second cut in the Soviet armed forces, will result in a still further reduction in military allocations, which reflects the consistent peace-loving policy of the Soviet state aimed at preserving and strengthening world peace.

Especially rapid cultural progress has been made in the non-Russian republics—at one time the wretched colonial frontier areas of tsarist Russia. At present there are schools functioning in 58 languages of Soviet peoples, many of which acquired a written language only after the Revolution.

The Uzbek S.S.R. offers an example of the changes that have taken place. In tsarist colonial days there were only 160 schools on the territory of the present Uzbek Republic. These were the medieval type of school far removed from everyday life. A little more than 17,000 pupils, only 3,000 of them village children, were taught in these schools. In all the village schools there was a total of 82 teachers. Every obstacle was raised to teaching children in their native language. Something like 98 per cent of the population could neither read nor write.

In present-day Soviet Uzbekistan there are more than 5,000 schools with a teaching personnel of over 60,000, including 45,000 village teachers. Higher educational establishments in the republic, including 2 universities, number 34. Compared with 1924, the number of pupils is 17 times

greater, in the technical schools 11 times and in the colleges 12 times greater.

Or take the Tajik S.S.R. Formerly only one half of one per cent of the population of Tajikistan could read and write. Today the republic has 2,500 general schools with an enrolment of over 317,000, 4 pedagogical institutes, 2 normal schools, medical and agricultural institutes, and 33 specialized secondary schools. There is also a republican Academy of Sciences.

The Uzbek and Tajik Union republics are no exceptions. Illiteracy has been abolished in all the Union republics, compulsory education is universal, a native intelligentsia has been trained and the blossoming of national culture assured.

In the R.S.F.S.R. educational and other social-economic allocations account for 61.3 per cent of budgetary expenditure, 57 per cent in the Ukrainian S.S.R., 65.1 per cent in Uzbekistan and 58.6 per cent in Kirghizia.

Such are the changes that have taken place in the country's cultural contours during the 39 years since the Great October Socialist Revolution, that great border line between the old and the new, between the past and the present.

COMPLETE EQUALITY OF WOMEN IN THE SPHERE OF EDUCATION

The equality of women in the sphere of education, not only on paper, but in practice, has been an integral part and a cardinal feature of cultural progress in our country.

* * *

Realization of the right of Soviet woman to education began with the *abolition of illiteracy*.

Had we not started our battle for culture with the abolition of illiteracy, we could never have achieved the high cultural level of today. For even "a thousand-mile journey begins with a single step."

Literacy was a necessary condition for raising the cultural level and social activity of women. The abolition of illiteracy, including female illiteracy, became a genuinely national task. The slogan was advanced: "Every literate person must teach one illiterate." The measures taken by the Government were actively supported by the "Down With Illiteracy Society," which numbered millions of people, both youth and adults, in its ranks.

A big role in helping the women to overcome illiteracy was played by the so-called "women's delegate conferences" formed immediately after the Revolution, and by other organizations set up to help women workers and peasants. Every literate delegate undertook to teach her neighbour, friend or work mate. Schools and classes were arranged for people who could neither read nor write and in many cases they were given individual tuition. Hundreds of thousands and even millions of working women wrestled with the alphabet. Grey-haired pupils—women workers and peasants—who had experienced all the horrors of slave conditions under capitalism, copied out the first phrase from their ABC: "We are not slaves." The children of mothers burdened with large families were looked after in special rooms while they attended classes; teachers came to them at their homes and they were given time off work to learn their letters. In addition to mastering the art of reading and writing, the women were also taught industrial trades.

This work was carried out on a gigantic scale and it yielded fruit. By the latter thirties illiteracy and semi-literacy had all but disappeared. Another shameful heritage of the past had been done away with in our country.

It was now possible to launch intensive effort in the field of further education and specialized training of women. Acquisition of knowledge enabled women to get more skilled jobs in industry, to occupy leading posts, and brought them more and more into social and political work.

* * *

The introduction of coeducation and compulsory education immediately after the Revolution was an important condition for the final abolition of discrimination against women in the sphere of education. During 1930-31 seven-year schooling was introduced in the towns and industrial settlements and four-year elementary schooling in rural localities. Already before the outbreak of the war we were nearing the realization of seven-year schooling in the villages as well as in the towns. Secondary education, too, developed on a growing scale. The war halted this process and delayed the switch to general seven-year and secondary schooling, especially on the territory occupied by the enemy. But shortly after the war, in 1949-51, seven-year schooling had become the rule, and, on this basis, the large-scale transition to general secondary education began.

At the beginning of the 1955-56 school year there were in the elementary, seven-year and secondary schools of the Soviet Union 28,076,600 pupils, of whom 13,919,400, or 49.6 per cent, were girls.

An important indication of the complete equality in education is the curriculum which has always been one and the same for both boys and girls.

A distinctive feature of education in the general schools is the unity and complete consistency of each phase of study (1st-4th, 5th-7th, 8th-10th grades). The content of the education derives from the unified state programmes, which strictly determine the knowledge to be imparted by each type of school (elementary, seven-year and secondary). Expressed therein is the thorough democratism of the educational system which gives to all children without exception, irrespective of sex and nationality, the same basic knowledge needed both for continuing education at higher levels (the specialized secondary and higher school), or for any kind of practical activity.

One has only to think about the aims and tasks which the Soviet general school sets itself in order to see that they, in absolutely equal degree, have in view girls as well as boys.

It is our aim—and we have never concealed it—to train future active builders of the communist society.

In keeping with this, the Soviet school considers it its function:

to equip pupils with knowledge of the fundamentals of the sciences of nature, society and human thinking and to develop in them a scientific outlook;

to acquaint the younger generation with the general outlines of modern industry, the fundamentals of modern technique, and to teach them to link the conclusions of science with the practice of socialist construction;

to ensure development in pupils of firm moral convictions; to implant in them boundless loyalty to their native land, respect and love for other nations, humanism, diligence, honesty and truthfulness;

to ensure coordination of the pupil's mental development with correct physical development; to bring up a generation of healthy, vigorous people;

to provide for aesthetic education of pupils, to teach them to understand and appreciate art, develop aesthetic taste and cultivate creative ability.

The curriculum for the ten-year secondary school envisages 9,857 hours of study and includes the following subjects: Russian language and literature (2,788 hours), mathematics (1,980), history (66), the Constitution of the U.S.S.R. (33), geography (479), biology (396), physics (544), astronomy (33), chemistry (347), psychology (33), foreign language (660), physical culture (660), drawing (198), draughtsmanship (132), singing (198), manual training in workshops and at school experimental plots (330), agricultural practice, machine instruction and electrical engineering (198), excursions to factories, power stations, collective farms, state farms and machine and tractor stations (188).

The forty-year experience of the Soviet school irrefutably proves that the knowledge imparted by the school can be fully assimilated and is needed by girls as well as boys.

The unscientific claims to the effect that girls find mathematics, physics and chemistry more difficult than boys, that technique has little attraction for girls, etc., are utterly refuted by the experience of teaching millions of boys and girls in our country.

One of the most important tasks facing the Soviet school at present is the introduction of polytechnical education, designed to strengthen the bonds between school and practical life.

Polytechnical education reflects the link between theory and practice and the unity of theory and practice. It is called upon, on the basis of a broad general education, to acquaint pupils with the fundamentals of modern socialist production and with its vital elements—electric-power development, machines, technology and organization of production, and to show them how the laws of science are applied to industry.

In our view polytechnical education in no way contradicts the tasks of humanitarian education. Both the subjects of the humanitarian cycle and those of the natural-science cycle should be harmoniously combined in correct proportions in the general school. Closely linked with these is aesthetic and physical training. The solving of these tasks in their entirety should ensure all-round development of personality and prepare the pupil for a free choice of profession.

The best schools in our country have already accumulated highly interesting experience in relation to polytechnical education. Just now educational bodies and teachers are working on the reconstruction of the general school so that the boys and girls upon finishing the ten-year secondary school shall have a good general education—a stepping-stone to higher education and, at the same time, be prepared for practical activity, since considerable numbers of secondary-school graduates, with the introduction of general secondary education, will be taking up jobs in the different branches of the national economy.

For the purpose of preparing pupils for everyday life, special subjects are being introduced dealing with the fundamentals of modern industrial and agricultural production. In addition to work on experimental plots and in workshops, and in addition to the visits to factories, which have been widely developed in recent years, production practice in industry, on collective and state farms and machine and tractor stations will be arranged for senior-class pupils.

In the process of teaching the basic subjects (mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, geography, draughtsmanship) more attention will be devoted to giving the pupils an idea of not only the fundamentals of modern industry, but also of the most important branches of production. These will include electric-power development, metallurgy, machine-building, chemical industry, the building industry as well as crop cultivation and animal husbandry.

More and more attention is being paid to correctly linking school education with production work.

In view of the different requirements of pupils, including some of the specific requirements of girls, special subjects will be introduced, among them needlework and domestic science.

The unified programme for boys and girls ensures complete equality for them also upon entering higher educational establishments and industry.

Separate education for boys and girls was introduced in 1943 in schools in the big cities. The measure affected a relatively small number of schools (little more than 2 per cent of the total), and a slightly bigger percentage of the student body (12-13 per cent). The underlying idea was to create conditions for greater attention to the specific physical development of boys and girls. It was believed, too, that separate education would result in better discipline.

Experience, however, has not justified continuation of separate education. After a thorough airing of the matter in the press, and as a result of discussions with parents and teachers, a decision was taken to abolish separate educa-

tion and, beginning with 1954, coeducation became universal throughout the Soviet Union.

It should be stressed, however, that separate education did not signify any curtailing of the educational rights of girls—the curriculum and requirements in the girls' schools never differed from those in the boys' schools.

Only in the teaching of physical culture is the programme different for boys and girls. From 1st to 4th forms the physical culture programme is a common one, from 5th to 7th forms there are different exercises, and from 8th to 10th forms the programmes are quite different.

* * *

The broad system of out-of-school establishments which exists in our country furthers the aims of the school and supplements them. Pioneer houses and palaces, children's technical centres, centres for young naturalists, children's theatres and cinemas, recreation parks, clubs and stadiums, special music and art schools—all are at the disposal of the children, in equal measure of boys and girls, for the purpose of developing their talents, for satisfying their individual requirements and inclinations and for ensuring pleasant and useful recreation.

At the present time there are 9,522 out-of-school children's establishments including:

| | |
|--|-------|
| Pioneer palaces and houses | 2,154 |
| Centres for young technicians | 231 |
| Centres for young naturalists | 197 |
| Children's excursion centres | 129 |
| Children's parks | 122 |
| Children's libraries and branches in libraries for adults | 6,000 |
| Children's theatres and puppet theatres | 101 |
| Children's railways | 29 |
| Children's sports schools | 792 |

Millions of boys and girls take part in classes and circles, in physical culture competitions and Olympiads, in

touring, amateur art festivals, and in local and national exhibitions of children's technical and artistic creation.

The experience of joint extra-curricular work also proves convincingly that the abilities and inclinations of girls give no grounds for talk about the need for special forms of out-of-school work, or about them being slower than boys in technical pursuits, modelling, and sports.

Correct organization of extra-curricular work develops among the girls the ability to take part in the most varied forms of this work, and the talent and interest displayed by them is not a whit less than the talent and interest displayed by boys. Many examples could be adduced in confirmation of this.

Our school graduates are confident of the morrow. They are sure that they will be equal and full members of society. They know that none of them will be without interesting work of their own choice, that labour is honoured and that the opportunities for creative endeavour are greater now than ever before.

Girls as well as boys finishing secondary school are looking forward to becoming metal turners or combine operators, field crop experts or designers, teachers or architects, engineers or artists. Their ambitions are to explore the depths of the earth, to build factories and electric stations, bring virgin lands under cultivation, raise record crops, employ atomic energy for peaceful purposes, explore inter-planetary space.

And there is no insurmountable barrier to the realization of the Soviet schoolgirl's dreams.

* * *

The family, as well as the school, is an important centre of socialist education in our country. Both family and school work in close contact in the matter of educating the children. Mothers take an active part in the parents' committees at the schools where they help in organizing out-of-school work, and also aid the teachers in working with backward

pupils. And the more educated the woman, the more successful she is in bringing up her children and the more effective is her participation in the life of the school.

The school in its turn helps the family.

Beginning with 1956 the family will be further aided by the opening of boarding schools. These schools of a new type are designed further to improve child education and give effect to the Leninist principle of combining study with productive labour.

In the old days the privileged classes had special schools for their children where they received an aristocratic education. Today, of course, it is not a matter of setting up schools for the children of privileged classes. In our country the privileged classes have long since disappeared. Now it is a question of setting up educational establishments for the children of ordinary people, establishments that will train builders of the new, communist society, men and women devoted to lofty ideals.

The new boarding schools are built mainly in wooded areas and in places where the climate is favourable and healthy. They provide a rational, healthy regimen of life and all the conditions for successful study, manual, physical and aesthetic training, and also recreation.

They are designed to give the pupils a solid foundation of knowledge in conformity with the general polytechnical secondary school programme, acquaint them with the fundamentals of modern industrial and agricultural production, and teach them good working habits, while taking care of their physical and all-round spiritual development.

In 1956, boarding schools have been opened in all the Union republics. Their enrolment consists of the children of widows, war and labour invalids, and unmarried mothers, as well as children of large families where both the mother and the father work, and so on. In all cases children are taken in on the request of parents who feel they need the assistance of the boarding school in bringing up their children.

* * *

Study while working. Since the establishment of Soviet government, a widely ramified system of evening and correspondence schools has been set up in our country. These give industrial and office workers and peasants, both men and women, an education while they continue to hold their jobs. The factors that make themselves felt here are the new socialist nature of work and the new role played by education as a prime need of the working people.

More and more young people and adult workers and peasants who for various reasons were not able to finish their education are evincing a desire to finish the seven-year or ten-year general school while continuing to work. To meet their wishes an extensive system of seven-year and ten-year evening and correspondence schools for working youth has been set up in the past 10-12 years. Some factories have initiated movements for workers who never finished school to make up for the deficiency by taking first the seven-year and then the ten-year secondary school course while working at their jobs.

The Kupavna Worsted Mill can be given as an example. This mill has achieved an exceptionally high standard of productivity and quality of output. Soviet people are well acquainted with the names of two of its workers—Maria Rozhnyova and Lydia Kononenko, who initiated a country-wide mass movement for increasing output per kilogramme of raw material. Many of the other women workers and engineers of this mill have gained renown by their accomplishments on the job and effective utilization of the latest types of machinery. One of the factors to which the Kupavna women workers owe their achievements is that everybody at the mill studies. The public organizations and mill management drew up and carried out a plan to give all workers a seven-year education, and then undertook to get all workers without a full secondary education to finish evening secondary schools. Besides general schools, specialized evening schools also function at the Kupavna Mill for those who want to study while working.

At many industrial enterprises there now are educational centres offering a variety of training facilities, and branches of secondary and higher schools. Lectures are delivered by professors and academicians. Many workers, men and women, take correspondence courses at secondary and higher schools, while tens of thousands of technical courses and schools train skilled workers and improve their qualifications while they continue to work in their regular jobs.

* * *

Training for industrial trades. The vocational school system is designed to meet the requirements of those who wish to learn trades at an early age. These are chiefly two-year vocational schools for youngsters with a seven-year schooling, giving instruction in factory, railway, mining, and other trades. Girls are accepted at a somewhat later age than boys—from 15 to 16 (boys at 14 and 15). Their study programmes provide for general and technical subjects, and also production practice with the aim of preparing pupils for their professions.

The vocational schools train girls for a wide variety of trades, thus reflecting the ample opportunities for women to enter most trades in industry. At the same time, however, admission rules of vocational schools take into account the specific characteristics of the female. For instance, girls are not accepted in schools training personnel for the coal-mining, ore-mining and iron and steel industries; in the railway schools they are not accepted for jobs connected with the actual running of trains; and in the chemical-industry schools they are not accepted for jobs concerned with production of soda, sulphur and nitric acid, ammonia, mineral fertilizers, salts, plastics and dyes.

Upon finishing the vocational school and beginning work, the girl, as a rule, continues her education either in evening school or by correspondence course or in a specialized secondary school.

For the purpose of training workers with higher skill special technical schools have been opened in recent years based on the ten-year general school, with a one-year term of study. These technical schools are very popular with the boys and girls graduating the ten-year school. The high educational level of the technical school applicants (general secondary education) facilitates the training of personnel who quickly master the intricacies of their chosen trade and become highly skilled craftsmen. The technical-school graduate who has worked for a certain period in industry or agriculture, is given preference in admission to a higher educational establishment.

* * *

Specialized secondary and higher education. Specialized secondary schools and higher educational institutes were opened to women with the advent of Soviet rule. Fear of competition and the privileged position of the men no longer barred women from jobs hitherto regarded as a male preserve. But in those early years the knowledge at the command of women, as of men, was often below the level needed for entry into these institutes. The need to make good the lag gave rise to the so-called *rabfaks*—workers' preparatory schools attached to higher educational institutes, which played an important role in preparing women factory workers and peasants for the higher schools.

The rate at which women were drawn into specialized secondary and higher education can be seen from the following data:

| | 1925-26 school year | 1931-32 school year |
|---|------------------------|------------------------|
| Rabfaks | 6,800 | 117,700 |
| Specialized secondary schools | 71,500 | 272,300 |
| Technical schools, including technical colleges | 50,700 | 148,400 |

The following table affords an idea of the growth of the percentage of women in secondary and higher schools of various types:

| | 1928 | 1934 | 1935 | 1936 | 1937 | 1938 |
|--|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Percentage of women in higher schools | 28.1 | 33.5 | 38.0 | 39.5 | 41.0 | 43.1 |
| Including: | | | | | | |
| Universities and pedagogical colleges | 48.7 | 50.2 | 48.4 | 46.8 | 47.4 | 48.2 |
| Art colleges | | | | | 39.0 | 40.7 |
| Medical colleges | 52.0 | 75.1 | 71.2 | 69.0 | 68.8 | 67.5 |
| Percentage of women in specialized and general secondary schools . . | 37.6 | 43.9 | 44.1 | 43.0 | 46.7 | 51.6 |
| Including: | | | | | | |
| Secondary teachers' schools | 53.5 | 54.6 | 55.2 | 54.3 | 55.9 | 57.0 |
| Secondary art schools | | | | | 40.5 | 39.3 |
| Secondary medical schools | 89.3 | 80.7 | 79.7 | 76.3 | 79.9 | 83.3 |

Subsequent years saw a steady increase in the flow of women into the specialized secondary and higher schools until finally their number approximated the ratio of women to the total population. Hence the proportion of women in the secondary and higher schools ceased to be a problem.

The number of men and women in the various types of schools and colleges varies in accordance with the nature of the school.

Here are the figures for the 1955-56 school year:

| | |
|---|-----------|
| Total registration in specialized secondary schools, excluding correspondence courses | 1,674,000 |
| Number of women | 916,000 |
| Percentage | 54.8 |
| Total registration in higher schools, excluding correspondence courses | 1,227,900 |
| Number of women | 642,800 |
| Percentage | 52.3 |



The guests were delighted by what they saw at the Gnesin
Musical School, Moscow

By adding the correspondence registration to the total for higher education we get a figure of nearly one million women students.

In some colleges they outnumber male students. For instance, women constitute 75 per cent of the students in technical colleges training specialists for the food industry; in light and textile industry colleges the figure is 74.5; in medical colleges it is 71 per cent; in the universities and teachers' training colleges, 67 per cent. In building-industry colleges the female enrolment is nearly 40 per cent, agricultural colleges, 37 per cent, iron and steel industry colleges (blast-furnace, rolling-mill and foundry specialists), over 31 per cent, geological colleges, 31 per cent, machine-building, 23 per cent, and in mining and oil industry colleges, 16.5 per cent, etc.

If it is borne in mind that at the end of the twenties (1928-29) women accounted for a mere 25 per cent of the

college enrolment, the sex equality reached in the sphere of education becomes clear.

A whole generation of women has already passed through the secondary and higher technical schools to augment the ranks of specialists in the different branches of the national economy and culture. In some professions, notably in teaching and in medicine, women now outnumber men.

The following table gives the figures for women teachers in the general and specialized secondary schools for the beginning of the 1955-56 school year:

| | |
|---|-----------|
| Total teaching personnel in general schools . . . | 1,624,558 |
| Number of women | 1,141,573 |
| Percentage | 70.3 |
| Total personnel in specialized secondary schools | 115,230 |
| Number of women | 51,247 |
| Percentage | 44.5 |

The next few years will see a further growth in the number of specialists (women included) graduating from secondary and higher schools. Another four million are to be trained in the period 1956-60, or nearly as many as in the previous ten years.

The abolition of tuition fees and the changes in scales and system of paying stipends (stipends are paid now not only for good marks, but also on the basis of the financial circumstances of the student) ensure the best of opportunities for students of both sexes.

Other developments include extension of evening and correspondence courses to enable people holding jobs to continue professional study after working hours.

The 1955-56 registration for evening courses in the higher schools was 80,842, of which figure women constituted 41.7 per cent; female registration for the correspondence courses offered by the higher schools was 324,126, more than half the total (50.8 per cent).

Nearly 19,000 women have taken scientific degrees. They account for 42.3 per cent of the personnel in the U.S.S.R.

Academy of Sciences. Over half their number have taken scientific degrees. And this in a country where only 39 years ago the majority of women workers were domestic servants, farm-labourers and other unskilled workers, where there were practically no women engineers and doctors, to say nothing of women scientists, and where women teachers were sneered at.

Such are some of the figures for secondary and higher education among women in the Soviet Union.

FEMALE EDUCATION IN THE NON-RUSSIAN REPUBLICS AND REGIONS

There still exists in the world the ideology which asserts that some races are superior to others and that some of the races are incapable of attaining civilization. This ideology could be found also in the old Russia where it was used to justify the colonial policy of tsarism which, with a view to keeping the masses in subjection, deliberately retarded economic and cultural development in the former outlying regions.

The history of our country has fully refuted these reactionary views which are so inimical to the people.

The Soviet Union developed as a multi-national socialist state based on equality of all nations and races. Equality of rights of the Soviet nations precludes national "majorities" and national "minorities," since none of the nationalities, neither in theory nor in practice, has fewer rights and fewer opportunities for economic and cultural development than the others.

This Leninist national policy has ensured the development of education, science and art in all Union and autonomous republics and in all national areas.

However, in organizing women's education in a number of areas in Central Asia, in the Far North, in mountain regions and elsewhere, certain peculiarities had to be taken into account and the biggest difficulties, caused by hang-

overs from the past and a bitter class struggle, had to be overcome. True heroism was required of the women to uphold their right to education on a par with men as well as their other rights.

Before the Revolution girls in the East could only attend religious schools, which were schools only in name. There were no school premises and the girls had to go to the mullah's house where his wife taught the lessons. Lessons were given in the kitchen or in the cowshed. Class-room equipment was non-existent. The girls remained on their feet during lessons, and the number of school-days in the year was not very great. Upon reaching a certain age the girls received no more schooling. Education consisted in teaching the fundamentals of the Moslem religion in Arabic, a language which the girls did not understand.

In these circumstances the introduction of public education meant starting from the very beginning. As a first measure the Soviet authorities tackled the job of abolishing illiteracy and of opening schools in which the pupils were taught in their own language.

Eastern women were unable immediately to take advantage of the rights accorded them by Soviet rule. Enormous difficulties were encountered in getting girls to attend the schools and in getting older women to attend classes for reading and writing; the patriarchal-feudal attitude towards women, the influence exerted by the *bais* and the clergy, old customs and prejudices—all this had to be overcome. One of these old customs was the wearing of the veil, without which the eastern woman could not appear in the presence of men.

In the areas where religious laws and customs of the past in relation to women were strongly entrenched, special classes and schools had to be opened not only for adults, but also for girls, as well as schools to train local women teachers.

Mobile schools were organized for nomad areas. In the Far North boarding schools were opened in which the pupils

lived during the term, the government supplying their clothes and food free of charge. In these schools the children, living and studying in a collective atmosphere, soon acquired cultured habits. Such schools are functioning even now in the North, in remote corners of the taiga and the tundra.

The first teachers in these schools, many of them women, came from Moscow, Leningrad, Vladivostok, the Volga region and the Ukraine. Today most of the peoples inhabiting the Far North—the Saami, Nentsi, Khanty, Evenki, Nanaisi, Yumty, Udeghei and others have their own teachers, trained in special schools and colleges opened for the purpose.

The following table gives an idea of the growth in the number of girl pupils during the first years of compulsory education in the Union and autonomous republics.

| | Percentage of girls | |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------|---------|
| | 1927-28 | 1935-36 |
| U.S.S.R. (as a whole) | 39.6 | 46.9 |
| <i>Union republics</i> | | |
| R.S.F.S.R. | 40.2 | 47.7 |
| Ukrainian S.S.R. | 39.8 | 47.0 |
| Byelorussian S.S.R. | 37.6 | 46.9 |
| Uzbek S.S.R. | 4 | 40.2 |
| Turkmen S.S.R. | 29.8 | 42.5 |
| <i>Autonomous republics</i> | | |
| Baslikir A.S.S.R. | 36.4 | 44.9 |
| Chuvash A.S.S.R. | 32.0 | 44.9 |
| Tatar A.S.S.R. | 39.0 | 45.7 |
| Daghestan A.S.S.R. | 27.8 | 37.8 |
| Buryat-Mongolian A.S.S.R. | 38.8 | 49.5 |

In the struggle to emancipate woman and give her the benefit of literacy and culture it was necessary to overcome

the frantic resistance of the supporters of the older order, who insulted the women, threatened them and resorted to beatings. Some of the leading women were murdered. The life of the Kirghiz woman Tursun Usmanova, a former illiterate who became People's Commissar for Social Security of the Kirghiz Republic in 1930, can be cited as an example of the path taken by the women in their fight for freedom and knowledge. At the age of 13 she had been sold in marriage. When she began to study she was beaten up, and on one occasion the kulaks poured oil on her and tried to burn her alive.

But life asserted itself. The women of the East, of the mountain villages and of the Far North began to take a more and more active part in the industrial, social and political life of the country.

Here is what the women themselves say about the change that has taken place in their lives. In an article headed "The Bright Pathway of Science," published on the occasion of the 25th anniversary of the introduction of compulsory elementary education, Ugulkhan Azimova, Uzbek school-teacher and Deputy to the U.S.S.R. Supreme Soviet, wrote: "The past 25 years have seen the blazing of wide and clear pathways to science, knowledge and culture in every district and in every village. The people are anxious to see that all children, boys and girls, attend school. Parents of children who miss lessons without excuses are summoned to the collective-farm chairman. Here in the chairman's office we see an old collective farmer whose daughter for some reason or another has stopped going to school. 'Why don't you send your daughter to school?' the chairman asks. 'Do you think she'll get through life without education? After all, times are different now. Look at all the new machines we're getting. Only educated people can work them. . . .' The conversation goes on and switches to farm matters. It would seem that they have forgotten all about the girl. But next morning she is sitting in the class-room with her schoolmates."

Aishat Magomedova, Deputy to the U.S.S.R. Supreme Soviet, writes about her native Daghestan: "In our Autonomous Republic there are 30 nationalities. One of them—the Laki—forms the Laki National District. Before the October Revolution not one of the Daghestan nationalities had a written language of its own, hardly any of the villagers could read or write. On the rare occasions when the postman brought a letter, the people would tramp from village to village in search of an 'enlightened person.' Today every mountain village has its elementary and seven-year schools. The bigger villages have secondary schools with hostels for the boys and girls who live at a distance.

"In the past the mountain people never sent their daughters to school—they gave them away in marriage without asking their consent. Nowadays such things happen rarely. The girls of the mountain areas are eagerly reaching out for knowledge."

Complete adult literacy, the attendance of all girls at seven-year schools and ample opportunity for secondary education, the large number of women teachers among the national intelligentsia, women scientists—these are facts vastly different from the past of the non-Russian republics and areas. They are striking testimony to the rapid strides made by women's education in our country, to their unquestionable equality in this field.

* * *

Allow me to sum up briefly.

From what has been said it can be seen that in our country the problem of women's education has been solved once and for all. Not only under the law, but in actual practice the equality of women in the sphere of education is an established fact. This is of enormous importance in solving the national-economic and cultural tasks facing our people. However, can we say that we have fully done away with the survivals of the backwardness that was the woman's lot through the centuries? No, we cannot, for who does not

know how tenacious prejudices are, how hard it is to banish them completely.

But as the cultural revolution proceeds the people rid themselves more and more of the remnants of old customs and habits. We can safely say that one of the basic achievements of the cultural revolution effected in our country is the changes it has brought about in the spiritual make-up of the Soviet man and woman.

The education and enlightenment of women, with the people themselves taking a highly active part in the process, has been one of the most important functions of the Soviet state, one of its cardinal and most thankful tasks. Moreover, in the new conditions created in our country, culture no longer could remain the prerogative of a small privileged class. It inevitably became accessible to the millions of working women, to all women workers and peasants.

The very life of the Soviet Union has proved the fallacy of the bourgeois theories that regard woman as an inferior being and approach women's education from a narrow utilitarian standpoint, limiting it to the knowledge required to manage a household.

Equality of women in the sphere of education—the outcome of their political and economic emancipation—is at the same time a powerful lever in the construction of communism, that most advanced of social systems towards which we are marching, thereby making mankind's age-old dream come true—a dream that was cherished by humanity's noblest, most progressive minds.

REPLIES GIVEN BY L. DUBROVINA TO QUESTIONS ON HER REPORT

Mme. Odegaard (Open Door International) has suggested that boys, too, should be taught domestic science, and be accustomed to household matters, needlework, etc.

The optional lessons which we are organizing in the schools on these subjects will be open to boys as well. For boys and girls displaying special interest in them we have vocational schools which train cooks, dressmakers, etc., and boys and girls eagerly enrol for them. At the moment we are studying the experience accumulated abroad in teaching domestic science to boys and girls, and much that is useful and instructive will, undoubtedly, be taken over and applied.

Mme. Odegaard said that 30 years ago they had a competition in Norway between men and women to establish which sex was most suitable for post-office work.

Here in our country experience has shown that women can master any profession and take part equally with men in all spheres of industry and education and successfully compete for the best results. However, I must stress that competition between men and women which would counterpoise one sex to the other, is, in our view, unsuitable and cannot be practised in our country.

Mme. Laaksonen (Housewives Association of Finland) asks about the teaching of domestic science in special schools and in higher educational establishments.

I must tell you that in our country there are no special schools for domestic science nor are there special courses on the subject in the university programmes.

But in the humanitarian colleges, chiefly in the teacher training colleges and in universities there are optional courses for those desirous of taking domestic science. Moreover, there are numerous needlework and knitting classes in the colleges.

I should point out that we have, in addition, an extensive range of secondary schools, specialized schools, and also colleges which train personnel for domestic science, but not on the plane of purely individual housekeeping. I have in mind public feeding, introducing mechanical devices and gadgets, which, in the aggregate, save housewives much time and effort. Training establishments of this kind can be found in the food industry, in public utilities, bread-baking, confectionery industry, and many other branches of domestic science.

Lastly, I must not forget to point out that we publish large numbers of journals, books and articles on domestic science and kindred subjects. I can mention periodicals which give much space to them: *Soviet Woman*, *Rabotnitsa (Working Woman)*, *Krestyanka (Peasant Woman)*, *Family and School*, *Health*, and others. We have an illustrated cookery book entitled *Tasty and Wholesome Food*, the book *Do Your Own Sewing*, and all kinds of aids and patterns for knitting and sewing. The Institute of Sanitary Education attached to the U.S.S.R. Ministry of Public Health puts out a large number of special books.

You will see, therefore, that every girl and boy has the opportunity to acquire knowledge of domestic science and housekeeping generally.

Mme. Van Lanschoot wants to know about our system of paying stipends.

In the past stipends were paid according to a single principle which is also taken into account at present. The scale of the stipend depended on the results achieved by the stu-

dent. If his marks were good, or excellent, he received a stipend irrespective of his economic position. In August 1956, the Government introduced certain changes into the payment of stipends. At present students who fail to get good or excellent marks for certain subjects, but only satisfactory, qualify for stipends depending on their economic position—the scale being fixed by the head of the institute and the student organizations. On the other hand, in cases where the student has top marks, but is economically well-off, he does not qualify for a stipend. These changes are designed to help the needy student and to ensure his progress.

Mme. Baer asks about girls in the vocational schools, a subject touched upon in my talk.

I think that M. Kovrigina, U.S.S.R. Minister of Public Health, gave a fairly detailed explanation of our attitude in this matter and for this reason I will not repeat what she said. Generally speaking I can say that there are women who have demonstrated their ability to master the most complex professions. Zinaida Troitskaya, now Director-General of Railways, was our first woman locomotive-driver and as such won world renown. I could mention the names of many women who are expert at other jobs and trades. But that is not the main point. Our attitude is not to bring women wholesale into arduous occupations. We restrict and prohibit employment of women in occupations which are harmful to their functions of motherhood. But one point, I think, should be stressed. The question of female labour in arduous occupations should be regarded historically. In the past, and to a certain extent even now, there were jobs really arduous and harmful to women. But life marches ahead. We are now mechanizing many labour processes, and because of this many jobs can be done by women without any detriment whatsoever to their health.

Mrs. Barnes (Australian Women's Charter) wants to know about schools for backward and defective children.

This is an extremely important matter. Here in our country we devote special attention to these children. We believe that it is our duty to do all in our power to compensate to the maximum for physical or mental defects, both inherited defects and those caused by the war. Everybody knows that bombing caused deafness and loss of eyesight among children, that it crippled many of them. It is our sacred duty to look after these children. Consequently in our system of public education we have special schools and other establishments, with boarding schools for deaf, blind, and mentally defective children. These schools have a special curriculum and the term of study is longer.

By way of example I might mention the so-called auxiliary boarding schools for backward children where they systematically master, true over a longer period of time, the general educational subjects and where their mental and physical health is improved thanks to a correct school regimen, to the corrective-educational work; speech defects are set right and habits of self-service and good behaviour inculcated; pupils are gradually accustomed to discipline and to the rules of community life.

There are specially equipped class-rooms in these schools, for example, speech-therapy rooms for children with grave speech defects, and hearing-therapy rooms for the deaf and dumb and children hard of hearing. Pupils in these schools, in addition to class-room lessons, receive special training in workshops. The main job, in our view, is to see that these children get a schooling and training which enable them to work and play a full part as members of socialist society. In our country care for these children is not a matter of charity, it is one of the vital functions of the Soviet state.

Now for the questions asked by Mme. Parmanand.

Budgetary allocations for higher and secondary education in the U.S.S.R. can be represented by the ratio 1:2.3.

With regard to the percentage of the family budget spent on educating the children, I can give you the following

figures as stated previously, education is completely free, all expenditure being borne by the state. The only charge on the parents is for text-books, and the price of these is very low. For instance the complete set of text-books for pupils in the first form costs 7 rubles 25 kopeks, for the second form—4 rubles 30 kopeks, for the third—5 rubles 60 kopeks, fourth—11 rubles 5 kopeks, fifth—24 rubles 60 kopeks, sixth—24 rubles 75 kopeks, seventh—18 rubles 20 kopeks, eighth—53 rubles 65 kopeks, ninth—28 rubles 25 kopeks, and for the 10th form—53 rubles 95 kopeks; writing accessories, pencils, pens, copybooks, paints, drawing instruments, etc., are also paid for by the parents. All in all, parent expenditure on the education of a child is, approximately, from 60 to 100 rubles a year, depending on the particular form.

This is about from one to two per cent of the budget of a family with one wage-earner, if more than one—mother, father, brothers and sisters—the percentage will, of course, be much lower.

Concerning the training of children for jobs on the railways. To be a railway worker is considered an honour, and it is not accidental that we call our country a “railway power.” For seven-year school leavers there are special railway schools where the training is spread over two-three years, intermediate personnel are trained in vocational schools—specialists in transport colleges.

For the purpose of promoting a liking for railway work we have developed an extremely interesting method of working with the children—children’s railways. On these railways the children really carry out the functions of railway workers. Each railway is serviced only by children and youths who act as drivers, conductors, signal men and station-masters. Girls take part in this with the same eagerness as boys.

Measures designed to guide school pupils in choosing a profession are many. There are lectures and talks in the

schools which acquaint the pupils with industrial occupations. Then we have what we call the "days" or "weeks" of "open doors" in the factories and colleges to enable the children to become directly acquainted with the given educational establishment or enterprise. Finally there are special lectures and radio broadcasts, and the pupils have meetings with workers, engineers, technicians, old boys of the school, and with students in the higher educational establishments.

Mme. Parmanand asks whether the teachers live in dormitories in the same way as pupils and students.

With regard to the higher educational institutes, many of the teachers live in buildings set apart for them specially, in their own apartments, while the students live in the dormitories if their parents do not reside in the given town. Extra-curricular work in the student dormitories is conducted by public organizations, and also by teachers and lecturers. Teachers visit the dormitories where they converse with students on matters of interest and hold talks. In the boarding schools where the pupils live there is always a teacher on duty so that the pupils are constantly under the eye of the teacher.

The next question concerns teachers' salaries and how they compare with salaries paid to other professional workers.

The average salary is about the same as that of the certified engineer or doctor. After 25 years' service the teacher qualifies for a long-service pension amounting to 40 per cent of the salary irrespective of age. For rural teachers there are supplementary privileges: they live rent free, with free heating and lighting; grants are available for those desirous of building their own houses and they receive a plot of land amounting to one-quarter of a hectare; they are also relieved of a number of agricultural taxes.

Mme. Parmanand asks about the new boarding schools. Maintenance and education of a pupil in the boarding

school cost approximately 7,000 rubles a year. Parents pay a fee which is based on the over-all family earnings. For children of factory and office workers in the lower wage categories there is no fee. And for families of three, four and five children there is a discount ranging from 35 to 50 per cent.

To the question whether the boarding schools in our country bear any resemblance to the special boarding schools, say, in Britain, I would reply by saying that while there may be an outward likeness, one must always bear in mind the fundamental difference which distinguishes the Soviet boarding school from the exclusive educational institutes which existed in the old Russia, or which exist today in Britain. In the past these were, as a rule the prerogative of children of the privileged classes. They were special establishments designed for the purpose of educating children in the spirit of class domination, in the spirit of preserving the class divisions in society, of preserving and intensifying exploitation of man by man.

With us things are the very opposite. Our boarding schools are establishments of a new type; they are for the children of the people, designed to train a generation capable of upholding the new social relations based on complete abolition of exploitation. In our boarding schools we shall educate our young people in the spirit of the most advanced and progressive ideas of the age, rear people who will be irreconcilable to all social injustice, and who will devote themselves wholly to the noble task of building the new communist society which corresponds to the aspirations of progressive humanity. Hence, the pupils in our boarding schools will not have any special privileges. They will be educated in the spirit of diligence and ability to work. Combination of study and socially productive work—corresponding to the age of the pupil—this will be the basic feature of our boarding schools.

Mme. Jensen (National Women's Council, Denmark) asks about technical education for girls—are they told that cer-

tain occupations are injurious to women's health. We have already spoken in detail about this. I will merely say that entry into any special educational establishment, higher or secondary, is preceded by a medical examination which confirms whether or not the applicant's health is appropriate to the given establishment.

Such subjects as safety measures, labour protection, including protection of female labour, etc., are part of the training and are compulsory.

Mme. Jeanne Marie Small de Morsier (International Union for Child Welfare, Switzerland) asks how we prepare boys and girls for parental duties. My answer to that is this: the school programmes are such, and chiefly the biology programme, including anatomy and physiology, that they impart knowledge of hygiene. There are, moreover, special consultations for boys and girls, and lectures for parents, including young parents; they are recommended to read special literature. And lastly, if the questioner has in mind inculcation of correct understanding of the moral foundations of the family, then I would say that our entire literature, all our art, the theatre and the cinema, have the mission of fighting for the moral purity of the family, for a stable and friendly family, based on mutual love and respect for husband and wife, on a definite division of their functions and simultaneously on their comradely and economic mutual aid.

For the purpose of preparing young men and women for family life there are lectures on the subject of family and marriage, discussions on films, books and plays reflecting family life, talks by doctors, etc.

Mme. Iohanne Willet Rosenberg (Dutch Federation of Business and Professional Women) and Mme. Odegaard both ask about student marriages and the measures taken to help newly-wed students.

I can tell you that the number of student marriages in our country is really growing. When boy and girl students decide to get married, the university or the college, in ad-

dition to the usual allowances, gives supplementary help. They leave the dormitories for a separate room and are granted an extra allowance; their children (if the parents so wish) are placed in a children's home, in the nursery or kindergarten as the case may be.

Mme. Jeanne Foucart wants to know about sex education among young people. I have partly answered this question already.

I may add that in the matter of sex education we make no distinction between boys and girls up to the age of puberty. From the age of 13 and 14, in connection with lessons in physical culture and sport, we give the necessary explanations to girls in forms 6-8 concerning the biological reasons which prevent them from taking part in these lessons at definite times. The class teachers or the school doctors arrange talks with pupils of these ages, and with their parents, on questions of sex hygiene.

As for giving a scientific idea of reproduction this is done gradually beginning with the fifth form: during their study of botany the pupils become acquainted with the elementary processes of plant fertilization and development of the embryo; a deeper study is made during the lessons on animal life and botany in the 7th form and, finally, in the course on anatomy and physiology in the 8th form. Study is rounded off in the 9th form where reproduction is examined on the general biological plane.

Indirectly the question of sex education receives attention during lessons on literature—ethical norms of behaviour and relations between boys and girls are taught on the basis of the forms of morality between men and women.

Mme. Roesad, member of the United Nations Commission on the Status of Women, asks what we do to form good habits and correct behaviour among junior school children.

This is done through the entire system of study and educational work. Stories in the readers and special talks by

the teachers are devoted to this. But our main endeavour in this respect is to ensure, by means of systematic work, that good habits become the normal form of behaviour. For all school children we have what we call "rules of behaviour," observance of which is obligatory from the first year at school.

Mrs. Semmens asks about the ratio of pupils in urban and rural schools.

I can give you the figures for the Russian Federation. Pupils in the town schools amount to 42.9 per cent of the total contingent, in the rural schools 57.1 per cent. These figures testify to the tremendous increase in the number of towns and industrial centres in our country.

In reply to Mme. Nabaraoui concerning the number of points necessary for entry into higher educational establishments, I must tell you that we have competitions for entry into college and university. For each place there is, as a rule, not one but several applications. The number of examinations (four or five subjects) depends on the nature of the given establishment. The maximum points given for four examinations—five marks for each—is 20, for five examinations it is 25. Those with the highest points are given preference.

And the last question: What is the explanation for the big percentage of women in the higher educational institutes and among specialists with secondary and higher specialized education? Can it be explained by the fact that women predominate in the population of our country?

I believe that, in accordance with the general laws of nature, in our country, as in other countries, males and females are born in more or less the same numbers. However, as you will appreciate, the war caused certain changes in the general balance of the population—most of the millions who lost their lives in the war were men. We do not attach undue significance to the two or three per cent numerical superiority of females compared with males in our higher educational establishments, believing that this is relatively

temporary phenomenon which, in due course, will be levelled out by the birth-rate. I repeat, that in our view the two or three per cent excess of women does not warrant speaking about it as a phenomenon requiring special analysis or investigation. The percentage varies for the different colleges, reflecting the attraction exerted by one or another branch of industry, agriculture or education for women.

VISIT TO BOARDING SCHOOL No. 12, MOSCOW

September 21, 1956

V. P. Ilyin, Headmaster of the school:

Our school has been functioning for only 20 days and, of course, as with every new undertaking, we are having our difficulties. If you'll allow me I shall tell you in brief about our institution after which we'll go over it.

You evidently know from the Press that by decision of the Twentieth Congress of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union a number of boarding schools are being established in the country. Ours, a 7-year school, opened its doors on September 1 to 240 boys and girls.

Madeleine Leroy (International Council of Women, Belgium):

How many boys and how many girls?

Ilyin:

Of the school's 240 pupils 105 are girls, the rest boys. The children come from different families. Many of them have no fathers, others are the children of war invalids, or disabled workers. The enrolment also includes children from big families.

The school aims to give its pupils, apart from the usual secondary education, an aesthetic training, to prepare them successfully to take their part in building our communist society.

We train people of labour and for labour. It is therefore highly important to ensure the child's all-round develop-

ment. Thus, in addition to the usual class-rooms the school also has its workshops, which, it is true, are still far from what they should be. Here the boys and girls will be instructed in metal- and wood-working. They will also be taught needlework, the rudiments of the domestic sciences, especially cooking. The curriculum also includes choreographic and dancing lessons and lessons in rhythmic.

We also aim to give the children a certain musical education, to teach them the elements of choric music. With this end in view individual piano lessons have been arranged and two choric groups are being organized—one for the younger and one for the older pupils.

Much attention is being paid to sports and physical culture for we want our children to be healthy and physically sturdy. The school has its gymnasium and the necessary facilities for physical culture. We hope to train some good sportsmen.

We are also planning, for the technical development of the pupils, special circles such as aircraft and ship designing, photography, cinematography, electrology and radio-mechanics.

Not a few of our difficulties are due to the fact that we still do not know the children well enough. But I'm sure that before long we shall get to know each other better. And that, of course, will make our work easier.

On questions of training we share the view of the Soviet teacher and educationalist Anton Semyonovich Makarenko who showed in practice that it was possible to train a harmoniously developed personality in the collective.

Our pupils maintain close contact with the home, with their families. Sundays are spent at home. Parents are drawn into the daily life of the school. Thus, those of them who happen to be free at the time accompany the children on excursions, let us say, to the U.S.S.R. Agricultural Exhibition, to the theatre or cinema. They also give us a helping hand with the youngsters who still need daily care.

What is the school's daily regimen? The day begins at 7 a.m. After morning exercises which are done by all, the children make their beds and tidy the dormitories. All our pupils help with the daily chores. This is in keeping with our programme of training people for labour.

After the morning toilet breakfast. Lessons begin at 9 a.m. In the lower forms, especially in the first, we combine studies with play, so as not to overstrain the children. The programme for the younger pupils is somewhat different from that in the ordinary school. After three lessons they are served a second breakfast and then lessons are resumed.

Lunch is at 1.45 p.m. Lunch over, the youngsters of the first and second forms rest for an hour and a half. The pupils of the third up to the seventh forms go out for a walk. Back from their airing they sit down to do their lessons while the children of the lower forms are taken out for a walk or play in their playroom. In the evenings the older pupils are busy in the different circles or sports groups.

When do the youngsters do their homework? In accordance with instructions of the Ministry of Education we have arranged our educational work with them in such a way that all the study material is mastered at the lesson. They are not given any homework. We hope, ultimately, to do the same in the other forms too. Our object is to reduce homework in general to a minimum.

The first weeks of the school year have already shown that we have an interesting collective of children. Many of them are very gifted, show an aptitude for music, painting, dancing, technique, etc. Needless to say, we are very glad of this.

I would particularly like you to note the fact that the state has made generous appropriations for the boarding schools. All text-books, clothing, including footwear and headgear, are free of charge.

Meals are served four times a day. The food is tasty and nutritious. Judging by what the parents have had to say

on the matter they are satisfied with the way we have arranged the children's diet.

A few words about the teaching staff. We have a staff of 27 instructors, 22 of whom have graduated from a teachers' college or the Moscow State University. They are for the most part young, energetic people who have taken up pedagogical work for the first time. The staff also includes older and more experienced teachers who have 10, 20 and 30 years' experience behind them and who help their younger colleagues with advice on the education of their pupils. We enjoy our work although it is far from easy.

Teachers who simply conduct lessons are an exception in our school. As a rule our teachers combine tuition with general educational work. For instance the geography teacher gives five lessons a week and is the schoolmaster of form 7. The biology teacher has 6 academic hours a week and is the schoolmaster of form 5, and so on. This arrangement is not accidental. We believe that the upbringing and education of the pupil should be closely interlinked. That is what we expect of the teacher in a boarding school. The teacher who is with the form all the time is better able to study and understand it. And this, in turn, makes it easier to organize their education more successfully. The results so far convince us that we have taken the proper approach.

That, in brief, is what I wanted to tell you about our school. If our guests have any questions I shall be only too glad to answer them.

Madeline Leroy:

On what principle were the pupils of your boarding school admitted? Do the parents have to pay for the children's board?

Ilyin:

A special committee examined the numerous applications from parents asking to place their children. Naturally only the physically fit and mentally developed, i.e., normal chil-

dren, were enrolled, for the boarding school is an educational, not a medical institution. Priority was given to fatherless families and to families where there are many children and the parents find it difficult to bring them up. Will the parents have to pay for the upkeep of their children? Yes. The fee is fixed in accordance with the earnings of the parents. In the case of many children, however, their board and lodging will be free of charge.

Germaine Diderich (Belgium Federation of University Women):

Is there any difference in the salaries of the teachers and tutors?

Ilyin:

Our teachers and tutors receive differentiated salaries, it depending on the length of service, education and knowledge of foreign languages. If the teacher has been teaching for 30 years, has a higher education and knows a foreign language he will, naturally, receive more than his colleague who has just started working and who, let us assume, has no higher education.

Dora Russell:

Have the children any organizations of their own at which school problems are discussed with the participation of teachers?

Ilyin:

This is a very interesting question. As I have already remarked we educate children in the collective, for the collective and through the collective, and, of course, the children have their different organizations. There is, for instance, the Council of the Collective which is elected by the children themselves. This Council has its different committees. To name some of them: the Sanitary Committee which helps to see to it that the clothing, beds and dormitories are kept clean; the Cultural Committee which organizes sports activities, various circles, excursions, visits to the cinema and theatre; the Workshop Committee which helps with the organization of labour in the workshops.

The Council has its elected chairman, Valeria Grunicheva, a pupil of the 7th form. She supervises the activities of the entire children's collective. Each committee is headed by a boy or girl elected by their schoolmates.

As headmaster of the school I also guide the Council of the Collective in their activities, advise them how to go about their work better and achieve the needed results.

Besides the Council of the Collective the school has its Young Pioneer organization which also has its Council. Most of the children are Young Pioneers and they have their Pioneer detachments headed by their councils and Young Pioneer leaders.

The Councils of these two children's organizations work in close contact and harmony, for both pursue the same aim — to organize the studies, work and leisure time of their members to best advantage.

Madelcine Leroy:

Could you please give us the approximate salaries of teachers?

Ilyin:

The teachers in our school receive the same salaries as their colleagues in other schools. The elementary school teacher with a secondary pedagogical education receives from 690 to 960 rubles a month, it depending on the length of teaching experience for 24 academic hours a week. In secondary school (from the 5th to 10th forms) the teacher with a higher education receives from 800 to 1,200 rubles a month for 18 academic hours a week. If the teacher is also the master of the form he receives an additional 300 rubles a month. Furthermore, all leading work connected with the different school laboratories and looking over the homework is remunerated. Thus, the secondary schoolteacher, with 18 lessons a week, and in charge of the form and the checking of homework, receives more than 1,600 rubles a month. The teachers who are not engaged in tuition receive from 700 to 1,200 rubles a month.

Mary-Cecil Tenisson-Woods (Chief of the Section on the Status of Women with the U.N. General Secretary, U.S.A.):

At what age do the children leave school? I have in mind those who have finished the seventh form.

Ilyin:

Our school will ultimately be a ten-year school. Thus the child who enters the first form will be with us for 10 years. Next year we shall have eight instead of the present seven forms and later nine and ten forms.

Madeleine Leroy:

Do the teachers live in the boarding school, and how are they provided for?

Ilyin:

The teaching staff do not live on the premises. They all have their own homes and families in Moscow.

Dora Russell:

Do the 27 teachers include a nurse and other personnel?

Ilyin:

No. The boarding school has a staff of 54 people in all.

Jessie Bierman (World Health Organization, U.S.A.):

Who looks after the children at night?

Ilyin:

We have a doctor, a medical nurse, and night attendants. The teachers also take turns in being on night duty.

Germaine Diderich:

For what period are the chairmen of the Young Pioneer Councils elected?

Ilyin:

Elections are usually held in September or October. Elections to the Council of the Collective are held every six months or once a year--it depends on us. We also have the right to appoint some of the girls and boys until the pupils and teachers get to know them better.

Jessie Bierman:

At present the children of big families and of fatherless families have been enrolled in the school. Will it be possible later to accept children also of other families?

Ilyin:

Certainly. With the growth of the number of boarding schools (and every year more and more such schools will be opened), every citizen of the Soviet Union will have the right to place his child in a boarding school.

Germaine Diderich:

What do the teachers think about the organization of the forms? Would it not be more advisable to group the more gifted children in special forms and the less gifted in others?

Ilyin:

Soviet pedagogues do not take this view. Here forms are usually organized according to the age principles. The idea you have just suggested is practised in schools abroad, in Sweden, for example, which I visited last year. There children who are less capable are grouped in form "G." In the opinion of the school-teachers the development of the pupils in this form is retarded by two to three years. We believe that children who for some reason or other are backward overcome this when they are with a normal collective.

Madeleine Leroy:

I was told that formerly you had coeducation in the Soviet Union; then you introduced separate schools for boys and girls and now again have coeducation. I should like to know how coeducation is conducted, what is the proportion between boys and girls in the forms? Is their number more or less the same? And why did you go back to coeducation?

Ilyin:

Separate education for boys and girls was introduced in some of our cities for a while. But practice showed that this was inadvisable and for the following reasons: boys and girls usually spend the time together after school hours, young men and women study together in our technical schools and universities, work together in factories and mills. That is why we consider the artificial division of schools into men's and women's inadvisable, the more so as the curriculum is the same for both boys and girls. And

then, as you yourselves evidently know, the presence of girls in school has a good effect on boys, they behave much better. The experience of coeducation in the past few years has borne this out, has shown that boys and girls study and work better when together.

* * *

The visitors then went over the class-rooms, laboratories, library, workshops, dormitories, school hall, the garden, and sports grounds, continuing their talk with the headmaster and asking the children and teachers questions.

Before their departure the visitors asked the interpreter to tell the headmaster that it gave them great pleasure to tell him that they had seen how happy and contented the children were in his boarding school.

SOVIET WOMEN IN SCIENCE, CULTURE AND ART

REPORT by *TATYANA ZUYEVA*,
Minister of Culture of the R.S.F.S.R.

There is hardly any need to begin my report by substantiating woman's right to take part in all fields of intellectual labour, for my audience is quite familiar with the problems of the women's movement. Those present here can hardly doubt that women possess the abilities required and must have the right to participate, on a completely equal footing with men, in scientific, cultural, artistic, or any other work.

The important role which women play in Soviet science, art and culture in general, as well as in government, industry, and agriculture, has been made possible by Article 122 of the U.S.S.R. Constitution, which grants women "equal rights with men in all spheres of economic, government, cultural, political, and other public activity."

It goes without saying that the juridical, legal and material conditions in which Soviet women live and work are of decisive importance for drawing women into government, industrial and cultural work.

Another equally important point is that the Soviet state, in granting women equal rights with men, assures the exercise of these rights and that, moreover, the state, the entire Soviet society, is very eager to have as many women as possible taking part in government, economic and cultural

activities. Indeed, the rate of our country's economic and cultural progress would undoubtedly not be so high if women were not doing their share in the constructive effort of the people.

Hence we have every grounds for saying that in the Soviet Union women not only have the right to take part in promoting science and culture but are making a large contribution to them. This is a notable step forward in the position of Soviet women.

The objective of their activities now is not defence of their rights, but constructive work in the chosen field for their country's benefit.

One of the great accomplishments of the Soviet people was the cultural revolution, which laid a firm foundation for a signal upsurge in the sphere of intellectual creative endeavour among the Soviet women.

Within an unprecedentedly brief period of time the Soviet Union did away with illiteracy, introduced general compulsory education, rapidly expanded the number of general, specialized secondary and higher schools. Large numbers of specialists were trained in all fields of economy and culture, and technical progress went on at a pace never seen before. The whole country was covered with a dense network of cultural and art institutions—cinemas, radio stations, theatres, publishing houses, libraries, clubs, museums, scientific institutions, and numerous public organizations uniting creative workers. All these institutions and organizations became accessible to the masses.

Hundreds of thousands of Soviet women took an active part in effecting these cultural transformations, and the cultural revolution in its turn provided a fertile soil for the thriving of the creative abilities and talents of millions of Soviet women. The results of this process are truly splendid, and we Soviet women are proud of them.

Fifty-three per cent of all Soviet specialists with higher education are women. Women doctors account for 76 per

cent of the total, teachers, for 70 per cent, and scientific, educational and cultural workers, for over 67 per cent.

About 19,000 women have scientific degrees or titles, 86,000 women are engaged in scientific work, and upwards of 450,000 women are engineers or technicians.

These figures go to show that in the Soviet Union women are engaged in government, cultural and scientific work on a really large scale, which we consider one of our greatest achievements in the construction of a new society.

SOVIET WOMEN IN SCIENCE

The Soviet Government is doing a great deal to promote science.

Russian scientific thought, as represented by Lomonosov, Lobachevsky, Mendeleev, Sechenov, Timiryazev, Pavlov, and many others, has always held a prominent place in world science.

Nevertheless, it was not until the Soviet system was established that science was enabled to use the facilities provided by rapidly developing technology, that the training of scientific workers was undertaken on a vast scale, and that science came to underlie the advancement of all branches of the national economy.

The changes which have taken place in science during Soviet times have made it possible to train increasing numbers of women for scientific work. This may be exemplified by the following data.

There were less than 300 scientific institutions in tsarist Russia. In 1955, there were as many as 2,797 scientific institutions in the Soviet Union, including 1,210 research institutes and their branches. The scope of research in our scientific institutions and laboratories, which now number hundreds and even thousands of staff members, has grown incomparably.

The budget of the U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences has increased several hundred times over as compared with what was budgeted for scientific activities in pre-revolutionary

times. Whereas before the Revolution there was only one Academy of Sciences, today we have a U.S.S.R. Academy with 13 branches and 13 Union-republic academies--in the Ukraine, Byelorussia, Georgia, Azerbaijan, Armenia, Uzbekistan, Kazakhstan, Turkmenia, Kirghizia, Tajikistan, Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia. Besides, there are specialized academies, such as the medical, pedagogical, and agricultural academies.

The extensive scientific research being carried on in the Soviet Union is designed to solve practical problems of industry, agriculture, and culture.

The progress in the study of atomic energy and in its peaceful use is an indication of the high level of Soviet science. The first atomic power station of industrial significance was built in the Soviet Union. Under the current five-year plan more electric power stations using atomic fuel will be built; their capacity will be twice as great as that of all of tsarist Russia's electric power stations. Soviet scientists have discovered the principles of making highly powerful accelerators of charged particles.

Soviet scientists are successfully working on problems pertaining to the use of isotopes, which are playing an important part in industry, transport, agriculture, and medicine, and will play a still greater role in the near future.

Soviet physicists and mathematicians have made considerable headway in developing original methods of mathematical analysis. They have designed and put in operation electronic computing machines, which do the job of tens of thousands of computers. The first steps have been taken in using these machines as automatic translators.

Radio engineering, electronics and telemechanics are making rapid progress along with mechanics, heat engineering and electrical engineering.

New methods of geological survey, developed in our country, have enabled us to discover large deposits of minerals.

Scientific research made it possible to carry out such great construction undertakings as the Kuibyshev and

Stalingrad hydro-electric power developments on the Volga, with a total capacity of over three million kilowatts, the still bigger Bratsk Station being built on the Angara River in Siberia, etc.

The rapid expansion of scientific research, which is essential for the speedy advancement of all branches of the national economy, called for a numerous research personnel. In pre-revolutionary Russia there were a little more than 10,000 scientific workers. The scientific institutions and higher schools of the Soviet Union now employ more than 220,000 scientific workers, of whom 9,500 have a doctorate and 78,000, a candidate's degree.

Our colleges and universities train large numbers of scientific workers. In the course of the Sixth Five-Year Plan the higher and specialized secondary schools will graduate approximately 50 per cent more specialists than during the Fifth Five-Year Plan.

Graduates are given every opportunity to do research in the industries and to present theses for a scientific degree. Upwards of 29,000 people are engaged in post-graduate studies.

Last year the women's share in scientific personnel was 36 per cent. The achievements scored by Soviet women in various branches of science contribute in great measure to its progress.

The scientific personnel of the U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences includes 5,795 women, who make up 42.3 per cent of the total. Among them there are two academicians, 11 corresponding members, 141 doctors, and 2,127 candidates. More than 100 women head research institutes or laboratories.

Over 39,000 women, or more than 30 per cent of the total number of instructors, are engaged in scientific instruction in Soviet colleges and universities. As many as 96 college directors and deputy directors in charge of scientific instruction, and also 193 faculty deans, are women; 1,983 women are in charge of chairs, 326 women bear the title of profes-

sor, and about 4,600 women are assistant professors or senior scientific workers.

These figures show the prominent role of women in science and in the training of scientific personnel.

There is no longer any scientific field where Soviet women are not working. By their research and their discoveries and inventions they contribute much to the progress of Soviet and world science.

Even a mere enumeration of the titles of scientific works and papers written by Soviet women would take many hours. And it would take infinitely longer to survey those works with any degree of completeness, for this would require going into a whole series of special scientific problems. I shall therefore restrict myself to citing a few examples illustrating the major achievements which our women have registered in science.

As everyone knows, mathematical research, which calls for exceptional erudition and ability, ranks among the most complicated scientific activities.

Among outstanding Soviet mathematicians we find women such as Nina Bari, who has carried out a number of profound investigations of the trigonometric series; Lyudmila Keldish, senior research worker of the Steklov Mathematical Institute of the U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences, who has written more than 20 works; Alla Masevich, Deputy Chairman of the Astronomical Council of the U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences, who is a specialist in astrophysics, and others.

The careers of our women scientists show that they have unlimited opportunities for developing their gifts and taking part in the solution of complex problems of modern science and technology.

Yelena Krasilshchikova, Doctor of Physics and Mathematics, is a scientist well known in our country. Her life is highly noteworthy.

As a young girl she decided to become a motor-car driver. Later, being keen on parachute sports and flying, she joined an aviation club where in her spare time she learned flying.

Her love of aviation prompted her to enter an aviation institute, and it was there that her real calling, mathematics, came to light. After the Aviation Institute she graduated from the Department of Mechanics and Mathematics of the Moscow State University and from then on devoted her energies to mathematical research and practical application of mathematical methods in solving urgent problems of modern science and technology. Most of Krasilshchikova's works deal with the theory of the wing of supersonic aircraft. She is taking part in work on problems of interplanetary communication. She has made an appreciable contribution to the study of the vibration of wires on the Kuibyshev-Moscow high-tension transmission line. Last spring she went to the Kara-Kum Desert to study shifting sands. Her work initiated a mathematical theory which should help mankind to deal with the calamity of shifting sands.

Krasilshchikova combines her research with instruction at the University which has trained her.

All women scientists are doing much to aid technological progress.

Pelageya Polubarinova-Kochina, Corresponding Member of the U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences, is a prominent specialist in hydrodynamics, in particular, underground oil hydraulics. Her theoretical research is closely connected with practical work on calculating foundations for major construction projects and hydro-electric stations, drilling oil wells, using progressive methods of oil extraction, and so on.

Polubarinova-Kochina has done a good deal for the study of the life and work of Sophia Kovalevskaya, the first Russian woman mathematician.

A number of women scientists are working on problems of physics and chemistry. Yekaterina Blinova, Corresponding Member of the U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences, has created a new theory of dynamic meteorology—the hydrothermodynamic theory of long-range forecasting—and has written more than 25 scientific works.

Alexandra Novosyolova, Corresponding Member of the U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences, is an outstanding specialist in the investigation of rare elements. She works in the field of radiochemistry and has conducted research on the properties of uranium.

Dr. Natalia Bakh has done important work in the field of radio-active substances. She submitted a paper to the Geneva conference on the peaceful uses of atomic energy.

Valentina Korotkova, chief of the isotope and radiation laboratory of the Lebedev Institute of Physics, is a prominent specialist in the investigation of radio-active substances.

Nadezhda Shorigina, who attended the Paris International Women's Congress of 1945, is Assistant Director of the Zelinsky Institute of Organic Chemistry. She has written more than 30 scientific works on the chemistry of carbohydrates, cellulose, and lignin.

Anna Gelman leads a laboratory at the Institute of Physical Chemistry, U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences. She is an expert in inorganic chemistry and radiochemistry. Another laboratory of the same institute is led by Xsenia Gorbunova, a prominent electrochemist.

Natalia Dumitrashko, author of nearly 100 works, Alexandra Kes, Zinaida Filatova, Zinaida Shokalskaya, and many others are active in the field of geographical sciences.

The women geologists Vera Varsanofyeva, Veronica Saltikova, Yelena Shchukina, Yelena Zaklinskaya, and others have made a major contribution to their branch of science and practical construction of socialism.

We take special pleasure in pointing out the rapid growth of the number of women scientific workers in the non-Russian republics.

They work in scientific institutions, at experimental stations or in laboratories, instruct college or university students, doing their share in the development of their republics' socialist culture.

This advance is particularly significant in the light of the fact that less than 40 years ago women in Russia's border

regions were slaves of their husbands, who in their turn had no rights. Far from being in a position to study and to work in a field of their own choice, the women of the older generation—the mothers of present-day women physicians, engineers, teachers, doctors or candidates, corresponding members of Union-republic academies or the U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences—had no right to so much as unveil their faces.

Professor Sarajon Yusupova, Doctor of Geology and Mineralogy and Corresponding Member of the Tajik Academy of Sciences, is known all over the Soviet Union. She is doing research into Central Asian soils. Naila Bazanova is Chairman of the Biology Department of the Kazakh Academy of Sciences.

Amalia Skulina, who has done much in agricultural electrification, is a Corresponding Member of the Latvian Academy of Sciences.

Soviet women have special merits in the field of medical sciences.

A splendid example of persistence, courage and great ability in science, and self-sacrificing, genuinely feminine solicitude for people's health, is the life story of Zinaida Yermolyeva, the microbiologist.

She was born in 1898 into the family of a poor Don Cossack. The establishment of Soviet rule enabled her to receive a higher education. As a student of medicine she took to microbiology and later became an assistant at the Chair of Microbiology of Rostov University. She sought for ways of combating cholera, a disease which in old Russia used to take millions of human lives. During one of her experiments she inoculated herself with cholera.

Yermolyeva's work attracted the attention of the scientific world, and she moved to the Institute of Biochemistry in Moscow, where she set up the first Soviet laboratory of microbiology. Her persistent efforts resulted in the creation of a complex bacteriophage for treating a number of diseases.

During the Great Patriotic War Yermolyeva went to the front where she found new means of healing wounds. Under her guidance methods were found for producing penicillin in our country.

Professor Yulia Dombrovskaya, Member of the Academy of Medical Sciences, has devoted her life to pediatrics. For nearly forty years she has been working in the children's clinic of the First Moscow Medical Institute, the oldest in the Soviet Union, where she heads a chair. She has written more than 60 works. Pediatricists constantly refer to her works *Infantile Pneumonia* and *Vitamins in Pediatrics*. Fourteen young specialists who had been working under her guidance were awarded the title of Candidate of Medical Sciences.

The Tuberculosis Institute of the U.S.S.R. Academy of Medical Sciences is headed by a woman, Z. Lebedeva.

There is a large group of women scientists engaged in the humanities.

Academician Anna Pankratova, Merited Scientific Worker, Professor of Moscow University, is a Deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. and Chairman of the Soviet Association for Cooperation with the United Nations. She is an outstanding historian and public figure. The main field of her work is the history of the Russian working-class movement and the history of the U.S.S.R. She has written about 200 scientific works.

Books and investigations bearing on 19th century Russian history by Professor Militsa Nechkina, a prominent Soviet historian, have won widespread recognition. She is a Corresponding Member of the U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences and a Member of the Academy of Pedagogical Sciences.

Among the many women scholars active in the fields of history, literary criticism, the theory of art, and economics are Tamara Livanova, Doctor of Art, Nina Sidorova, Doctor of Historical Science, Maria Lukyanova and Yevfrazia Karnaukhova, Doctors of Economic Science, and Victoria Yartseva, Doctor of Philology.

The teaching staff of our establishments of higher learning includes a vast number of women. At Moscow University alone, upwards of 1,000 women are employed as instructors or research workers, including 32 doctors and more than 470 candidates of various sciences, among them 27 professors and 155 assistant professors.

Soviet science is closely bound up with production. Tens of thousands of women, who are not "registered" as doing research, help science by suggesting more rational methods of production.

Many Soviet women have initiated measures of great importance for the national economy. To cite an example, Lydia Korabelnikova, a brigade leader at the Paris Commune Shoe Factory, started a movement for all-round economy and was supported by tens of thousands of people in many industries.

Korabelnikova's initiative showed that collective concern for the rational use of raw materials and semi-manufactures at all production stages makes it possible to produce more, while saving materials. Her initiative is doubtless a contribution to the science of production. Many other similar examples could be given.

Science benefits from studying the experience of advanced workers, which is used for improving methods of work in general. Thousands of women, who work in industry or agriculture as engineers, technicians, agronomists, etc., sum up the experience they gain in the course of their work, write articles, and give lectures on new work methods, popularizing achievements in science and technology.

I should like to finish this section of my report, which deals with the role of Soviet women in the advancement of science, by quoting the Russian author N. Chernyshevsky, who made Lopukhov, a character of his novel *What Is To Be Done?*, say this: "What an apt, strong, and discerning mind Nature has given to woman! . . . Human progress would have been . . . faster if her mind were active instead of being rejected and killed."

It is obvious that the Soviet people have been progressing faster since women were drawn into constructive work, into all fields of mental work. The important task we are faced with is boldly to promote more women to scientific work and thus give them better opportunities for creative endeavour.

SOVIET WOMEN IN THE SPHERE OF CULTURE

Since Soviet rule was established in our country the cultural standards of our women have risen tremendously and their share in cultural development has grown.

Other reports have dealt with important aspects of our revolution, such as the elimination of illiteracy and the expansion of school education. They also touched on the women's role in the development of public education and public health.

Allow me to acquaint you with the basic data on the development of the Soviet Press, libraries, clubs, radio, and cinema, and with the place held by women in these fields of cultural activity.

In 1913 Russia had 859 newspapers, published in a total of 2,700,000 copies. In 1955 there were 7,246 newspapers in the Soviet Union, with a circulation of 49,000,000.

Our newspapers are published in 52 languages of Soviet peoples and a number of foreign languages. Periodical publications include more than 2,000 journals and magazines, bulletins and symposiums.

Our numerous literary and art magazines and socio-political and specialized journals carry among other things information which interests women and meets their specific requirements. Some of the magazines are intended for women, such as the illustrated monthly *Soviet Woman*, *Krestyan-ka* (*Peasant Woman*), or *Rabotnitsa* (*Working Woman*). In non-Russian republics, too, there are magazines published specially for women in the native languages.

As many as 18,191 million copies of books in 122 languages were published between 1918 and 1955. In 1955

alone the number of books published exceeded 1,000 million copies.

During the last 15 years, the number of books on industry, technology, transport, and agriculture has increased more than threefold. In ten years since the war, text-books and manuals have been put out in more than 2,000 million copies in 68 languages.

As compared with 1913, editions of books for children have increased 19-fold.

Increasingly more fiction is being published. Books by authors of 45 foreign countries were published in 32 languages in 1955.

The steady growth of the volume of printed matter directly aids the cultural progress of Soviet women.

Much attention is given in the Soviet Union to popularizing literature.

There are 392,000 libraries functioning in the Soviet Union, including 147,000 public ones. Since pre-revolutionary times the number of libraries has increased 30 times over and their total stock, 125 times. As many as 40 million people use the public libraries.

The non-Russian republics, where there were hardly any libraries at all, now have hundreds and thousands of them. In the territory which is now the Kirghiz Republic, for one, there were only two public libraries before the Revolution, and today there are more than 1,000.

Our present-day cultural activities would be unthinkable without clubs. In 1914 tsarist Russia had only 222 people's houses; today we have 126,000 palaces and houses of culture and club-houses, where talks and lectures are given and celebrations held. The club-houses are centres of folk art and amateur activities of the population.

Before the Revolution there were about 1,500 small cinema theatres; today we have about 60,000 cinema theatres and projections. In the territory now occupied by the Turkmen Republic there were six cinema projectors before the Revolu-

tion; now there are 315; the figures for the Kazakh Republic are 20 and nearly 3,000 respectively.

Motion pictures are shown regularly even in the remotest villages.

I must point out, however, that since the demand for cinema is growing at an exceedingly high rate we shall have to build hundreds of new cinema theatres in the near future, in particular wide-screen ones.

Russia is the native land of the inventor of the radio, the great Russian scientist A. Popov. Today the Soviet Union has a radio communication system covering the entire country. Broadcasting is carried out in more than 70 languages. Television is expanding. Before long the whole of our countryside will be provided with radio.

Women, it may be stated without fear of exaggeration, play a tremendous role in culture and education. We owe our cultural progress largely to the fact that tens of thousands of women lead, or work in, cultural bodies and institutions.

As Minister of Culture of the Russian Federation I should like to adduce some data concerning the R.S.F.S.R. and yet typical of the whole country.

In our publishing houses and editorial offices the percentage of women is 53.7, in the book trade, 79.8, in schools under the jurisdiction of the R.S.F.S.R. Ministry of Culture, 64.4, in museums, 72, in clubs, 50.6. Women are particularly numerous in libraries where women workers account for 96 per cent of the staffs.

In the administrative bodies, that is, in the Ministry of Culture of the Russian Federation, the ministries of the autonomous republics, the departments of culture of the regions, territories, and districts, the percentage of women is 47.6. In the Ministry of Culture of the R.S.F.S.R., key posts are held by 192 women, of whom 17 are department heads.

Anna Tsukanova is a Deputy Minister of Culture of the R.S.F.S.R., Izumrud Gubakhanova is Minister of Culture of the Daghestan Autonomous S.S.R., and 13 women direct regional or city departments of culture.

In past years, too, many women were active in the sphere of culture and showed themselves to be able organizers. Foremost among them was Nadezhda Krupskaya, wife and comrade of the founder of the Soviet state, Vladimir Ilyich Lenin. She was Deputy Minister of Education in charge of cultural and educational work. Under Krupskaya's guidance there emerged outstanding women cultural workers, such as Anna Kravchenko, a specialist in library organization, Nadezhda Kolesnikova and Anna Kurskaya. The State Historical Museum, one of the largest in the Soviet Union, is headed by Anna Karpova; in charge of the Museum of Revolution of the U.S.S.R. is Anastasia Tolstikhina.

At the Lenin State Library, our country's largest, Feoktista Abrikosova and Zoya Kolchina are deputy directors. Of the library's 2,037 staff workers, 1,897 are women. Olga Golubeva and Faina Bogomolova, candidates of sciences, are deputy directors of the Saltykov-Shchedrin State Public Library.

I could list many other women in charge of major regional or republican libraries who are excellent specialists and organizers, such as Yelizaveta Grigoryeva, Director of the Sverdlovsk Library, Yekaterina Tomasova, Director of the Gorky Library, and Raisa Mukhitdinova, Director of the Tatar Republican Library.

Many gifted women work in clubs. In the Russian Federation alone, more than 10,000 women and young girls have become cinema operators.

Many intellectuals and young people contribute to cultural and educational work in our country. Millions of lectures are delivered in town and country by voluntary lecturers, among whom we see hundreds of thousands of women—teachers, agronomists, engineers, physicians, etc. Thousands of women public workers lead song groups, amateur art circles, or sports sections.

In directing cultural institutions, our agencies give special attention to work with women collective farmers and workers. This work, it must be said, has produced good results.

The cultural standards of women are rising throughout the Soviet Union. Nevertheless, we feel that there is still much to be done for the cultural advancement of our women.

THE ROLE OF SOVIET WOMEN IN ART AND LITERATURE

Present-day Soviet culture develops the best traditions of Russian and world art. The Soviet people treasure the best creations of world and Russian art of the past centuries.

For the first time in our history, art belongs to and fully serves the people. Commenting on future socialist literature, Lenin wrote in 1905: "It will be a free literature because it will serve, not the surfeited heroine or the 'upper ten thousand' suffering from boredom and obesity, but the millions and tens of millions of working people, who constitute the flower of the country, its strength and future." (V. I. Lenin, Works, 4th Russ. ed., Vol. 10, p. 30.)

These words of Lenin's reveal one of the main features of Soviet culture. We are aware that our young Soviet art has not as yet attained perfection in all respects; there is still much to be done as regards both artistic form and content. On the other hand, we are positive that Soviet art has acquired a genuinely popular, countrywide character and that its sole object is to serve the people.

Soviet literature and painting, theatre and cinema, radio and music, help in cultivating noble qualities in Soviet people. There are no Soviet literary or artistic works encouraging directly or indirectly, in an overt or covert form, hatred of man or the worship of force in relations between people and nations, humiliating to the dignity of women, corrupting children or young people, or attempting to play up vulgarity, immorality, or violence.

Soviet art, literature and the cinema are profoundly humane and patriotic; they fight for the happiness of all mankind, steadfastly championing world peace.

Since the Soviet system was established all arts have made great progress. In tsarist Russia there were 153 thea-



In the Central House of Art Workers

tres; today we have over 500 theatres. Concerts are arranged by 120 organizations.

All the Union republics and some of the autonomous republics now have their own opera and ballet, drama theatres, and concert halls.

In all spheres of Soviet art we see the valuable contribution being made by women.

It would be hardly amiss to begin with Soviet ballerinas, who keep up and develop the traditions of the renowned Russian ballet. People all over the world have heard of Yekaterina Geltser, Victorina Krieger, Galina Ulanova, Olga Lepeshinskaya, Natalia Dudinskaya and Marina Semyonova, as well as the younger ballerinas—Maya Plisetskaya, Violetta Bovt, Raisa Struchkova, and many others.

They all are distinguished by excellent technique and constantly seek to create realistic, true-to-life characters.

Soviet opera, while drawing on all that is best in classical Russian opera, continues to improve its art and develop

musical culture in the non-Russian republics. Credit for much of its progress is due to women. Soviet opera prides itself upon V. Barsova, V. Davidova, N. Obukhova, L. Maslennikova, S. Preobrazhenskaya, L. Myasnikova (Novosibirsk), G. Stanislavova (Saratov), N. Silvestrova, M. Saligaskarova (Bashkiria), L. Alexandrovskaya (Byelorussia), Kulyash Baiseitova (Kazakhstan), Hainkanush Danielyan (Armenia), Elsa Maazin (Estonia), and others.

Our drama theatres have thousands of talented actresses. The Soviet people are familiar with the names of A. Yablochkina, a veteran Russian actress, who is Chairman of the All-Russian Theatrical Society, Y. Turchaninova, A. Tarasova, V. Pashennaya, O. Androvskaya, D. Zerkalova, V. Maretskaya, K. Yelanskaya, and others.

Other well-known actresses are the Ukrainian N. Uzhvy, the Georgian V. Anjaparidze, the Armenian O. Gulazyan, the Azerbaijani A. Mamedova, the Uzbek S. Ishanturayeva, the Turkmen S. Muradova, the Lithuanian K. Kimantaité, the Lett L. Priede-Berzin, and the Kirghiz Saira Kizbayeva, to mention only a few of the splendid actresses of the non-Russian republics.

There are many gifted women directors who stage plays or operas, such as M. Knebel, S. Giatsintova, V. Redlikh (Novosibirsk), Y. Markova (Chelyabinsk), Z. Britayeva (North Ossetia), Y. Minakova (Molotov), M. Ozhigova (Saratov), and others.

Among noted women playwrights are A. Brushtein, V. Lyubimova, B. Levantovskaya, L. Geraskina, Y. Bondareva, L. Tirina (Stalingrad), and Y. Anuchina (Siberia). We must strive to have more women directors in the theatre and cinema and more playwrights, and more boldly entrust women with the leadership of art companies.

Before Soviet rule was established we had no women composers or conductors, but now we have them. N. Makarova has written music for many plays; Z. Levina is known as the composer of many popular songs for children and music for children's plays; T. Popotenko has written some major

compositions; there are the composers M. Kuss and L. Lyadova, and Dina Nurpeisova, folk-song composer of Kazakhstan, who died recently.

V. Dudarova conducts a symphony orchestra. The oldest Russian choir is conducted by Y. Kudryavtseva. Y. Kalugina is the conductor of the Omsk Choir and A. Kolotilova, the Northern Choir, both choirs being actually large song and dance ensembles. The female dance ensemble "Beryozka," which toured many European countries not so long ago, has gained world-wide fame. It was founded and is led by N. Nadezhdina. T. Ustinova and O. Knyazeva are skilled leaders of dance groups in folk ensembles.

The achievements which our musicians have scored in international contests and the successful appearances of our theatrical companies and concert groups abroad attest to the high standard of their performance.

Nina Yemelyanova, Yelizaveta Gilels, Margarita Fyodorova, Marina Kozolupova, Galina Barinova, Tamara Guseva, Nelly Shkolnikova, and Bella Davidovich are among those who showed an excellent performance at international music contests.

Thousands of remarkable women musicians work in orchestras or choirs, or teach in secondary or higher music schools.

We cannot but mention, at least in passing, the great part women take in amateur art.

The vast scale of amateur art is a distinguishing feature of the Soviet way of life. In the club-houses and houses of culture, at factories and in offices, in schools and institutes, at collective farms and machine and tractor stations you find dramatic, singing, musical, or choreographic groups or circles. There are more than 350,000 amateur art groups in the Soviet Union, comprising over 5,000,000 members, of whom more than one half are women.

The "Beryozka" ensemble, which I have mentioned, is of amateur origin. Leokadia Maslennikova, Yevgenia Smolenskaya, Vera Davidova, and others, who were amateur ac-

tresses, joined the Bolshoi Theatre company after being educated at the conservatoire. The Fyodorova sisters, who were amateurs too, are now professional artists. Oleinikova, a former collective farmer, is a talented amateur composer whose songs are sung by many amateur and professional groups.

The membership of the Union of Soviet Artists includes 1,400 women—painters, sculptors, graphic artists, and women skilled in the applied arts. In their art they seek to portray the ideas and feelings of the people and their love of their country, of peaceful labour. Every year Soviet women artists take part in all-Union or republican exhibitions, winning high praise from critics.

Serafima Ryangina, one of the oldest Soviet artists, has created dozens of paintings from the life of Soviet people.

Lydia Brodskaya, a very popular landscape painter, depicts Central Russian scenery with great warmth.

The excellent canvases of the young painters I. Shevandronova, Y. Shegal, and others, have earned them wide recognition.

A leading Ukrainian artist is Tatyana Yablonskaya, Corresponding Member of the U.S.S.R. Academy of Arts and a Merited Art Worker of the Ukraine. Her painting "Grain," which renders the theme of labour in the Soviet countryside, is among the best works of Soviet art.

The history of Soviet sculpture cannot be considered without mentioning the work of women sculptors.

The late Vera Mukhina created many monuments and statues, including the statue of Chaikovsky in Moscow and the famous group "Worker and Collective-Farm Woman," which was applauded at the Paris World Fair. She also modelled many of her prominent contemporaries. She bore the title of People's Artist of the U.S.S.R. and was a member of the U.S.S.R. Academy of Arts.

One of the oldest masters of portrait sculpture is S. Lebedeva.

Soviet people are very fond of A. Golubkina's creations.

Other women sculptors worthy of special mention are Y. Belashova-Alexeyeva, Z. Bazhenova, and N. Krandiyevskaya.

Women are prominent in the decorative and applied arts. Their creations determine the standards of carpet weaving, lace-making, wood carving, artistic embroidery, artistic porcelain and pottery, decorative fabrics, articles of semi-precious stones, amber, beads, and folk toys.

The fine and distinctive Palekh miniatures enjoy worldwide renown. Among those who produce them are Tamara Zubkova and Anna Kotukhina. Zubkova creates large-scale compositions on porcelain. She has painted caskets rendering the themes of the popular songs "Who Knows Why?" and "The Finest Blossom," etc.

Grunicheva, a Vologda lace-maker, and Petrova, a lace-maker of Yelets, create splendid specimens of traditional Russian lace enriched with new patterns.

Artists Bessarabova and Dunayeva excel in painting china. Many of their patterns have been adopted by industry. Other famed china painters are A. Brzhezitskaya (Moscow), L. Belvertaite-Kamuntavicene (Lithuania), and A. Briedis (Latvia).

There were no women architects before Soviet rule was established. Today 1,160 women are members of the Union of Architects of the U.S.S.R.

One of the prominent Soviet architects is Anna Kapustina, a member of the Board of the Union of Architects of the U.S.S.R. She is known as a specialist in school construction; her designs for schools have found widespread application. At the Paris contest of 1934 she was awarded a prize for a design of a school.

Tatyana Druzhinina drew up the plans for a vast housing project for the Nizhny Tagil Iron and Steel Works in the Urals, as well as for small standard apartment houses.

Nadezhda Bykova designed the Byelorusskaya Circle Station and the Novokuznetskaya Station of the Moscow Underground.

In any Soviet town, especially in new towns, we find buildings erected to the plans of women architects.

Cinema, the most popular and instructive of all the arts, plays an important part in the ideological and cultural progress of women. Particular mention must be made of the numerous films featuring the destinies of Soviet women—their spiritual growth, their participation in government, their full and varied lives.

The film *A Bright Path*, for example, made a deep impression on the spectators. It tells the story of Tanya, a young textile worker, who by her work wins the recognition and respect of the people. In poetical form the film shows the inexhaustible creative talent of Russian women. Tanya's part is movingly interpreted by Lyubov Orlova.

In the film *Member of the Government* Vera Maretskaya gives a true-to-life portrayal of an ordinary peasant woman, Alexandra Sokolova. The film shows how, under the Soviet system, an ordinary peasant woman is enabled to develop in full her exceptional abilities and remarkable qualities. In the end we see her as a member of the Government, a person enjoying the trust of the people.

A recent film is *Mother*, made after Gorky's novel of that title. In it Maretskaya impersonates Nilovna, mother of the worker Pavel Vlasov. The film describes the terrible lot of a woman worker before the Revolution and shows the awakening of her revolutionary consciousness.

There are many other motion pictures which give profound portrayals of Soviet women: *Rainbow* (actress N. Uzhvy), *Spring* (actress L. Orlova), *A Village Schoolmistress* (actress V. Maretskaya), *The Home-Coming of Vasily Bortnikov* (actress N. Medvedeva), *An Unfinished Story* (actress Z. Bistritskaya), *In an Alien Family* (actress N. Mordyukova), etc.

We have many talented women in the motion-picture industry. There are the producers V. Stroyeva (*A Night in Petersburg*, *Boris Godunov*, and other films), T. Lukashevich (*Gavroche*), M. Sauts (*The Red Tie*), and M. Mayevskaya

(*A Pedagogical Poem*); the camera women E. Savelyeva, T. Lobova, L. Bogatkova, T. Pyshkova, and others; the documentary film directors M. Dobrova, O. Podgoretskaya, I. Setkina, and A. Avanesova; the popular-science film directors M. Kligman, L. Stepanova, and many more.

* * *

Women writers make up a large group of Soviet cultural workers.

Of the 4,000 members of the Union of Soviet Writers, 500 are women writers and poets.

At the dawn of Soviet literature, in the early twenties, there emerged Lydia Seifullina, whose original books retain their value to this day, along with numerous other books about the Revolution and the Civil War written in those years.

Among Seifullina's best stories are *Humus* (1922) and *Virineya* (1925). In the striking character of *Virineya* the author shows the spiritual rise and awakening of a peasant woman. Another popular story by Seifullina is *Transgressors*, which deals with the problem, then pressing, of homeless children.

Anna Karavayeva who has made herself a name in fiction belongs to the older generation of writers. Her books have invariably reflected important events and conflicts of the day. Her latest novel, *Lights*, describes the work of Soviet people during the Patriotic War.

Vera Kellinskaya enjoys great popularity with readers. More than one generation of Soviet youth have read her novel *Courage* (1938), a romantic story of the selfless work of young people who built a new city in the taiga in the thirties. Its young heroes, who are shown in all the complexity of their life and work, a life full of difficulties and joys of creative effort, are particularly noteworthy now that our young people are engaged in putting to use the riches of Siberia, the Far North, and the Far East. A well-written novel, it teaches our youth how to live and overcome obstacles.

After the war Ketlinskaya, who lives in Leningrad, wrote the novel *Besieged*, describing the remarkable people of that city. Her latest major work is the novel *The Days of Our Lives*. Soviet writers seek to give a profound and truthful description of the life and work, the spiritual world and interests of Soviet workers—above all industrial workers. Ketlinskaya's novel is the story of the workers of a Leningrad plant.

Vera Panova, an original and subtle author, has won recognition since the war. Her story *Fellow-Travellers* (1946-47), which holds a special place among books on the Great Patriotic War, has been read by many. What she shows in the story with great warmth and psychological subtlety is not heroic deeds or exceptional people, not great events, but the modest work of the crew of a hospital train, the destinies of ordinary people, who in the trying war years prove themselves to be real heroes and patriots.

Panova's subsequent books, some of them highly successful, others less so (*Looking Ahead, A Clear Shore, The Seasons* and *Seryozha*) bring out in bold relief the main characteristics of her work, which is marked by interest in and love for ordinary, "little" people with their joys and sorrows, and by subtle psychological analysis and lyricism.

Galina Nikolayeva has won a prominent place in post-war fiction. In the war years she wrote poetry and in 1950 the novel *Harvest*, one of the most outstanding books on the post-war countryside. She continues her work on problems of the countryside in her latest book, *The New-Comer*, which is noteworthy first of all for the striking central character, the agronomist Nastya Kovshova, a bold innovator who courageously fights all that is reprehensible, dishonest, or backward.

Our talented poetesses Vera Inber, Margarita Aliger, Olga Bergolts, Veronica Tushnova, and many others deserve high praise.

In the other Union republics, too, the number of women writers and poets is growing fast. Notable works have been



At the reception in the Georgian Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries. Left—Francine Marie Lyna (Belgium)

created by Wanda Wasilewska, Natalia Zabala and Lyubov Zabashla in the Ukraine, Konstansia Builo in Byelorussia, Silva Kaputikyan in Armenia, Mirvarid Dilbazi and Nigyar Rafibeili in Azerbaijan, Maria Baratashvili and Maria Marijan in Georgia, Mariyam Khakimzhanova in Kazakhstan, Zulfiya in Uzbekistan, Rozia Ozod in Tajikistan, Tovshan

Esenova in Turkmenia, Anna Sakse and Anna Brodce in Latvia, Jeva Simonaitite and Galina Korsakiene in Lithuania, and Fyokla Bezzubova in Mordovia.

This brief survey does not exhaust the list of the best-known Soviet women writers, both young and old. For lack of time I shall be unable to tell you about the work of numerous women critics, translators, and essay writers. I believe, however, that what I have said is enough to give an idea of the important place women occupy in the development of Soviet letters, to which they have contributed many works of talent.

We consider that on the whole the problem of women's participation in the advancement of science, culture, and art has been solved in our country. But we are setting ourselves further tasks, which we think should be first of all to meet more fully the steadily growing spiritual requirements of women, to provide all the conditions for women to engage in creative activities, to train more and more women scientists, engineers, writers, actresses, musicians, physicians, teachers, and other workers, to support and encourage the constructive activity and initiative of women in all fields of endeavour. These measures will yield abundant fruit.

We shall undoubtedly fulfil these tasks, for they are in keeping with the interests of our women and our people in general, and will benefit the whole of our country.

REPLIES GIVEN BY T. ZUYEVA TO QUESTIONS ON HER REPORT

Mme. Cotton would like to know how a doctor's or candidate's degree is awarded in our country and how post-graduate studies are organized.

There are two scientific degrees in the U.S.S.R. --that of candidate of science and doctor of science. They are at the same time degrees of scientific competence.

We have a special system of training scientific workers through post-graduate studies in colleges or research institutions. To be admitted to post-graduate studies, you must have a higher education and a record of practical work in the chosen field for not less than two years. And you must take examinations.

The post-graduate course lasts three years. During that time the student must take examinations in specific theoretical courses and present a candidate's thesis. If his thesis is accepted he is awarded the degree of candidate, which is the first scientific degree. As regards the doctor's degree, its acquisition requires high scientific competence. It involves scientific investigations and calls for an appreciable scientific contribution to the progress of culture, engineering or science. Those who aspire to this degree must also present a thesis.

Mme. Jeanne Foucart asks whether any books by Soviet women have been translated into foreign languages.

Yes, many books have been translated, including books by Karavayeva, whose works have been translated into nine languages, Nikolayeva, 18 languages and Barto, 10 languages. Besides, there are translations of many books by Shaghinyan, Inber and other authors.

Mme. Maria van Lanschot is interested to know how artists and other creative workers are paid in the Soviet Union.

We pay fixed salaries only to performers, that is, actors, musicians, conductors, producers, directors of art companies, theatres, dance groups or orchestras. Artists, composers, and writers have no fixed salaries. Their incomes depend on the sale of their works, which they may sell both to government and public organizations or to private individuals.

However, much attention is given to the conditions of living of our artists, composers and authors. This applies in particular to beginners, who need substantial material support. That support is provided first of all by the public organizations they belong to, that is, the three unions of artists, writers, and composers, which have special funds.

In some cases public institutions order works of art. For example, a theatre may order an opera from a composer or a play from a playwright, and so on.

VISIT TO THE MOSCOW STATE UNIVERSITY

September 21, 1956

Prof. G. D. Vovchenko:

Allow me, first of all, as pro-rector and professor of the Moscow University to welcome our dear guests.

We know of your work from the Press and from what Professor N. Spiridonova, who took an active part in the sessions of the Seminar, has told us. We highly appreciate the work of the Seminar and wish it every success, as we do the general women's movement in defence of the well-being of people. We find it particularly gratifying to see among our guests the representatives of countries who are visiting our University for the first time and whom I had the pleasure of meeting today.

I would suggest the following procedure. A short 10-15 minute account about the University, then any questions you might care to ask. Afterwards we might go over the University. Does this suit our guests or would they prefer another arrangement? (Prof. Vovchenko's suggestion is accepted.)

The Moscow University is 201 years old. In this period it has graduated 90,000 students, including 50,000 during the years of Soviet government, i.e., in the past 39 years. About 3,500 young specialists annually complete their education here. At present 23,000 students are studying in its different faculties including 6,000 who are receiving a higher education while working. Here I might mention that the So-

viet student must attend all lectures and take his examinations according to the programme. In this manner all our students finish University in the established period (5 years). We have no such thing as the "eternal" student who is listed in the University but actually does not study.

Fifty-one per cent of the students are women, 49 per cent—men. This, of course, is the average figure for the whole University. The correlation in the number of men and women changes, in accordance with the faculty.

The University has a staff of 2,700 professors, associate professors, assistants and researchers. Forty per cent of the faculty are women, among them eminent scientists. It was quite impossible for lack of space to invite all of them here today and we had therefore to restrict the number to only some of our outstanding women researchers. Allow me to introduce to you Prof. Olga Arsenyevna Oleinik, Doctor of Physics and Mathematics, Prof. Alexandra Vasilyevna Novoselova, Doctor of Chemistry and a Corresponding Member of the U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences, Prof. Valentina Ivanovna Iveronova, Doctor of Physics and Mathematics and Head of the Chair of General Physics. I don't have to introduce to you Prof. Nina Sergeevna Spiridonova whom you all know. She heads the Chair of Political Economy in our University.

Ninety-six per cent of the students of our University receive a state stipend. The student body is made up of 60 different nationalities, including students from 16 foreign countries. Here I might note that many of our students are also studying abroad on an exchange basis. We have received proposals from a number of countries to exchange students. Lectures are read in our University by visiting professors from abroad. Only recently, for instance, Prof. Bernal of England, Prof. Bohr of Denmark and Prof. Gastaut of France gave a series of lectures here. Our faculty members also read lectures in the universities of other countries.

In conclusion I should like to say a few words about the new building of the Moscow University. The six natural science faculties are situated here on the Lenin Hills. The faculties of the humanities are still in the old buildings in the centre of the city. But premises are to be built for them here in the next few years. All the faculties will thus be concentrated in one place.

You will be able to see part of the premises and equipment. I say "part" for you won't manage to make the rounds of all the 22,000 rooms (the corridors alone measure 140 kilometres in length). I think there is no need for me to describe the building in detail, for to quote the saying "better to see it once than to hear about it a hundred times."

Well, I think I've said more than enough. We, professors, you know, like to talk for a full academic hour. (*Laughter.*) I shall now be glad to answer any questions you might care to ask.

Question: Where do the students live?

Answer: We have three student dormitories. The absolute majority of the students, however, live here in the new University.

Question: Can anybody who has finished the University go to France and take up, let's say, a medical practice or teach there?

Answer: We have a number of professors and teachers who in their time graduated from universities in other countries and are teaching here now. Similarly anybody who has finished the Moscow University can teach abroad.

Question: Could you please tell us how many students, approximately, are enrolled at the humanities, the medical and other faculties?

Answer: Fifty-seven per cent of the students are enrolled in the natural science faculties, 43 per cent—in the humanities.

The medical faculty detached itself 25 years ago from the University to become an independent and very big medical

institute. Our biggest faculty at present is the department of physics.

Question: How many students live in the University, and why are they living here—are they foreign students or students that have come from other cities of the Soviet Union?

Answer: Both. We also provide accommodation to Moscow students if they happen to live far from the University and have to spend much time travelling.

Question: What countries have proposed student exchange?

Answer: France, Britain (in particular, Oxford University), Norway, China, Hungary, the German Democratic Republic, and Albania, not to mention a number of other countries.

Question: Beginning with what year have women entered the University? Can a professor of the medical faculty lecture elsewhere, have a private practice and a private polyclinic?

Answer: In pre-revolutionary days the student body did not include women. Some of them received a higher education in special educational institutions as, for instance, the Women's Higher Courses. Beginning with 1917 women have been admitted to all higher educational establishments of the U.S.S.R., including the University, on an equal basis with men. Instruction in more than one university is not encouraged in the Soviet Union. Private practice is permitted in our country and exists. We have no private polyclinics.

Question: Do students have to pay for their accommodation?

Answer: They pay 15 rubles a month. Tuition is free of charge. Students receive a monthly stipend. The lowest, in the first year, is 220 rubles. The stipends for the other terms are progressively higher. A fifth year student, for instance, receives about 500 rubles a month. Then there are the so-called personal stipends—up to 700 rubles a month.

Question: During a visit to a People's Court we heard the case of a student who was receiving a stipend of only 150 rubles.

Answer: As I have already stated the smallest university stipend is 220 rubles. She was evidently a student of some secondary specialized educational institution.

Question: What are the requirements for entering the University?

Answer: Anybody wanting to enter the University must have a secondary education and pass the University's entrance examinations. Pupils who have finished secondary school with a gold medal are admitted without entrance examinations.

Question: What is the percentage of students who fail to pass the examinations?

Answer: It depends in what faculty. The average is two per cent for the whole University; at such faculties as the mechanics and mathematics the percentage is higher, at others it is lower.

Question: Have students who failed at the finals the right to retake them?

Answer: Yes.

Question: Is higher education compulsory in your country? I was told that a worker and an architect sometimes get the same earnings.

Answer: Higher education is not compulsory in the U.S.S.R. We have universal secondary education. But the youth are ever eager to go further, to receive a higher education. As for earnings they are fixed according to the amount of work done. The worker, for instance, who has produced over and above his target figure receives a correspondingly higher wage and also a bonus. It is quite possible that the wages of a front-rank worker will approximate the salary of an architect.

Question: Can the University admit more than 23,000 students?

Answer: No. It is not only a question that the training of specialists is planned and the number of specialists graduated corresponds to the number required. It is also a question that due account has to be taken of the capacity of the University's auditoriums and laboratories, for every student enrolled is expected to perform all the practical work envisaged in the curriculum.

Question: When a student has graduated, is he provided with work or is he likely to find himself without employment?

Answer: All University graduates are placed according to their speciality.

Question: If the student fails, after five years' tuition, to take the finals, what happens to him?

Answer: In that case he is not considered to have graduated and in consequence is not issued a diploma. But such students, as a rule, do not get as far as the fifth year; they are excluded from the University before that.

**STATEMENTS BY PARTICIPANTS IN THE SEMINAR
AT THE CLOSING MEETING**

October 1, 1956

JEANNE MARIE SMALL DE MORSIER

(The International Union for Child Welfare, Switzerland)

In the course of the last few days, the last fortnight, you have had not many opportunities to hear representatives of international organizations.

My organization is one of those non-governmental agencies with consultative status which has the privilege to attend meetings of the Commission on the Status of Women.

There we listen to the representatives of governments who discuss and describe the position of women in their own respective countries.

If we do not happen to know personally the country which the representative is talking about it is sometimes very difficult to assess and give its full value to what they say.

For those of us who try to be objective in our judgements on those questions, it is sometimes extremely difficult to have or to find a right opinion, when we only hear on one hand some people for whom nothing good can come of the Soviet Union and the opinion of others who have, if I may say so, a blind admiration for it.

That was why we were so happy to receive the invitation and to be able to accept it, and even happier now that we had this fortnight in the U.S.S.R.

The first week we had here we heard lectures that were very comprehensive and we have listened to the many questions all of us asked.

But I think we have even appreciated more our visits both here in Moscow and in the various parts of the country we visited, where we saw in reality what had been described to us in the lectures.

I was privileged to visit Uzbekistan and Tashkent and I think this, and our other visits, have shown how truly this equality of the rights of women exists in the U.S.S.R. That it is not merely in theory but in reality and practice. And I think the most impressive thing is that though in other countries there are women who occupy positions of authority and influence and play a big role in the different ways of life, they are often still the exceptions and have always more or less to justify their positions, while here this is taken absolutely for granted. And I think it is this being taken for granted that has been the most impressive lesson of the whole journey.

I would like to say another word about the protection of women as mothers. Being a representative of a child welfare organization it was, of course, this aspect which interested me most.

I must say I have been extremely struck by all the provisions made to enable women to play their role as mothers and yet take full part in the economic, social, and cultural life of the country.

Dear friends, you have shown us a great many things, you have given us a great many things, and yet you have only whetted our appetites. There are still many things we would like to know, many things we would be glad to see but we cannot be too greedy.

Before sitting down I should like to say thank you very much for having invited us, for allowing us to participate in this Seminar.

You have been always so kind and cordial in all that you did for us, and when you addressed us as dear friends we

really felt it coming from the heart and it is also from the heart that we use this expression now.

I should like also to say how deeply touched we have been by the welcome we were given by quite ordinary people in the street when we went in and out of our cars, when we visited something, when we went into the shops; everybody around us showed such friendly interest, as also on the beach of Sochi in the last few days.

Thank you very much indeed and thank you for the example you have given in calling this Seminar together. Let us hope this example will be followed by other countries as well.

GERMAINE SYFER DIDERICH

(Belgium Federation of University Women)

On behalf of the delegates from Belgium present here, I should like to endorse all the hearty congratulations which have been moved by previous speakers.

I want to thank both the Soviet Government and our women friends—they have really become our friends—for the skill with which they have organized this Seminar. I also want to thank our interpreters who displayed such kindness and patience during our magnificent tour.

As Chairman of the Belgium Federation of University Women I was specially happy at being able to meet such a large number of women colleagues, who, in keeping with their services, hold responsible posts in your country. Their example has strengthened our faith in the dignity and possibilities of women, and gives us fresh arguments and strength for the struggle which we are waging in our countries so that women shall enjoy the rights they justly merit.

But what has astonished me most of all in your country is the men's attitude towards women—an attitude based on sincere cooperation and understanding. Woman is re-

garded first of all as a human being, and this fact was most strikingly manifested in the splendid Georgian collective farm, the chairman of which, in toasting women, paid generous tribute to their services. The women toasted the menfolk in reply, and we all felt that in your country the relations between men and women are what they really should be. Believe me, one does not encounter this very often. I have travelled on the different continents, but nowhere have I seen the universally noble attitude that prevails here.

I also want to thank our friends for having enabled us to make another great discovery, one that for me personally is of tremendous value: they made it possible for us to make the acquaintance of the Soviet people. We were charmed and deeply moved by their warmth, their desire for understanding, their profound human eagerness to learn, their kindness, and also by their achievements in labour. Leaving you, we take away with us new and very precious wealth and, so far as I am concerned, I shall distribute it unsparingly. I hope to be able to share it with many and, with the help of our friends here, multiply it.

LUCIE CHESTER BARNES
(Australian Women's Charter)

Madam Chairman and delegates!

I should like to endorse all the hearty congratulations which have been moved by other delegates and shall not waste your time repeating them. I am representing the Australian Women's Charter. We have 14 affiliations to our organization which includes the teachers' federation, the civilian widows, the cooperative women's guild, the hotel, club, and restaurant union; the hospital employees' union and the sheet metal workers are amongst the 14 of our affiliations.

Perhaps because I have been very greedy for everything that I could hear and see in the Soviet Union I should like



At the Stalingrad Tractor Works. "Are you sure I can't drive the tractor?" says Suzanne Auroi (International Bureau of Education)

to offer a little criticism and that is I wish that we had started on time a little more often. And that is a friendly criticism because of my greed for all that I could see and all that I could hear. I feel too that perhaps our friends were too avid to see that we saw too much. I feel that at the present moment I am suffering from mental indigestion, a feeling which I am sure will straighten out when I get back to my own country and have time to think of all the wonderful things that I have seen and heard. I feel that there is much to be done by our friends in the Soviet Union and by us to comprehend the problems of each other. For instance, one of the delegates present when inquiring of my country objected that I was not an Australian because I did not have a dark skin. The difficulty of our work in Australia, in our work for equal pay, social services, the right to form citizen's rights by our native people—are a few examples

where the whole weight of the state is used to check our aspirations.

To see your state in operation in this brief visit has given us fresh strength to return to our work, work which is slow and often tedious at times.

We remember the sacrifices of your fathers and mothers and sincerely trust that these sacrifices will never be forgotten by your rising generation.

At last our Press in Australia is beginning to give a true picture of your country and your attainments. We should like to see articles in your Press about Australia.

In conclusion, as I have said, we have drawn strength from your Seminar and your country.

Thank you again and thank you to the friends we have made which must help in international understanding and peace without which none of us can gain, none of our hopes can be a reality.

VERA SEMMENS

(International Cooperative Women's Guild, Great Britain)

I did not intend to speak here today because all that I could have said was already said by the delegates who preceded me. But I cannot refrain from speaking because I believe that I am the only delegate here present who represents an international women's organization with membership in the Soviet Union, in Czechoslovakia, Poland, Yugoslavia, as well as in countries of Western Europe, in the United States of America, in Canada, in Australia and New Zealand.

I want to say that I consider it a privilege to represent here at this Seminar women cooperators of the world.

These women are ordinary housewives who want to raise the standard of family living, to raise the standard of life for their children through cooperation and above all to establish world peace.

All over the world these women listen with great attention to what is taking place at this Seminar.

In the name of all those millions of women I want to express their gratitude for the chance to take part in this Seminar, to all who arranged this Seminar, who helped its success, including also all women who met us everywhere we went, the translators who helped us, the technical personnel, all the people who made our stay in this country happy and comfortable and helped to make our acquaintance with the position of women in this country.

A fortnight is much too short a time to become acquainted with the conditions of life of the Soviet people, of its life in all its aspects, but one thing I became certain of during my stay here is that the whole of the Soviet people, the women in particular, strive for world peace.

Once again I want to thank you for the welcome that met us everywhere on the part of Soviet women and of the whole of the Soviet people.

It has whetted our appetite for greater and closer contacts with the Soviet people and with the Soviet women in particular.

I hope that before long we shall be able to meet many Soviet women in other countries in Western Europe and elsewhere, the countries where so few Soviet women were able to come.

Long live friendship between Soviet women and women of the rest of the world!

Long live peace.

DORA RUSSELL

(Permanent International Committee of Mothers, Great Britain)

Madam Popova and dear friends!

I should not wish to take up time when so many people want to speak if it were not that I feel I should like to make some constructive suggestions.

I agree with all that has been said about the deep thanks that we all feel to the Soviet Women's Committee and to every person who has helped to make this Seminar the tremendous success which it has been.

But I think the best thanks which we could give to our Soviet women friends would be some constructive action arising out of the work of this Seminar.

You all know that the first invitation to this Seminar was given at the Status of Women Commission at Geneva in March. You know also that there are 18 government representatives on that Status of Women Commission which is supposed to review and improve the position of women all over the world.

But in actual fact we all know that many of us, government representatives, do nothing of the kind. Therefore since many of us belong to countries from which those government representatives come I feel that we can do a great work arising out of this Seminar in watching the attitude of our governments at the Status of Women Commission and in also watching the type of representative which our Governments send there.

I do not like criticizing my own country on public occasions, it is never pleasant, but I want to take this opportunity of apologizing publicly to our Comrade Spiridonova and Madam Novikova for the very rude speech which was made by the representative of Great Britain to them at the last Status of Women Commission meeting.

That is one point which I should like to make about the possibilities of what we can do to help forward the work which has been begun in this Seminar, to work with our Governments at home and see that they rightfully work to get the Status of Women Commission to be an active body.

Secondly, I think that there is a question of cooperation among women's organizations both nationally and internationally.

Many of us here come from organizations which in our own countries do not meet or have much cooperation. This is true of representatives of Great Britain and I think of many other countries represented here.



Excellent cotton in Uzbekistan!!

I think that arising from this Seminar in which we have learned how much we have in common, whatever our type of organization and whatever our profession, we could endeavour to get more common agreement among our different women's organizations nationally in our own countries on certain important issues, such as the emancipation of women and the issue of peace.

And then, I do not want to take too much time, Madam Chairman, but I should like to make one or two more points. There is also the question of international cooperation.

We all know that underneath the work of this Seminar lies the great question of the division between the countries of the East and the countries of the West.

And we know, I feel, that we women can do very much through our cooperation, nationally and internationally, to resolve this difficult international question of politics.

And these are the ideas that I wanted to put before you. I think that no matter what your organization stands for, whether it is university women, or businesswomen or trade union, you, all women, are desirous of certain things. We desire the full freedom and emancipation of women that we have seen here in the Soviet Union and we desire a peaceful world in which we can bring up our children and realize to the full the capacities of human beings.

And that is all that I wish to say, Madam Chairman, to this meeting, except that I would like to add that our Mothers' Committee, which has 44 countries on it, is working in this sense to rouse the creative feeling of women throughout the world in politics.

And in this atmosphere of cooperation and friendship and love, and noting all these signs we have seen everywhere throughout the Soviet Union about peace to the world, I feel that we should take with us this inspiration and not forget it when we go back to our countries so that really we shall create friendship and peace through the women throughout the world, and what the women do the men will follow.

EUGENIE COTTON

(Women's International Democratic Federation, France)

We've touched many subjects here and I want to support Dora Russell, in particular.

Now allow me to share a few of my impressions with you.

Above all I was most amazed by the importance which the Soviet Union attaches to woman's right to work, which is the basic guarantee of her dignity. The splendid thing is that this right is not only proclaimed, attention is devoted to seeing that it is translated into life. We have been able to see for ourselves the tremendous help accorded women so that they can fulfil their duties of motherhood. Children do not suffer because their mothers are working. We have seen how healthy they are, how happy and full of life.

Second, the thing that has amazed me more than at any time before: the Soviet Union is a country which looks forward to the future.

As a teacher, I noticed that the system of education in the U.S.S.R. is such that it gives the young people complete confidence in themselves. This imparts great strength and confidence to girls as well as to boys. For proof of this it was sufficient to listen to the girl student in the Hall of Columns yesterday who told us about her study and her plans for the future.

I have been most delighted to find that there are no old people at all in the Soviet Union. Here all are young. In Batumi, where I refused to dance, I thought that I had made the right decision: I told them that I was a grandmother, and that grandmothers don't dance. It turned out that grandmothers dance in the Soviet Union, and so I had no option but to take the floor.

As President of the Women's International Democratic Federation, I want to say that for me this Seminar has been a great pleasure which I shared with the Vice-Presidents Maria-Maddalena Rossi and Ceza Nabaraoui who are pres-

ent here. And the reason why I am so pleased is that the participants in the Seminar, who have come from different organizations and countries, objectively appraised the activity of Soviet women in all spheres.

In the past ten years our World Federation has, undoubtedly, had better opportunities than other international women's organizations to become acquainted with the activity of Soviet women, because the Soviet Women's Committee, right from its founding, affiliated to our Federation in which 70 countries are represented.

I am glad that those present here now realize that this ten years cooperation is something of which we are proud. We are convinced that in the near future this pride will be shared by many other organizations.

JIHAN MOUSLI

(Women's Union of Syria)

On behalf of the Women's Union of Syria, which represents all the Syrian women, I express thanks to the Soviet Women's Committee for the invitation to the Seminar, for giving us this splendid opportunity to become acquainted with women representatives from many countries.

We have been able to clear up a number of social problems and have exchanged views about the need to achieve peaceful solutions. We have learned much about the conditions of women in all the countries represented here.

The reports, which acquainted us with the situation and experience of Soviet women, have been extremely useful. All the things about which we were told in the papers we saw for ourselves in the course of our visits to Leningrad, Kiev and Sochi. The tour, a delightful one, enabled us to see how well the Soviet people live.

Our observations are extremely valuable for us, representatives of a young nation which got rid of imperialism only

10 years ago. We are working to build our society on a sound, peaceful and just foundation.

Once more, on behalf of the Women's Union of Syria, I thank the Soviet Women's Committee.

The people of Syria admire and warmly greet the Soviet people with whom they are linked in bonds of friendship and unity of aim—destruction of imperialism, liberation of the nations and preservation of peace.

AMANDA PALMA

("The Round Table" Women's Organization, Argentina)

On behalf of the nations of Latin America I greet the Soviet people. I congratulate and thank the Soviet women for organizing this Seminar which has given us the opportunity to become acquainted not only with the rights granted to women by the Constitution of the U.S.S.R., but also with their life, care of the children and the future of the children.

We have gained useful experience at this Seminar. We have met representatives from many countries who, like ourselves, are fighting for women's rights. This wonderful reality has convinced us that we, too, can improve the status of women and ensure a happy future for the children.

Dear Soviet women!

Going away, I leave with you my eternal gratitude. I am deeply moved. I have seen very much here and take away with me all that I learned at the Seminar, during our visits to universities, kindergartens, nurseries, and everything bearing on the life of women and children in your country.

On behalf of Argentina, Uruguay, and Cuba, I applaud the Land of Soviets, all the women, who represent the greatness of the nation, and I want to say to them—you shall be always in our hearts, and the day is not far distant when we, having realized our aspirations in our own countries, shall meet again.

For ever together, comrades.

LAILI ROESAD

(Member of the U.N. Commission on the Status of Women, Indonesia)

Madam Chairman! Fellow delegates!

I should also like to say a few words of thanks to the women of the Soviet Union who have organized this Seminar in such an excellent way.

It is not necessary for me, I think, to repeat all the warm words of gratitude and thanks of all the participants who have taken the floor before me.

However I should like to express also my personal feeling and that of my two other colleagues from Indonesia that we have indeed enjoyed very much our stay here in the Soviet Union.

We have been shown as much as possible during our brief stay here of the life and role of the Soviet woman.

So when in the first and coming sessions of the Commission on the Status of Women your representative to that commission, Madam Spiridonova, is going to tell us and explain how things are being done here in the Soviet Union by your women, I am sure that I for my part shall be very much interested indeed and that everything that she is going to say will not sound strange any more and I am sure also that your delegate will contribute very effectively to the work of the Commission on the Status of Women in general.

So once again thank you very much indeed.

**STATEMENTS BY PARTICIPANTS IN THE SEMINAR
AT A MEETING WITH WOMEN OF MOSCOW
IN THE HOUSE OF TRADE UNIONS**

September 30, 1956

SEETA PARMANAND
(All-Indian Women's Conference)

Madam Spiridonova!

Madam Popova and dear friends from Moscow!

It is indeed a privilege and honour to be here with you this evening and meet so many women from Moscow.

May I say that it was a very happy idea of the women of your country to call this conference representing women of 37 nationalities who have accepted the invitation.

As things are today I think and I have no hesitation in saying that the right of calling this conference for the first time belonged to nobody else but the Soviet Union, because the rights of the women here are not only on paper but have been put in practice.

Fortunately, the Indian woman has enjoyed partial equal rights with men as far as property goes and is highly honoured and respected at home.

She has been given equal rights with man in the constitution without having to wage a fight for them, as our leader, Mahatma Gandhi, recognized the work of woman in the freedom fight. But it was not until this year, June 1956, that under the leadership of our beloved Prime Minister Pandit

Nehru, whom you all know so well, that the majority of women, 80 per cent, got equal rights in property and marriage and all other social spheres.

Dear friends! I need not take your time to dwell on other advantages of conferences such as this, but may I say that in my opinion women meeting in such conferences can do double the work of men for obvious reasons. I am not aware what your Soviet men here do when they come from conferences about discussing it in their homes, but I can tell you that practically in all other countries men think that the knowledge and information of such conferences is a secret to be guarded and they keep it to themselves. But women, as you are aware, are called proverbially talkative and I am sure everyone of us when we go back will talk of her work here to the men in her family.

My time is limited. If it had not been so I would have loved to talk to such dear friends here. Though I do not know their languages, from their faces I can see the warmth of their welcome.

I would be failing in my duty if I did not say how very grateful we are for all the trouble taken, for the warmth with which we have been received and looked after, for the facilities that have been provided for us to get to know you at closer quarters.

In fact, when we returned today from our tour of your country we felt, most of us, all of us almost, that we were returning to our home of Moscow. And that only shows how well we have been looked after.

I shall give you only one or two of my impressions and close my speech.

As far as information about the rights of women in your country goes, we could have got it from papers and books but the advantage we had attending this conference is something unique, as we were able to have our doubts satisfied by asking questions and getting answers.

Apart from seeing the institutions to which my other friends will refer, I would like to refer to one factor that has



Where should we go next?

impressed me most in your country. And that is the calm and dignified way in which your women in every sphere wherever they are do their work efficiently and with self-confidence.

The proof of the pudding, as they say, is in the eating. And as the result, I found your men folk, men of the Soviet, so

much impressed with women's ability to work that they are usually found subdued and calm.

And your Chairman of the City Soviet of Stalingrad was pleased to remark that women have gone so much ahead of them that it will be a job now for them to catch up with women. I feel no better compliment could have been paid to the work done by women. That should serve as an example. A good result of this conference is that women will take home such memories and such an example to imitate.

Friends! I bring you the greetings of the women of India and wish you happiness for your future work, and peace, for your prosperity and the prosperity of the world!

MONICA WHATELY

(Six Point Group, Great Britain)

Madam President and Friends!

The first thing I want to do is to extend to Madam Spiridonova the grateful thanks not only of my organization but of the women of Britain and the women of the world for having conceived the great idea of a seminar on the status of the women, and making it possible for that Seminar to be held in this most hospitable country.

I am quite sure that everyone who was at that Seminar must have felt as I did that we knew more about the status of women than we'd ever known before, that is the status of women throughout the world and not only the status of women in our own country.

When I received the invitation I was warned by my friends who knew very little about the Soviet Union, and much that they did know was false, that I should make my will before I came in case I never came back.

Though you are very hospitable I don't think that you want to keep me for ever.

You would very much prefer for me to go back to my own country and to carry on the work that you are doing in your country to raise the status of women throughout the world.

In particular, I would appeal to those countries that have colonial possessions because it is of enormous importance that in the emancipation that is taking place slowly, much too slowly, women should be free at the same time as the men.

I was recently in South Africa where the non-Europeans are forced by their white rulers to carry a pass, they are not permitted to go from one town to another, and where there is every sort of discrimination. The Government has now decided that the African women as well shall carry a pass.

And what have those women done? They have taken those passes to the capital city and made a bonfire and burned them in front of their legislators.

We have recently fought in a great war side by side in order that a democratic way of life should be preserved in the world.

One of the first things that fascist dictators do is to deprive women of the status and dignity of their womanhood. I have seen it in Hitler's Germany, in Mussolini's Italy and in Franco's Spain.

And we are now asking ourselves what we can do to prevent the horror of another world war and the spread of fascism in the world.

Women who represent more than half of humanity must go into the parliaments of the world, into the ministries of the world. You've done very well, but not done quite well enough. We've done very badly, not nearly as well as you have.

Just as you need the man and woman to make a perfect family, so you need the man and woman to make the perfect state.

So I'm going back to my own country to tell them what has still to be done, to call big meetings, to put articles in the Press and to arrange for lectures amongst the men's and women's organizations.

In 1921 as a very young girl I came to your country to

feed your children after one of the most terrible famines that Russia had ever experienced.

As I held your starved and dying babies in my arms and looked into their eyes and saw that look of wonder which seemed to ask what right we had to bring them into a world where for them was no hope and no future, I said then, never again must we have another war and the terrible famines which follow the war.

In spite of that we had another war.

And it is up to the women of the world to unite in order that never again shall this terrible slaughter of humanity take place.

And we shall see and our children will live to see want and war abolished for all time.

FATMA TALIB ISMAIL

(Society of the Red Crescent, Sudan)

Personally, and on behalf of my colleagues of the Sudan delegation, I thank you for the kind invitation which enabled us to visit the Soviet Union. I also thank the Soviet people and their Government for the warm welcome and for the help given to us in making the acquaintance of your country.

We believe that the Seminar pursues noble aims, since it is taking place in Moscow. Women from all over the world, with different experience and speaking different languages, have come to it. But all are united by a single aim—the noble aim of rallying the women to preserve peace.

We live in the Sudan, which is separated from the Soviet Union by mountain ranges, oceans and seas, and also by social and political barriers. Because of this we had a false impression of the Soviet Union.

Now that we have been in this country, that we have seen things with our own eyes and lived among Soviet people, we have a correct impression of the U.S.S.R.

The Soviet Union has made a tremendous impression on us. We were delighted that among the Soviet women workers we met peasants and ministers, doctors and engineers, actively working in all spheres of life. For us this is a great example, it demonstrates that women can successfully combine the highest government jobs with domestic duties. We were also delighted by the spirit of cooperation between women and the men who work alongside them and appreciate and respect their labour.

We liked the Soviet countryside and the appearances of villages and towns. The thing that we admired in the Soviet people was the feeling of love and friendship for the peoples of other countries. Wherever we went we experienced hospitality and cordiality not only among official personages, but also on the part of ordinary people and children.

We were pleasantly surprised to find that the desire for peace is not something imported from without. It derives from the social relations prevailing in the Soviet Union. It is the property of women, men and children, and especially of those who know the horrors of war from experience. These people above all want peace.

We were also delighted by the care and attention shown to all members of the delegation on the part of the Government and the people who have spared no effort to make our stay in the U.S.S.R. as comfortable as possible.

We particularly liked the careful attitude in your country to the national peculiarities of the peoples inhabiting the Soviet Union. We were pleased, for example, to meet people who proudly spoke their Georgian language, who were proud of their national dishes, wines and dances. We also admired the highly developed Soviet agriculture and industry.

In conclusion, I want to say that the Seminar *Equality of Women in the U.S.S.R.* has played an important role. And

I feel sure that upon returning home, all sincere members of the delegation will hold aloft the banner of peace, of a better future and love for all the nations of the world.

MARIA DE CAPORIACCO

(Mother's Association, Italy)

Dear friends, first of all I want to thank you and your Government for giving me the opportunity to visit the Soviet country.

We have worked together for several days. We have visited the different establishments in which you are actively participating, cooperating with men in all spheres—technological, economic, social and cultural; we visited factories, textile mills, kindergartens, elementary and secondary schools, universities, law courts, and hospitals. We have seen your serious and skilled work.

We noted the active part women play in political and government bodies. I noticed that the diplomatic service is the only sphere in which Soviet women do not hold high posts. As a woman, it is my profound desire that not only you, Soviet women, but women in all the countries of the world should hold high diplomatic posts, because in some respects women have more foresight than men. They are quick to seize an important detail and they could be splendid servants of their governments in the sphere of diplomacy.

I, an Italian woman, have observed with tremendous satisfaction the striving of your colleagues to strengthen close cultural links with Italy, particularly in the spheres of art and literature, and I am glad to say: yes, these cultural links are desired in equal measure by Italian intellectuals, irrespective of political convictions.

Just today I have received a letter from Italy in which I was implored to do everything in my power, while I'm a guest in the Soviet Union, to help establishing in the Soviet Union, at least in Moscow, Leningrad and Odessa, insti-



Seminar participants in Lenin Square, Erevan, Armenian S.S.R.

tutes of Italian culture with Italian lecturers. We have women in Italy who would like to come here and conduct courses of the Italian language and the History of Art. This would create possibilities of establishing similar courses in Italy with Russian professors reading literature and the History of Art.

I beg you not to forget about our striving for cultural exchange which is extremely expedient at the moment, and I, on my part, will strive towards the same goal in my country.

Before leaving your country I wanted to discuss this question, as it is very well known that the cultural links help to overcome differences between peoples.

I should like to see the example of our cultural links taken up by others, because this helps to strengthen friendship between women and consolidate peace throughout the world.

DOWLATSHAH MEHRANGIS

(*"New Path" Society, Iran*)

As a representative of a neighbour of the Soviet Union and one of the Asian countries I want to say that possibly our share of thanks and gratitude for all that has been done for us here will be greater than the thanks of the representatives of the other countries. The great value of this Seminar is that it has acquainted us not only with the position of women in the Soviet Union, with their work, leisure and family status, but also enabled us to meet and establish personal contact with women of many countries. These personal meetings help to widen understanding and build friendship between women, they are the best contribution we can make to strengthening peace and to the struggle for peace.

It is perfectly clear that the Great Powers and their activity are the basic factors for peace, that the destiny of the world depends on their politics. Any peace-loving step taken by any of the Great Powers meets with a warm response and whole-hearted support in other countries.

We are very glad that our three-week sojourn in the Soviet Union has enabled us to do a great deal to improve and extend understanding between our two countries.

We are delighted with the wonderful warmth and cordial welcome accorded us in the Soviet Union. It has surpassed by far all that we had heard about hospitality in your country.

The position of women in the Soviet Union, their rights in the political, economic, and social spheres, and their civil rights, are a splendid example to the women of the Asian countries, the majority of whom have not yet won their indefeasible rights.

Fortunately, in our country, in Iran, women are stepping out along the road of battling for their rights and, to a certain degree, have won some success. In the past 10 or 20 years Iranian women have, undoubtedly, made progress.

But much, very much still remains to be done and a long road traversed in order to win all the rights which must belong to the women of the world.

I am convinced that the success won by the women of the Soviet Union, their help, and also the help of the international women's organizations, will play an important role in securing the rights of Iranian women.

Once more on behalf of the Iranian Delegation I wish to express deep gratitude to the Soviet people and the Soviet Government for the splendid hospitality and enormous help which they have accorded us.

SENEDU GEBRU

(Ethiopian Women's Association)

Dear friends, I bring you greetings from distant Ethiopia, from the women of Ethiopia, from Empress Menon, the patron of our organization, and from the Princess, who is our chairman.

The vastness of your country, the size of the buildings, the distances, and the scale of things generally have greatly impressed me.

I was most interested to become acquainted with so many of your establishments, schools, kindergartens, because I, too, work as director of an establishment of this kind. It was a great honour for us to see so many interesting things in your country.

Our attendance at the Seminar here in Moscow has given us much that is useful. To work and fight for the rights of women is a most noble enterprise. Our Constitution grants the women of Ethiopia equal rights with men—political and economic—but, of course, far from all our women are as yet able to exercise these rights. Some are hindered by religious prejudices and lack of education. We are trying to overcome the difficulties and help the women to exercise their rights. And this, of course, can be done only if we

have peace. So all our efforts must be directed towards preserving peace.

This gathering of women of different nationalities will, undoubtedly, do much for better understanding between us, for greater toleration towards the different viewpoints; unacquaintance with each other's life might, possibly, lead to irreconcilability. Knowledge of the life of other nations facilitates better understanding.

I think that each country can give something to another country, and I am deeply convinced that the Soviet Union can do much in this respect for the development of other countries. My travels here have convinced me of this. Equally, I believe that other countries can contribute something to the development of your country.

**PRESS CONFERENCE
OF THE PARTICIPANTS IN THE SEMINAR
October 1, 1956
AND THEIR STATEMENTS FOR THE PRESS**

ANNE ODEGAARD
(Open Door International, Norway)

In my opinion the arrangement of the Seminar was excellent. All the reports were good and they gave a very clear view of the status of women in the U.S.S.R. in the past and present. My only objection is that the programme was somewhat overcrowded and the rest inbetween the meetings too short, so that the delegates were sometimes tired. Of course, this was also the fault of the participants themselves, as everyone wanted to take in as much as possible of opera, ballet, and the theatre generally in the evenings.

As to the tours, they gave us a great opportunity of seeing several parts of nature and of the agricultural work in the country as well as all education and all factory work. I should like to mention especially a stocking factory at Tbilisi. This was excellently conducted. I have been employed for about 14 years in that branch, so I feel I have a right to have an opinion about it.

It was especially interesting to be acquainted with people and their ways of life, as well as their national dances in the several republics, for instance in Georgia.

Another thing. The delegates would appreciate to be given the necessary time to rest on arrival at a new place before going sight-seeing, on excursions, etc.

With regard to your resting places, such as Sochi, I was quite surprised to find them so grand. Perhaps because I am from a small country, from Norway, where we ordinary working people are accustomed to small measurements.

The best outcome of this Seminar as well as of most meetings and congresses is that the participants had an opportunity of exchanging opinions on several matters and of making acquaintances and friends and of understanding each other's points of view.

I am very glad, as a representative of the Open Door International for the economic emancipation of women workers, to have been offered the privilege to see some parts of the U.S.S.R. and to meet so many outstanding women from your country and from many other countries.

I greatly admire your intelligent and finely-trained women, not the least your extraordinarily skilled and kind interpreters, and I wish you all every success in your future work.

The question period in the Seminar allowed me to put forward the principles and experiences of the Open Door International. We found that we disagree on certain points regarding the economic opportunities of the working women. It was good to feel that there was freedom of speech for each of us and I admire your patience with all of us. Thank you so very much.

PIPPA HARRIS

(Representative of UNESCO, France)

Madam Chairman and friends!

I am an observer on behalf of the Director General of UNESCO, the educational, scientific and cultural organization of the United Nations. And as you may know we are responsible in UNESCO for educational questions and the

International Labour Office deals with questions of conditions of work.

My own job in UNESCO is to try to promote cultural exchanges between workers of different countries by organizing study tours for groups of people who go to meet their fellow-workers in another country and study their conditions of life and working conditions.

I happen to be personally extremely interested in working conditions and trade-union questions, but I am not an expert on these points, not in the sense that somebody from the ILO would be an expert.

I have been very much interested in seeing a textile works here in Moscow and another one in Tashkent. And what else did we see? Oh, the tractor factory in Stalingrad. But I suppose that makes three factories out of probably about a million which you have in the Soviet Union.

And I don't think that even an expert would like to base his judgement on having seen so few factories. Incidentally I've just had a talk with one of your officers of the All-Union Council of Trade Unions. And he suggested that I should come back to Russia and see far many more factories before I really feel that I know the question properly.

Let me add a word on one point which impressed me very much on the educational side. We met quite a few people working in a factory who had started as factory hands, semi-skilled or skilled or even unskilled, and had gradually increased their education, had gone to various institutes and night schools until they were able to hold a very responsible job in the works. I think that that is a very fine thing for people to be able to do.

And let me add in conclusion, Madam Chairman, that since the Soviet Union joined UNESCO two years ago she has been a very active participant in the whole of our programme and I think that my visit here is going to help me to help UNESCO to increase that kind of participation. Our whole work in UNESCO is based on a pooling of knowledge; every one of our member states gives us its best ex-

perience and draws from a common pool and the participation of the Soviet Union up till now has been very promising for further and more extended participation in the future.

IIARAHAP TETILARSIH

(Women's Congress of Indonesia)

Madam Chairman!

Members of the Press!

I want to express my regrets that Miss Laili Rousad, our representative in the UNO, could not come to the Soviet Union. Being a member of the Indonesian delegation, I will try and answer the questions.

We obtained our rights from our Government with the independence of our country, so we did not have to fight to get our rights.

And, as all of you know, we obtained our independence in 1945.

The Articles concerning this matter, the matter of our rights, stated in our Constitution are, the Articles 7, 8, 10 and 28.

Some of these state as follows:

Article 7: Every one is recognized as a person before the law. All are entitled to equal protection under the law.

Article 8: All persons within the territory of the state are entitled to equal protection of person and property.

Article 10: No one shall be held in slavery, servitude or bondage. Slavery, the slave trade, and bondage, and any action in whatever form giving rise to these are unlawful.

Article 28: Every citizen, according to his ability, has the right to work as a human being. Everyone has the free form of occupation and just conditions of vote. Everyone has the right to equal pay for equal work.

The articles mentioned indicate that no distinction is made between male or female individuals. Practically, the Indonesian women have the same right as the men. Indo-



In Moscow, Seminar participants spoke over TV

nesian women may be elected as members of the House of Representatives and may take part in the elections of this House. They have the same rights at elections as male individuals. The fact that until now the number of women holding the office of members of the House of Representatives has been very small, is not because there are government regulations against its increase, but rather because the women in general do not know how to use their political right.

In the occupational field there is also no discrimination between boys and girls. All schools, elementary or secondary schools and universities, are open to both men and women.

Our Government is offering scholarships to male as well as female students who deserve it. Nowadays we find that many of our girls are attending middle schools, the medical and law faculties, etc. It should urge our girls to make use of this opportunity to get an education as much as pos-

sible so that they will not be lacking in education as compared with men.

What about position in the social field? In this connection the word social must be used in the widest possible sense.

Firstly, in the field of labour. It has been put in practice that if a woman does the same job as a man her pay will be the same as that of a man. For example, in government offices, men and women who do the same kind and quantity of work get the same pay. And the big private companies have also started to use the same practice.

The fact that our Government is paying the same salary to men and women who do the same work—may be called the most progressive investment in an eastern country yet.

SUZANNE AUROI

(International Bureau of Education, Switzerland)

To reply to the question about my impressions of the Soviet school I have taken note of six words: discipline, serious attitude to work, joy, straightforwardness, confidence and faith.

And really when one visits a class-room in any Soviet school one is struck by the discipline. The discipline, let it be said, is perfectly conscious, it has nothing to do with compulsion. If this were not so, then the children would not have displayed the spontaneity and straightforwardness which we always noticed, nor the joy which lit up their faces when we saw them performing folk dances and games.

The serious attitude to study is perfectly obvious. The enthusiasm and keenness would not be manifested were they not based on a most serious attitude.

I was always surprised and delighted by the fact that the children freely and confidently expressed themselves in the presence of visitors, in the presence of their comrades. And as regards faith all I can say is that the faith in themselves and in the future was strikingly manifested.

I cannot criticize the conduct of education in your country vis-à-vis methods and details because I did not have sufficient contact with the classes and with the work of the pupils.

Doubtlessly much must be done to improve things. This will be a step along the path of progress, since everything testifies that the Soviet Union is never satisfied with achievements, including its achievements in the sphere of education.

At any rate I can say about education that the method of teaching and the opportunities for developing individual ability in the Pioneer Houses and in other organizations catering to the cultural needs of the children are most successful.

I am convinced that your children enjoy excellent opportunities for all-round harmonious development, that no ability, no talent, and no desire remains without attention.

In conclusion, I take the liberty of expressing the wish that the exchange of visits by school children during their holidays should be extended so that every summer there should be as many exchanges as possible between the school children of the different countries. It is necessary to work for active correspondence, both collectively between classes and individually between children in the different countries so that genuine bonds of friendship, the token of peace throughout the world, can be developed.

ANNA HRUBA

*(Czechoslovakia—Observer Country in the
United Nations Commission on the Status of Women)*

I work in the Czechoslovak Women's Committee, in the mother and child department. I should like to tell you what we are doing to decrease infantile mortality.

Infantile mortality was very high in Czechoslovakia before the war—117 deaths per thousand. During the war the

figure rose to 130. In the post-war years we began to tackle this problem and the figure has now been reduced to 32 per thousand, thanks to the higher standard of living enjoyed by the population.

Expectant mothers and children are objects of systematic care. The expectant mother is under the constant observation of medical authorities. We are doing much in the way of preventing illness.

I am very glad that I have been able to see something of the generous care for women and children in the Soviet Union. I was most delighted to hear the reports about the work of the child establishments. We wish the Soviet children a good and happy life.

SUMITRA DEVI

(Women's United Front of Nepal)

Because of the fact that our country, as you know, has only recently become independent, we have very few schools or colleges. But I hope that in the near future this shortcoming, the shortcoming of education in our country, will be remedied.

On returning home I will tell first of all the members of my organization, the women of Nepal and all who ask me about the Soviet Union, about the excellent educational system in the U.S.S.R., and the sound attitude of the Soviet Government towards educating the growing generation.

MARIA ACOSTA FERREIRA

(Women's Union of Uruguay)

AMANDA PALMA

(“The Round Table” Women's Organization, Argentina)

The delegation from the countries of Latin America, represented here by the fraternal republics of the River Plata—Argentina and Uruguay—consider it their duty to

declare to the representatives of the Press that the Seminar on equal rights of women in the U.S.S.R., which has just finished in Moscow, surpassed all expectations.

The reports made by the women—members of the leading bodies of the Soviet state—reveal to us that Soviet rule has granted women full rights.

The detailed answers to the numerous questions emphasized once again the great achievements of Soviet women.

We were given every opportunity to become acquainted with Soviet life. We visited different establishments—cultural, medical and industrial—in the towns and republics of the U.S.S.R. And now on the eve of our departure home, we heartily thank the Soviet people and Soviet women and also the members of UNO who have taken part in the Seminar—all the participants in this splendid gathering—for the attention shown to us.

IOHANNE WILLET

(Dutch Federation of Business and Professional Women)

Today I am leaving Moscow after the close of the Seminar for women. Allow me to use this opportunity to convey through your Press my most sincere gratitude to all the people who helped to make the Seminar a success.

We, the participants in the Seminar, shall tell women the world over what we have learned about the life of women in the Soviet Union. Isolation is a stage that has now been passed.

This new experiment must be continued through the convening of annual conferences after the example of our Seminar, and each year they should be held in a different continent. Next year, Asia or Australia could undertake to organize such a conference. Let them uphold the initiative of Mme. Spiridonova and begin work in that direction without delay.

Furthermore, I wish to request the Soviet women's organization to send copies of the magazine *Soviet Woman* to the participants in the Seminar regularly every month. We should like to receive that magazine in order to show it to the members of our various organizations. In addition, we could exchange information on our work.

We must never lose the contact we have established in the past 14 days. That is our common cause. If we want peace, we must keep this contact alive and honestly and openly exchange information. We must also fight the distortions about our countries that appear in the Press. For that reason, I call upon all people who work in the Press, women, in particular, to be accurate and objective in their reports.

Another suggestion is that all the participants in the Seminar should get a name and address list of all the women who attended it. That would enable us to establish contact with all countries and to discuss our common problems by correspondence between the participants in the Seminar in Moscow.

In conclusion I should like to say that since men always talk of peace and yet have permitted wars to break out, let women shoulder the tasks men have failed to carry out, and through united effort achieve real peace for their children.

DENISE BRETON

(Union of French Women)

Having heard the reports and the answers to our numerous questions, given with such kindness and sincerity and especially after seeing Moscow, Stalingrad and Tashkent, I want to say that four things in particular amazed me:

1. The desire of Soviet women to study. This is something more than a desire, a real thirst for knowledge has gripped Soviet people; they want to know as much as pos-

sible, to improve their skill and become expert at work. Schools are never empty and people of all ages are studying.

2. For Soviet women work is a vital necessity. Everywhere women told us that they actively participate in economic, cultural and political life of the country. For them, evidently, it is a necessity to make their contribution to raising the well-being of society. The Soviet state has given them this opportunity and is doing everything to extend it. At the same time women fulfil their maternal and civil duties.

3. The deep and sincere desire of Soviet women to live in friendship with the women of the world. I am convinced that Soviet women ardently desire cooperation with all countries, ardently desire economic and cultural exchanges. One feels their profound desire to know more about other nations and to help other nations to know more about their way of life.

4. The chief thing, however, is the atmosphere of hope that prevails in the country. The people look forward to the future. All Soviet people are imbued with great faith, they expect much from the morrow, from the future.

"We have already done a great deal," they said, pointing to the achievements in the towns which we visited. The heroic city of Stalingrad was the most striking example of this. In other places, too, they said to us: "We are well aware that not everything is brilliant with us, there is plenty to be done, but, we have begun it, and we shall complete it."

This faith in the future, the feeling of joy in work, and the vitality, enthused me very much.

Now that I have become acquainted with the life of Soviet women, I should like to say that I am returning to France with renewed strength to work still harder in my organization so that we can solve the problems worrying the women of my country.

FRANCINE MARIE LYNA

(International Association of Democratic Lawyers, Belgium)

This morning numerous delegates expressed their gratitude to the Soviet Government and to those wonderful women for the possibility of staying in the Soviet Union for two weeks and learning how the real life in your country corresponds to your principles. I join them wholeheartedly.

I should like to dwell on two things which astonished me particularly.

First, the wealth of facts and documentation in the papers and reports and, the chief thing, the sincerity. When showing us the things that they have done, our Soviet friends were not afraid to speak about the problems which still confront them. However, in the plans, and I have in mind in particular the housing plan outlined to us during our visit to the City Soviet, provision is made for getting rid of the shortcomings.

Second, I especially liked your children. They are the living testimony to what can be done by a system of upbringing and education. Most of their mothers go out to work and are proud that they are taking part in public and economic life. Yet this does not detract one iota from the children's charm.

When we visited the Palace of Pioneers in Leningrad where the children, free from timidity and undue forwardness, drew us into their game without displaying the slightest irony over the clumsy way we tried to imitate their graceful motions, we felt that nothing restricted or interfered with their harmonious development.

We were told that the children had the opportunity of establishing contact with writers and scientists.

I have a small boy of my own. And the best compliment I can pay to the Soviet children is to say that I should like my son to grow up with the same qualities of physical and moral balance.

ANNE VILHELMINA LAAKSONEN

(Housewives Association of Finland)

AINO EMILIA VALKAMA

(National Council of Women, Finland)

We representatives of Finland are most grateful for the invitation to visit the Soviet Union, to see the country and its people.

In our view the International Seminar has justified itself. The speeches have made clear the equality of Soviet women and the contribution they are making to building up this great country. The theoretical discussions we had in Moscow were a good foundation for the practical things we saw during our tour of the country.

We visited Leningrad and Georgia. In Moscow and in Leningrad we saw for ourselves that Soviet citizens have every opportunity to make use of the best achievements of culture.

In Georgia we were greatly interested in the people and their customs. The life of the Georgians and their national traditions made an unforgettable impression, as did their achievements in the sphere of labour. The days that we spent in Sochi filled in the general picture obtained earlier: the care of the Soviet Government for the health of the workingman.

The stay in sanatoriums and holiday homes, located in beautiful and picturesque places, gives people new strength and energy. We experienced this ourselves.

We are grateful for the exceptionally well-organized tour and wish this friendly country and its warm-hearted people every success.

PAULETTE GARCIA

(World Federation of Democratic Youth, France)

For me this Seminar has been a real school. All that we learned from the papers and reports was confirmed by what we saw during our travels through the country. We saw

many things, and my attention was concentrated, and I say this with the greatest satisfaction, on the opportunities available to the youth—young women as well as men—for making use of their talents.

I must say that this is a real example which inspires the young people in other countries waging an active struggle for the right to live, to work and for happiness.

Our Federation devotes much attention to the participation of girls in our activity and inspires them to fight for their rights and happiness.

This Seminar on the equality of women in the U.S.S.R. will, undoubtedly, find a broad response among young women everywhere.

What pleased me very much was the persistence with which girls are perfecting their knowledge and skill. And wherever I went I had the feeling that they have the greatest respect for their friends in other countries.

The contacts and the friendly attitude cemented here, both with Soviet women and with the other participants in the Seminar, will be very useful and we are grateful to our Soviet friends for giving us this opportunity.

I should like to assure you, dear friends, that our organization, the World Federation of Democratic Youth, composed of young people from 87 countries, is doing everything to help young women all over the world to take part in social, political, and cultural life. In furtherance of this a gathering of young women from all the countries of Europe will be held in Brussels over October 24-27. The gathering will discuss questions that are now agitating young women—defence of their rights and full development in conditions of peace and happiness.

I am very glad that I have been able to visit your country, and I am gladder still at the thought that in August 1957 thousands of young men and women from all parts of the world will be able, as I have been, to appreciate the enormous achievements here on behalf of the youth and to be-

come acquainted with the warm feelings of your people and your youth. In this way the youth and peoples of the world will become better friends.

Let this Seminar be the beginning of such contacts. I hope that it will be followed shortly by others in the different countries where the women can follow our experience. Working this way we shall reinforce the friendly contacts between women and mothers, we shall be working for peace.

Dear Soviet friends, I sincerely thank you, the Soviet Government and especially your people and your charming children whose spontaneous and close attention I shall never forget.

**STATEMENT BY PARTICIPANTS IN THE SEMINAR
WHO VISITED STALINGRAD**

TO OUR FREINDS OF STALINGRAD

Before leaving the U.S.S.R. we want to thank you very sincerely for your warm welcome. Most of us chose to visit Stalingrad because we remembered with what anxiety and what admiration we followed your heroic defence. You have shown the same spirit in rebuilding your city, and we have been impressed by its beautiful layout and the magnificent results achieved in a comparatively short time.

We shall not forget, either, the extraordinary warmth of your welcome, and we look forward to a chance of returning your hospitality when you visit our countries.

We are returning home with the happiest memories of our all-too-short stay and we hope you will accept our grateful thanks and best wishes for the future of your city.

**STATEMENT BY PARTICIPANTS IN THE SEMINAR
WHO VISITED UZBEKISTAN**

TO OUR FRIENDS OF UZBEKISTAN

We cannot leave the U.S.S.R. without sending you a warm message of friendship and thanks. None of us had ever dreamed of visiting your distant and beautiful country, let alone of being given such a hearty and generous welcome, that we now feel we have left life-long friends behind us in Tashkent.

We were also tremendously impressed by the culture of Uzbekistan, the friendliness of its people and the role its women play in the economic, scientific, cultural and public life of the country.

We sincerely hope that we shall have the opportunity of reciprocating your hospitality in our own countries in the not too distant future.

Please accept our warmest thanks and best wishes.

LIST OF DELEGATES

Representatives of member countries in the UNO Commission on the Status of Women

1. Laili Roesad (Indonesia)
2. Zena Harman (Israel)
3. Sofia Dembinskā (Poland)
4. Mitra Mitrovic (Yugoslavia)
5. Faina Novikova (Byelorussian S.S.R.)
6. Nina Spiridonova (U.S.S.R.)

Representatives of observer countries in the UNO Commission on the Status of Women

7. Anna Hruba (Czechoslovakia)
8. Anastasiya Vilkova (Bulgaria)

Representatives of Asian and African countries

9. Daw Saw Shwe, Deputy of the Chamber of Nationalities (Burma)
10. Daw Mya Si, Member of the Chamber of Deputies (Burma)
11. Safiyeh Firouz, Women's Council of Iran
12. Dr. Mehrangis Dowlatshahi, "New Path" Society (Iran)
13. Saida Nayer, Head of the Women's Section of Radio Teheran (Iran)

14. Mehry Ahy, Women's and Workers' Children's Welfare Council (Iran)
15. Laura Tabet, Women's Federation of Lebanon
16. Najla Salim Saab, Women's Federation of Lebanon
17. Sarojini Manandhar, Women's Federation of Nepal
18. Mina Kumar Acharya, Prime Minister's daughter (Nepal)
19. Kamal Saha, Women's Volunteer Service Organization (Nepal)
20. Kamal Rana, Women's Volunteer Service Organization (Nepal)
21. Sumitra Devi, Women's United Front of Nepal
22. Mangla Devi, Women's Association of Nepal
23. Jazari Adle Achmad, Women's Union of Syria
24. Jihan Saleh Mousli, Women's Union of Syria
25. Kamar Chaura, Women's Union of Syria
26. Nadwa Issa, Women's Union of Syria
27. Nabila Razaz, Women's Union of Syria
28. El Jazari Jamaat Amal, Women's Union of Syria
29. Fatma Talib Ismail, Society of the Red Crescent (Sudan)
- 30. Suad El Fatih, Society of the Red Crescent (Sudan)**
31. Aziza Maki Osman, Women's Union of Sudan
32. Haggga Kashif, Women's Union of Sudan
33. Aziza Omar Saboun, Women's Union of Sudan
34. Dr. Khalda Zahir, Women's Union of Sudan
35. Kalthum Omer Musa, Society of Women's Emancipation (Sudan)
36. Bothina El Sheikh Elgosi, Society of Women's Emancipation (Sudan)
37. Amna Ibrahim Malik, Society of Women's Emancipation (Sudan)

38. Thuria Ombabi, Society of Women's Emancipation (Sudan)
39. Naeema Khir El Sid, "Guide" Organization (Sudan)
40. Aziza Karar Muhammed, "Guide" Organization (Sudan)
41. Dr. Tezer Taskiran (Turkey)
42. Theja Gunawardhana, All-Ceylon Women's Conference
43. Eugenie Rajapalirana, All-Ceylon Buddhist Women's Association
44. Senedu Gebru, Ethiopian Women's Association
45. Kesela Belachen, Ethiopian Women's Association

*Representatives of the UNO General Secretary
and of the UNO specialized agencies*

46. Mary Cecil Tenisson-Woods, Chief of the Section on the Status of Women with the UNO General Secretary (U.S.A.)
47. Sophia Grinberg-Vinaver, Secretary of the UNO Commission on the Status of Women (U.S.A.)
48. Alice Ehrenfeld, officer of the U.N. Secretariat (U.S.A.)
49. Pippa Harris, representative of UNESCO (France)
50. Jessie Bierman, World Health Organization (U.S.A.)

*Representatives of international non-governmental
organizations*

51. Jeanne Marie Small de Morsier, International Union for Child Welfare (Switzerland)
52. Gertrude Baer, Women's International League for Peace and Freedom (Switzerland)
53. Anne Odegaard, Open Door International (Norway)
54. Eugenie Cotton, Women's International Democratic Federation (France)

55. Maria Maddalena Rossi, Women's International Democratic Federation (Italy)
56. Ceza Nabaraoui, Women's International Democratic Federation (Egypt)
57. Dora Russell, Permanent International Committee of Mothers (Great Britain)
58. Ruth Hermann, Permanent International Committee of Mothers (Denmark)
59. Milena Kralova, International Federation of Journalists (Czechoslovakia)
60. Suzanne Madeleine Auroi, International Bureau of Education (Switzerland)
61. Nina Spiller, International Alliance of Women for Equal Rights and Equal Responsibilities (Great Britain)
62. Vera Semmens, International Cooperative Women's Guild (Great Britain)
63. Madeleine Leroy, International Council of Women (Belgium)
64. Francine Marie Lyna, International Association of Democratic Lawyers (Belgium)
65. Anna Klara Pfirter, International Committee of the Red Cross (Switzerland)
66. Violette Marie Pesson, International Abolitionist Federation (France)
67. Fernanda S. Balboa, Pan Pacific Women's Association (Philippines)
68. Ellen Barker Lea, Pan Pacific Women's Association (New Zealand)
69. Gessi Nives, World Federation of Trade Unions (Italy)
70. Paulette Garcia, World Federation of Democratic Youth (France)
71. Hilda Lavine, World Federation of Democratic Youth (France)

Representatives of national non-governmental organizations

72. Tsao Meng-chung, All-China Democratic Women's Federation
73. Wang Hsin-nan, All-China Democratic Women's Federation
74. Dr. Seeta Parmanand, All-Indian Women's Conference
75. Kamala Ratnam, All-Indian Women's Conference
76. Mary Monica Whately, Six Point Group (Great Britain)
77. Amanda Palma, "The Round Table" Women's Organization (Argentina)
78. Denise Marthe Breton, Union of French Women
79. Fuki Kushida, Federation of Japanese Women's Organizations
80. Lucie Chester Barnes, Australian Women's Charter
81. Muriel Maude Tribe, Australian Women's Charter
82. Irmgard Scharf, Union of Austrian Democratic Women
83. Iohanne Willet, Dutch Federation of Business and Professional Women
84. Maria Van Lanschot, Dutch Union for Equality
85. Inger Jensen, National Women's Council of Denmark
86. Sidsel Gerd Bauck, Norwegian Women's Rights Association
87. Maria Acosta Ferreira, Women's Union of Uruguay
88. Maria Vanzelli Caporiacco, Mothers' Association (Italy)
89. Representative of the All-German Council of Women (Federal Republic of Germany)
90. Representative of the All-German Council of Women (Federal Republic of Germany)
91. Jeanne Foucard, Belgian Association of Women Lawyers
92. Germaine Cyfer Diderich, Belgium Federation of University Women

93. Margaret Louise Airey, National Assembly of Women of Great Britain
94. Edith Mary Adlam, Women's International League for Peace and Freedom, British Section
95. Moelyati, Women's Congress of Indonesia
96. Harahap Tetilarsih, Women's Congress of Indonesia
97. Anne Vilhelmina Laaksonen, Housewives' Association of Finland
98. Aino Emilia Valkama, National Council of Women of Finland

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Материалы международного семинара,
проходившего в Москве
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