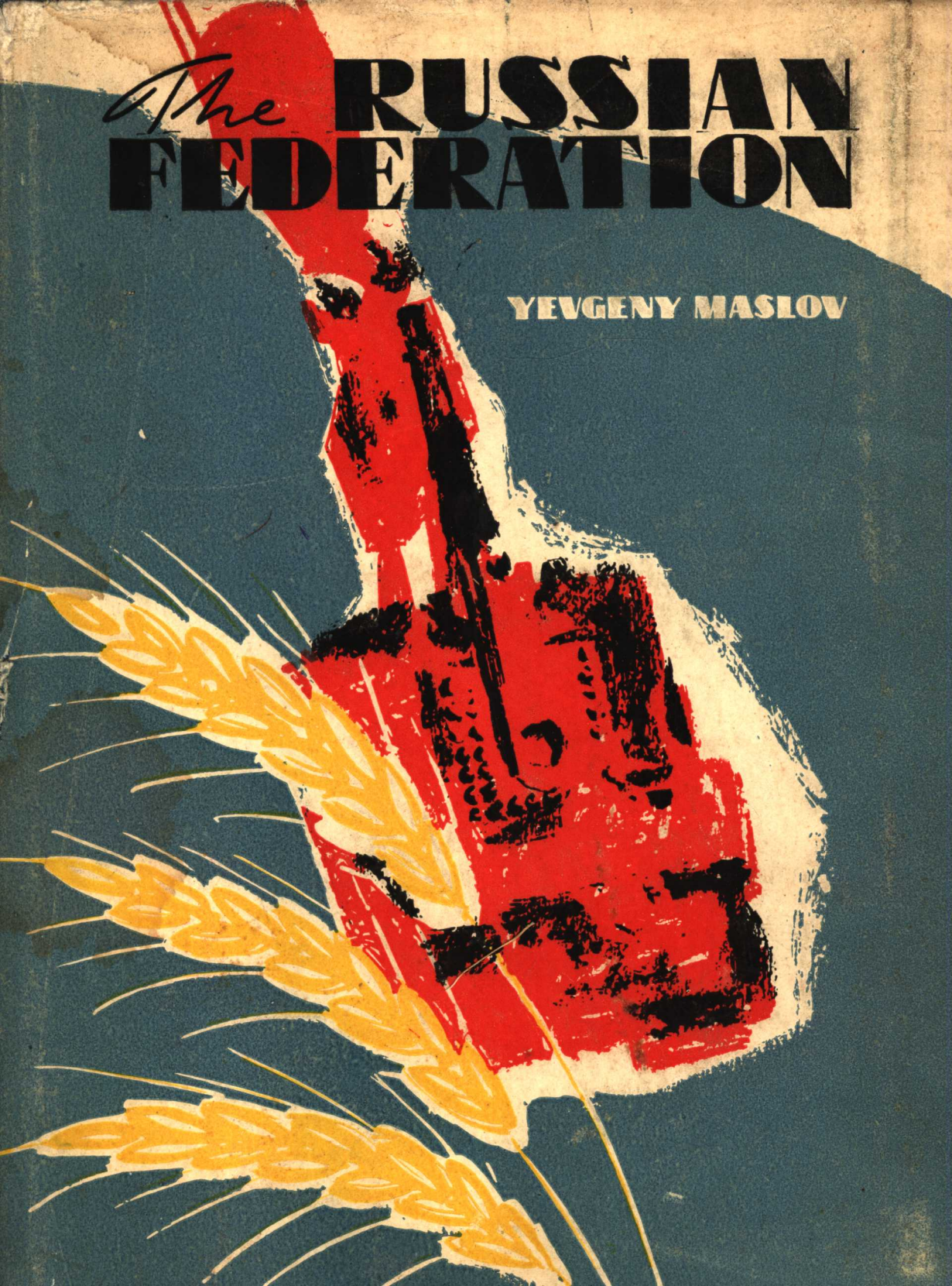
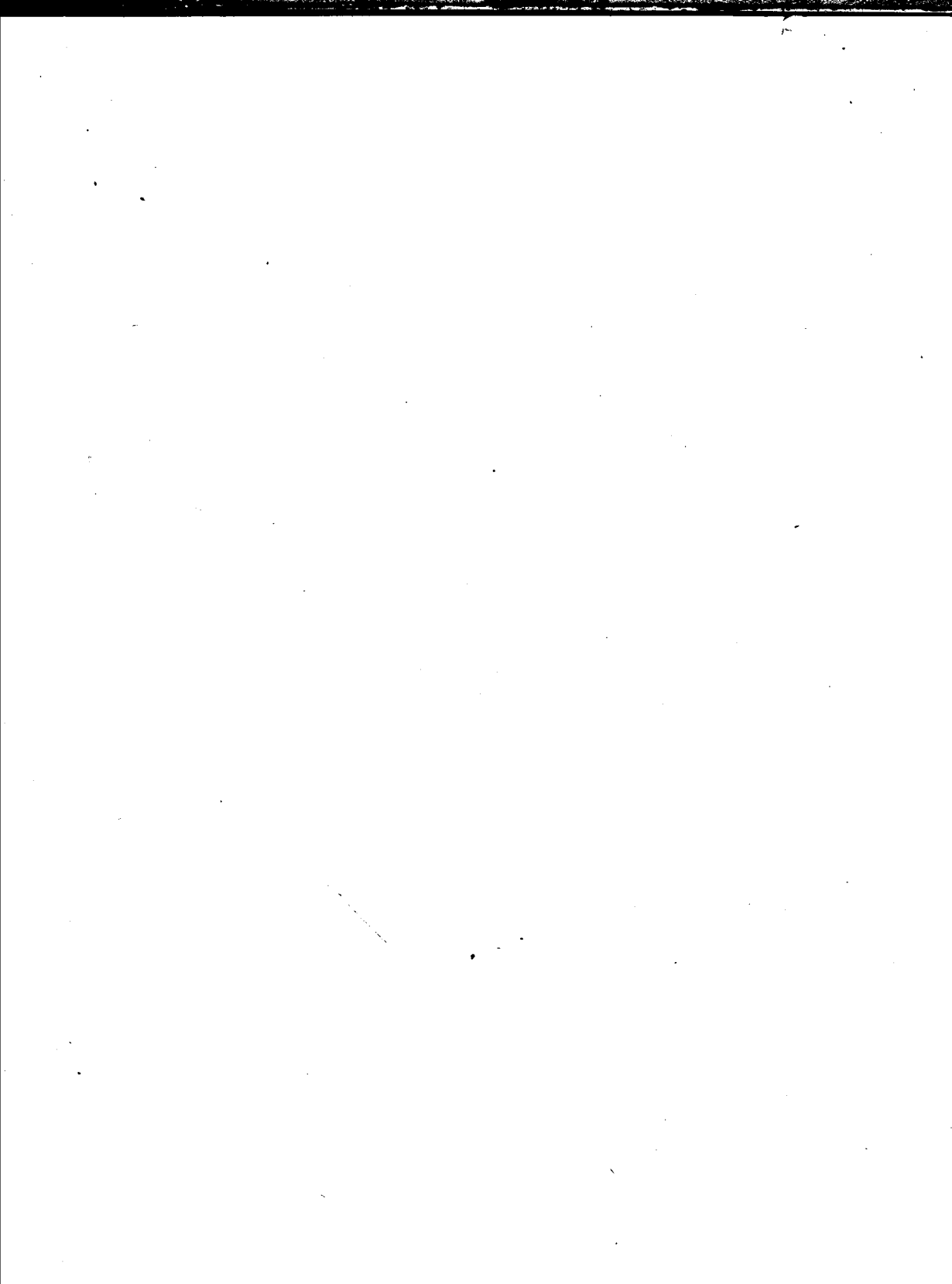


The **RUSSIAN
FEDERATION**

YEVGENY MASLOV





**RUSSIAN
FEDERATION**
Y E V G E N Y M A S L O V

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CONTENTS

	<i>Page</i>
IN LIEU OF AN INTRODUCTION	7
TRANSFORMATION OF RUSSIA	9
Briefly About the Past	11
Industrialization	13
From the Baltic to the Pacific	18
Geological Map Without "White Spots"	22
Fuel and Power	24
Electrification	27
Metallurgy and Chemistry	30
Machines and Building Materials	32
Land	35
Communications	39
Economic-Geographical Regions	41
Population, Science, Culture	46
ACROSS THE RUSSIAN FEDERATION	55
In the Heart of the Great Russian Plain	57
North-European Part of the R.S.F.S.R.	85
The North-West	101
Along the Volga	117
In the South of Russia :	132
Where Europe and Asia Meet	155
Siberia, a Land of Incalculable Wealth	178
The Pacific Seaboard	199
IMMEDIATE PROSPECTS OF DEVELOPING THE PRODUCTIVE FORCES OF THE RUSSIAN FEDERATION	211



IN LIEU OF AN INTRODUCTION

The Russian Federation extends over a vast area of more than 17 million square kilometres from the Baltic to the Pacific and from the Arctic Ocean to the Black Sea. Territorially, this is as big as two countries such as the United States of America and thirty such as France. Fierce snow-storms rage in the north of the Russian Federation when in the south almond-trees bloom and the mimosa fills the air with its aroma. When Leningrad is wrapped in the inky darkness of night, the sun shines brightly over Vladivostok. An express train takes more than a week to cover the distance between these two cities.

The Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic (R.S.F.S.R.) is one of the 15 equal republics making up the Soviet Union. In territory (about three-fourths of the area of the Soviet Union) and in population it is the biggest of these republics, has the most developed economy, the richest natural resources and the greatest economic potential.

The R.S.F.S.R. is a multi-national federated state. The principle of the federated structure of the Russian Republic was established in 1918 by the *Declaration of the Rights of the Working and Exploited People*, which proclaimed the Russian Federative Republic with the purpose of "creating a really free, voluntary and, consequently, an all the more fuller and firmer alliance of the working classes of all the nations of Russia." As members of the federation there are in the R.S.F.S.R. 15 sovereign Soviet socialist republics which are national socialist states exercising state power on the basis of autonomy. Moreover, there are six autonomous regions en-

joying administrative national autonomy. The small peoples have national districts, of which there are 10. Under the national policy of the socialist state all the numerous nations inhabiting the Russian Federation have all the conditions for unhampered economic, political and cultural development. With the Russian people, they form a single, friendly family.

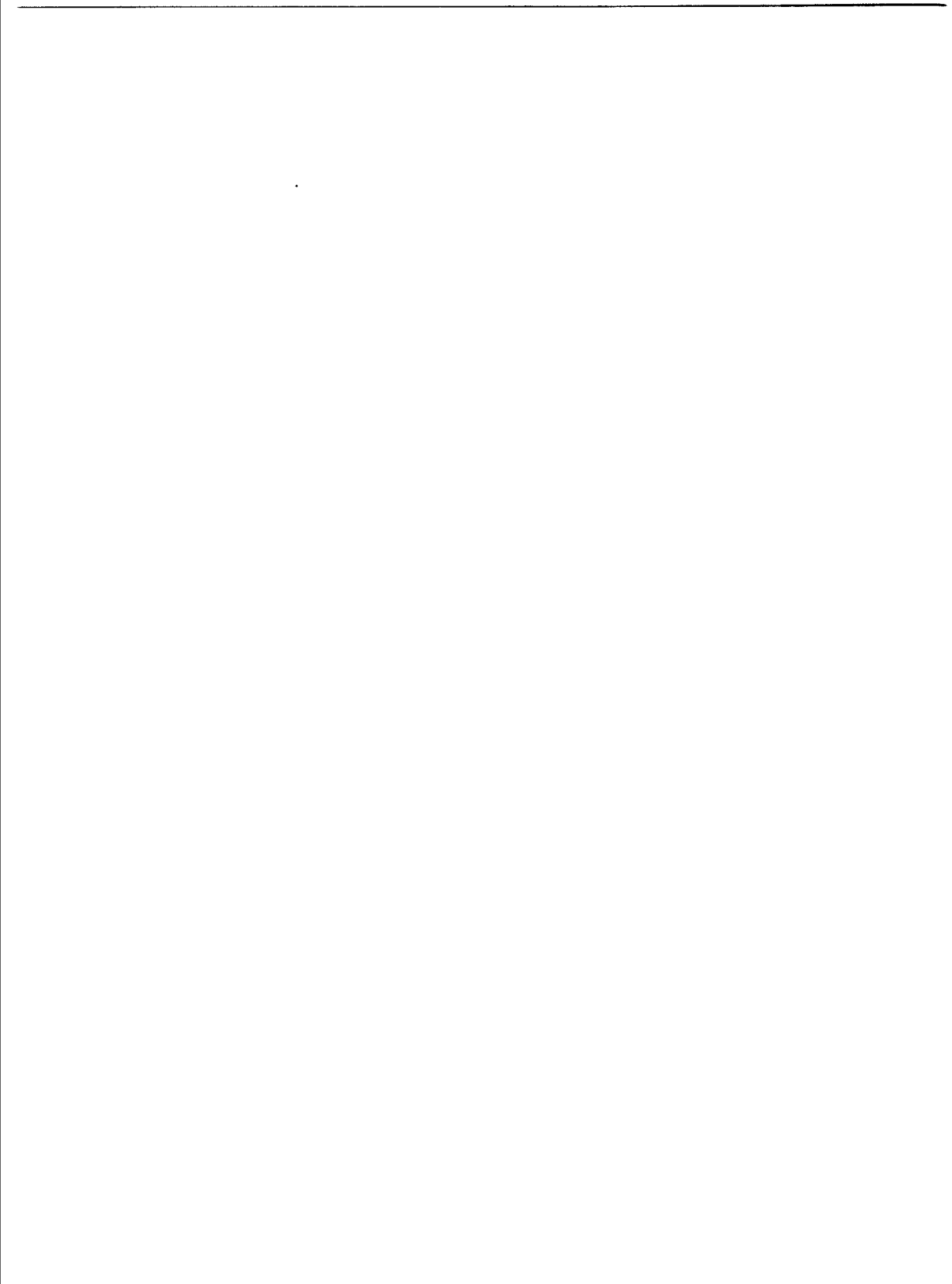
Where the population is predominantly Russian, the Federation is divided up into regions and territories. The difference between a territory and a region is that a territory encompasses a larger area and includes autonomous regions. There are national districts both in territories and regions. Altogether, the R.S.F.S.R. has 49 regions and 6 territories.

Tremendous economic changes have taken place during the years of socialist construction. Back in 1921, Vladimir Lenin wrote that "patriarchalism, semi-savagery and real savagery reign" in the endless spaces of Russia. Yet today new towns and major seats of industry and culture have sprung up in the boundless Russian Federation, in the once remote, undeveloped and economically and culturally backward regions of the North and Siberia. The formerly relatively developed areas of the European part of the Federation have also changed beyond recognition.

The Russian Federation has become the backbone of the economy of the multi-national Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. It accounts for two-thirds of the Soviet Union's industrial output, including half of the cast iron, nearly 60 per cent of the steel and coal, more than three-fourths of the oil, two-thirds of the electric power, 92 per cent of the automobiles and 62 per cent of the tractors produced in the country. It has nearly 60 per cent of all the crop area in the U.S.S.R.

TRANSFORMATION *of* RUSSIA





BRIEFLY ABOUT THE PAST

Let us look back and see what Soviet Russia inherited from the past and what the country's economic level was prior to the Revolution.

Russia took the path of capitalist development much later than the other European countries. The Tatar yoke alone held up the country's progress for 250 years. While in Europe feudalism was a thing of the past long ago, Russia abolished serfdom only in 1861.

Although the abolition of serfdom did help to advance tsarist Russia's economy, she continued to be one of the most backward countries in the system of world capitalist economy.

The very structure of her industry was eloquent testimony to this backwardness. The food and light industries were strikingly predominant. For example, in the total volume of industrial output in 1913, the share of the iron and steel industry amounted to eight per cent, of the fuel industry—seven per cent, while the textile and food industries contributed 55 per cent. That same year, per capita consumption of cast iron was eight times less than in Germany, four times less than in France and 11 times less than in the U.S.A. Russia also lagged behind the leading capitalist countries in per capita consumption of steel, coal and, especially, electric power.

Heavy industry, the engineering industry, in particular, was underdeveloped. This made imports vitally necessary and placed Russia in a position of dependence on foreign capital.

The abnormal distribution of the productive forces was another feature of Russia's capitalist development. About three-quarters of the industry was concentrated in the central regions of the European part of Russia—Moscow, Ivanovo and Petersburg—and in the South. The vast eastern regions had only a little more than 11 per cent of the country's industry. Moreover, the major industrial areas did not have their own raw-material resources and depended almost entirely on supplies from other areas. The centre was a metropolis which received its food-stuffs, fuel and raw materials from the outskirts. From there the finished products were sent to other areas. The tsarist government kept the outskirts in the position of colonies producing raw materials and prevented them from building up their own processing industry.

In the 18th and early 19th centuries, the Urals had the biggest mining and iron and steel industry. But the rapid expansion of these industries in the south of Russia at the close of the 19th century relegated the Urals to second place.

In spite of this industrial development, Russia as a whole remained a typically agrarian country. More than 86 per cent of the population were engaged in farming.

Agriculture with land cultivation as its main feature was at a low level. The technique was of the most primitive kind: the wooden plough, the wooden harrow and the three-field system of soil cultivation. More than half the land was in the hands of the landlords and the kulaks. The millions of petty and middle peasant households had a little under half the land but they produced three times less marketable grain than the landlords. The main agricultural regions were given over to grain. Industrial and fodder crops were sown on very small areas. Animal-breeding was also poorly developed.

Most of the population—the many millions of peasants—lived in constant penury. The landlords, kulaks and middleman-buyers as well as the heavy state taxes ruined the peasants, deprived them of land and forced them to seek employment in towns. From

time to time, famine struck territories inhabited by millions of people.

That was the economic situation in the country on the eve of World War I and the Revolution.

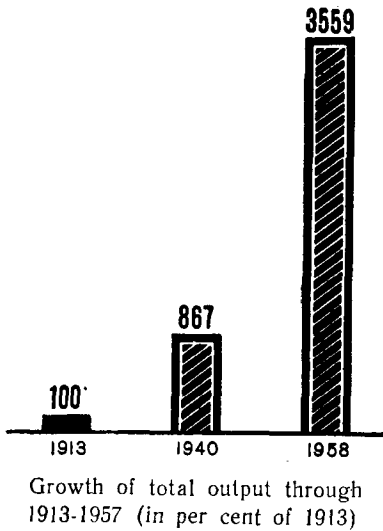
INDUSTRIALIZATION

The Great October Socialist Revolution smashed capitalism, tore the means of production—factories, plants, land, railways, banks—away from the bourgeoisie and made them the property of the whole people.

Immediately after the October Revolution of 1917, the Communist Party outlined a far-reaching plan of transforming Russia. The task was to convert a backward, agrarian country into a great industrial power. That entailed rapid expansion of the large-scale heavy industry and the reorganization of agriculture along new, socialist lines, i.e., its transformation from petty farming and small-scale commodity production to large-scale, mechanized collective farming. This was no easy task in a country that had been ravaged by Civil War and foreign intervention. But the workers and peasants were not daunted by the difficulties. The country's socialist industrialization, the collectivization of agriculture, and a cultural revolution were carried out within a historically short space of time.

Electrification was of immense importance in creating an industrial base. A plan of the electrification of Russia, which played an important role in developing the economy of the Russian Federation and of the Soviet Union as a whole, was drawn up on the initiative of Vladimir Lenin, the founder of the Soviet state. Lenin called this plan the second programme of the Communist Party. He underlined the importance of electrification with the words: "Communism is Soviet power plus the electrification of the whole country."

Industrialization led to a change in the country's economic structure. In the total output of the national economy (in the Soviet Union as a whole), the share of industry grew from 42 per cent in 1913 to 77.4 per cent in 1937. Industry expanded at a speed the



world never knew before. For example, by 1955, total industrial output in the U.S.S.R. was more than 20 times higher than in 1929, while in all the capitalist countries output rose less than two-fold within the same period.

If we take only 11 pre-war years (from 1930 to 1940) and ten post-war years (from 1947 to 1956), we shall find that in 21 years of peaceful development, the annual increase in Soviet industrial output was 17 per cent, while in the U.S.A. it was 2.9 per cent, in Britain 3.3 per cent, and in France 2.7 per cent. Thus, Soviet rates of industrial growth are five-six times faster than in the leading

capitalist countries. The result of this rapid growth was that in 1956 industrial output was 42 times higher than in 1917, the output of the heavy industry increasing more than 50-fold.

The planned system of socialized production was an important factor making for the steady and rapid advance of socialist economy. Planned development of the national economy is an economic law of socialism, and when economic life is of a planned character, there is constant harmony in the development of socialized production, a harmony that is consciously upheld by society. Russia was the first country in the world to give rise to this law and it was the result of the socialization of the means of production when capitalism and its law of competition and anarchy of production ceased to exist.

When the Communist Party embarked upon socialist construction, one of the first tasks it set itself was to do away with the uneven distribution of the productive forces. Industry had to be brought closer to sources of raw materials, fuel and the consumer, and the economic and cultural development of the former backward national

areas had to be accelerated. At the same time, over-all development of the economic regions and a correct division of labour between them had to be organized.

The Russian Federation helped the other Soviet Republics to promote their economy and culture. The old industrial regions with their developed engineering industry became the source of industrialization. Industry—mining, extracting and processing—began to make rapid strides in the formerly backward national regions as well.

In order to bring industry closer to the sources of raw materials, practical steps were taken to move it to the East, particularly to the Urals and Siberia, where thousands of factories and plants were built. The giant Urals-Kuznetsk Works sprang up on the basis of the coking coals of Western Siberia and the iron ore of the Urals. A huge textile centre was set up in Western Siberia (Barnaul, Omsk and Novosibirsk) to process Central-Asian cotton and that sharply reduced the unpractical transportation of cotton over the enormous distance from Central Asia to the central areas of the European part of the country, where textile mills were concentrated. Moreover, that made it easier to reach the consumer. New centres of the non-ferrous metals (Stalinsk), engineering (Novosibirsk, Omsk, Barnaul and other towns) and chemical (Kemerovo) industries were built in Siberia.

The establishment of heavy industry centres in Siberia, the Urals and other eastern regions of Russia was of immense importance for the country's defensive capacity.

One of the cardinal results of industrialization was that the country's economic independence was strengthened and it was freed from dependence on foreign powers. Thanks to the growth of industries such as ferrous metallurgy, the chemical industry and farming machines, and the creation of a number of formerly non-existent industries (tractor, automobile, aircraft), the Soviet Union found itself in a position to stop the import of many items. Machine imports fell drastically.

During the years of Russia's socialist transformation, industrial development was accompanied by a fundamental reorganization of agriculture. One of the gains of the October Revolution was that

private ownership of land was abolished. The land became the property of the people and that gave rise to conditions allowing for collectivization, for the conversion of the petty, scattered peasant economies into large-scale, socialist farms based on collective labour and the utilization of up-to-date machinery. Dwelling on the importance of machinery in the organization of a socialist agriculture, Vladimir Lenin said in 1919: "If, tomorrow, we could supply 100,000 first-class tractors, supply them with fuel, provide them with drivers (you know very well that at present this is sheer fantasy), the middle peasant would say, 'I am for the commune' (i.e., for communism)."

But what seemed fantasy in the years when the country's transformation was first started became reality 15-20 years later. Development of the heavy industry allowed agriculture to be widely mechanized and by 1940 the number of tractors in the Russian Federation (in terms of 15 h.p. units) exceeded 460,000 (throughout the U.S.S.R. there were 683,000 tractors), while the number of grain combines rose to 129,000 (there were 181,000 of these machines in the Soviet Union as a whole). Mechanization made agriculture more productive and increased its output of marketable surpluses. This was furthered by the introduction of advanced agrotechniques, the application of organic and mineral fertilizers, and the implementation of a correct system of crop rotation and irrigation in droughty regions. Greater output of farm produce was also facilitated by the extension of the crop areas. In the R.S.F.S.R., the crop areas increased from 70 million hectares in 1913 to nearly 92 million hectares in 1940. Essential changes took place in the pattern of land cultivation: industrial and fodder crops as well as vegetables began to occupy considerably greater space. Extension of the area under fodder grasses stimulated the growth and productivity of animal-breeding. Progress in agriculture led to the formation of a reliable raw-material base for the food and light industries.

Further development was halted by the Second World War, when tremendous losses were inflicted upon the economy of Soviet Russia.

Rehabilitation was started immediately after the war ended. In the R.S.F.S.R., more than 3,000 big and several thousand small in-

dustrial enterprises were either restored or built anew during the period of the first post-war five-year plan (1946-50). At the close of that five-year plan, total industrial output in the Russian Federation surpassed the pre-war, 1940, level by more than 70 per cent. Extensive restoration was carried out in agriculture as well.

As a result of further economic progress, the Russian Federation overtook the most highly developed countries of Europe and Asia for the volume of output of the major industries. The R.S.F.S.R. is ahead of Britain, France, the Federal Republic of Germany and Japan in the production of coal, steel, electric power and cotton textiles. Of these countries, the Federal Republic of Germany alone is on a level with Russia in the output of pig iron.

At present, the chief economic task of the Soviet Union, and, consequently, of the Russian Federation, is to utilize the advantages of the socialist system of economy and overtake and surpass the leading capitalist countries in the economic field (in per capita output) in the immediate future. The following figures illustrate the achievements that have been scored in this direction. By 1955, Soviet per capita output rose above the 1913 level: coal—eight times, pig iron and oil—5.5 times, steel—7.6 times, cement—ten times, and electric power—61 times.

Today, as a result of far-reaching transformations, the Soviet Union has entered a new and extremely important period of its development, a period marked by the extensive building of a communist society. The decisive stage has been reached in the peaceful competition with the capitalist world, when the historic task of overtaking and surpassing the advanced capitalist countries in per capita output must be carried out in practice.

A seven-year plan of economic development for 1959-65, which is part of the programme of communist construction for the next 15 years, has been drawn up. The cardinal target of this plan is to secure a further steep rise in all branches of economy through priority development of the heavy industry and the strengthening of the country's economic potential, and on that basis to effect a further considerable enhancement of the standard of living.