in Qaba YA BASEBENZI

OCTOBER 1981

SUPPLEMENT NO. 4

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Introduction

"While the democratic petty bourgeois want to bring the revolution to an end as quickly as possible, achieving at most the aims already mentioned (tax reforms, easy credit, constitutional democracy, better wages, etc—Editor), it is our interest and our task to make the revolution permanent until all the more or less propertied classes have been driven from their ruling positions, until the proletariat has conquered state power and until the association of the proletarians has progressed sufficiently far—not only in one country but in all the leading countries of the world—that competition between the proletarians of these countries ceases and at least the decisive forces of production are concentrated in the hands of the workers."

Karl Marx, Address of the Central Committee to the Communist League, March 1850.

The article which follows was written by Leon Trotsky, one of the leaders of the Russian revolution, as an appendix to his biography of Stalin. Written at the end of Trotsky's life, it was first published in 1941, the year after his assassination by agents of Stalin's secret police.

The article outlines three different perspectives on the Russian revolution which were put forward in the years before 1917 by different tendencies within the political party of the Russian workers, the Russian Social Democratic Labour Party.

Every revolutionary movement needs perspectives for its struggle, to identify what it is fighting against, how victory can be achieved, and what will take the place of the old society.

With the forward thrust of the mass movement in South Africa there rages an unprecedented level of debate among the black workers and the youth about perspectives—about the character and the tasks of the South African revolution and the forces that must be mobilised to carry out these tasks.

The overwhelming majority of the people are subjected at one and the same time to the vicious degradation of white racism, and to the miseries of the cheap labour system imposed by capitalism. All these chains on the people must be broken.

Does the destruction of racism

and capitalism require two separate revolutions? Can national liberation be achieved unless the struggle against capitalism is victorious? On the other hand, some ask, can racist oppression and the domination of the capitalist class be destroyed together in the course of a single revolution?

Won't a programme of simultaneous struggle for national liberation and against capitalism lead perhaps to division in our ranks and a weakening of our forces—or is it rather the only basis on which successful unity in action of all the oppressed can be built?

Here important lessons can be learnt from the clash of ideas which took place over the character and tasks of, and the relation of forces in, the Russian revolution—and by the test which these ideas underwent in the heat of the revolution itself.

The three conceptions of the revolution outlined here are those of the Mensheviks; of Lenin and the Bolsheviks between 1905 and early 1917; and of Trotsky himself in this period.

All three conceptions were in agreement on the general character of the revolution that was impending in Russia: it was 'bourgeois' in that Tsarist absolutism and the power of a feudal landowning class needed to be overthrown.

But between the Mensheviks on the one hand, and Lenin and Trotsky on the other, there was a fundamental disagreement: on the relation of the classes in the society, and therefore on the forces that were capable of carrying out the tasks.

Trotsky explains these differences in the article, and sets out the basic idea of the permanent revolution (which from 1904 he had applied to the Russian situation). At the same time he explains certain differences which existed between him and Lenin on this question up until the beginning of 1917.

Their identical analysis of the actual course of the Russian revolution in 1917 brought them together on precisely the same practical standpoint. This course of events confirmed absolutely the position that Trotsky had taken: that to carry the revolution to victory required the working class to take state power.

In February 1917 a revolutionary movement of the workers and peasants forced the abdication of the Tsar (the Russian emperor). Workers everywhere came out on strike and organised themselves in the soviets (councils of delegates elected directly by the workers in their workplaces and districts).

Workers' power

The peasantry began seizing land and national minorities rose up. Soldiers, sent to fight for the Russian state in the imperialist World War, began to mutiny and desert. The formation of soviets spread among the soldiers, sailors and the peasantry.

The conquest of power lay open to the masses. But the Mensheviks and other reformists, initially in the majority in the Soviets, entered a Provisional Government which remained based on the remnants of the old state and compromised with the bourgeoisie. The Provisional Government was unable to meet a single one of the basic demands of

the masses, which were summarised in a simple slogan of the Bolsheviks: "Bread, Peace, and Land".

Lenin, returning from exile in April, recognised that the immediate task for the working class was to prepare for taking power. This was summed up in the Bolshevik slogan: "All power to the Soviets". In the months which followed, growing numbers, seeing the paralysis of the Provisional Government, railied to the Bolsheviks, giving them a majority in the crucial soviets in the main cities of Petrograd and Moscow.

On 25-26 October the revolutionary workers and soldiers overthrew the Provisional Government in an armed insurrection led by the Bolsheviks. Power passed to the soviets of workers', peasants' and soldiers' deputies.

Only on the basis of this revolution in October, by which the working class came to power, could the immediate tasks of the Russian revolution be carried out. The new soviet government immediately published a proclamation on the land question, calling on the local peasants' soviets to seize the land from the big landowners and share it among the peasants. The right of national minorities to self-determination was immediately recognised by the proletarian government.

These were precisely the main tasks of the revolution which had been identified in advance in all three conceptions of the Russian revolution outlined in the article published here. But, as Trotsky had anticipated (and as Lenin was in the forefront of arguing from April 1917), they could be accomplished only when the working class took power in its own right and established its own state. (Moreover, it took a workers' government to make the first moves to end Russia's part in the imperialist World War).

At the same time, taking power, the working class inevitably moved forward to crush capitalist exploitation and begin laying the foundations for socialism. Thus, in the period after 1917, the big factories and banks were soon nationalised and the basis of a planned economy laid. This process, too, Trotsky had anticipated in the theory of permanent revolution.

Thus it is completely false to regard the Russian revolution as having occurred in 'two stages': a 'bourgeois-democratic' stage in February, followed by a 'socialist', stage in October. Yet this is how every classic text of Marxism is footnoted in the editions produced in Moscow since the rise of Stalin.

The point is that the Provisional Government was unable, because it remained on a capitalist basis, to carry out any 'bourgeois-democratic' tasks. The October proletarian revolution at one and the same time carried through the immediate bourgeois-democratic tasks facing Russia and passed on to the socialist tasks.

Internationalism

Equally, however, Lenin and Trotsky had always recognised that the socialist transformation of society could not be completed in one or even a few countries in isolation—let alone in the conditions of economic backwardness which prevailed in Russia. This has always been the ABC of Marxism.

A truly socialist society is possible only in conditions of material abundance together with the democratic rule of the working class. To consolidate their democratic rule and carry through the transition to socialism, the Russian working class depended on the victory of the working class in industrialised Europe.

As Marxism has always stressed, the socialist revolution is a world-wide process against the world-wide power of the capitalist class, bringing the commanding heights of the world economy under the control of the working class.

This lesson, the final aspect of the theory of permanent revolution, was fundamental to the internationalist policy of the Russian workers' state, governed by the Bolsheviks in the first years after the 1917 revolution.

Despite heroic revolutionary struggles by the workers in Western Europe after the First World War, the advance of the socialist revolution was halted and defeated for a whole period. In isolation, the Russian workers' state degenerated. What Trotsky called the "thermidorian reaction" set in—a political counter-revolution which destroyed the democracy of the first workers' state, entrenched a privileged bureaucracy in power, and led to the dictatorship of Stalin.

Resting on (and defending, in its own interest) the framework of nationalised production and planning, this bureaucracy organised the development of the Russian economy. At the same time it monstrously deformed and corrupted the machinery of the workers' state, turning it into a dictatorship against the workers and peasants.

Seeking to build for itself a position of privilege on the basis of the national economy, it inevitably also turned its back on the international struggle of the working class for socialism.

Proclaiming (against all the fundamentals of Marxism) the possibility of building 'socialism in one country', as a cynical device to justify its narrow nationalism and abandonment of internationalism, it denounced the idea of permanent revolution—in reality, the method of Marxism itself—as the capital crime of so-called "Trotskyism".

Disastrously, the degeneration of the Soviet Union has contributed both to the delay in the world socialist revolution and to the eradication of Marxism as a mass force internationally for several generations. Since before the Second World War Marxist ideas have been defended and developed by only a slender cadre within the workers' movement.

Stalinism

The 'Communist' leaderships today who claim the heritage of the party of Lenin have in fact abandoned Marxism for variations of nationalism and reformism. Nowhere in the world do they set before the working class the task of taking power.

Yet, as Trotsky remarks in the article published here, no power on earth has yet been discovered which can halt the class struggle. The theory of permanent revolution is taking its own revenge on the bankrupt conceptions of Stalinism.

Today, throughout Asia, Africa, and Latin America, the correctness of the permanent revolution is revealed starkly.

During the epoch of imperialism (roughly from the end of the nineteenth century) the world-wide development of capitalism has meant the imposition of the most modern forms of capitalist production within societies where the old social systems have not been fully destroyed. No room has existed for the development of strong national capitalist classes in a "Third World" dominated by a world market under the control of the imperialist bourgeoisie.

Colonial revolution

The 'national' capitalist class in these countries where capitalism was late on the scene could develop only as a minor cog in the wheel of imperialism—leaning, for support against the masses, on the pillars of the old society. The all-round development of society has been impossible; the democratic tasks heap up, insoluble on the basis of capitalism.

Progress for the peoples in the colonial world has been possible only on the basis of breaking the stranglehold of capitalism.

The huge revolutions which have engulfed the "Third World" in the period since the Second World War confirm this central idea of the permanent revolution, if in a distorted way.

In countries where the proletariat is a decisive factor, only the proletariat can carry out the tasks of the bourgeois-democratic revolution and then carry through the socialist revolution. Now historically since the Second World War it has been demonstrated that under certain conditions the peasants and the middle class in a caricatured form can carry out in part the bourgeois-democratic revolution and then pass on to the socialist tasks—but only in the form of deformed workers'

states.

In these struggles the decisive role has been played by the peasant masses, led and organised by middle class intellectuals, soldiers, etc. The working class, lacking independent organisation and leadership, has played an insignificant role. The middle-class leaders of these revolutions have invariably set out on the basis of programmes for national and democratic liberation reform—but without consciously linking these to the task of overthrowing capitalism.

But the very rottenness of capitalism, falling apart under the pressures of the masses, has left the leadership no alternative but to replace the capitalist system by nationalised production and planning.

Without workers' democracy—the conscious control and management of society by the working class itself—these new states have come into existence as deformed workers' states under bureaucratic domination from the outset.

. The new basis of production gives the bureaucracy, for a whole period, an ability to develop the economy. At the same time the integration of the world market under the domination of monopoly capitalism places severe limits on what can be achieved within the framework of a single nation-state.

We will explain these processes of the colonial revolution in more detail in future supplements.

In South Africa, in contrast to much of the former colonial world, large-scale industry has developed, and the working class has emerged as the decisive force. Here too, the method of the permanent revolution is indispensable to understand the coming revolution.

Here, the development of capitalism has been possible only on the basis of the most monstrous dictatorship over the majority of the people, and the racial division and fragmentation of society. These conditions are summed up in the system of migrant labour—the basis of cheap labour and capitalist profitability.

National liberation, the reconquest of the land by the people, and the establishment of democracy remain in consequence as tasks to be

carried out.

There are those who still argue that national liberation can be achieved before the revolutionary struggle against the capitalist class is mounted. But the course of events themselves, in which the youth and the politically active workers increasingly recognise the inseparable interconnection between national oppression and capitalism, is causing this 'two-stage' theory to fall into disrepute.

More frequent today is the argument that, if there is such an inseparable connection, then mobilising for national liberation will in and of itself result in the defeat of the capitalist class. Did this not happen, after all, in Mozambique and Angola?

But, in contrast to Mozambique and Angola, the capitalist class in South Africa is strongly entrenched (even if on the defensive) and able to rely on potentially large forces of reaction. To hold back the movement of the workers the capitalist class will use every device, twisting and wriggling in all directions, seeking to crush, disarm, and deceive. The need for a conscious movement of the working class, developing a programme on the basis of Marxism, with a conscious leadership, becomes a decisive factor.

Counter-revolution

There have been numerous instances, inside and outside the "Third World" where a working class with a decisive weight in society has pressed forward, to resolve all the daily burdens thrust upon it, to the point of revolution.

The capitalist class has been brought to its knees—yet the knock-out blow has not been delivered. Invariably this has been the result of the failure on the part of the workers' leadership to put forward a conscious programme for workers' power, relying instead on the existing machinery of the capitalist state.

With society still locked in the grip of the system of profit, none of the fundamental tasks of concern to the masses can be carried out. The

forward movement ebbs; the masses become demoralised and divided; the middle classes desert them.

Granted a reprieve, its state machinery not yet smashed, the capitalist class rises from its knees like a wounded beast, and prepares for revenge.

In just such circumstances revolutionary movements of the workers and peasants have suffered crushing defeats—for example in Spain in the 1930's (leaving 1 million dead); in Indonesia in the 1960's (at least half a million Communists and trade unionists slaughtered); in Chile in 1973 (where 50-100 000 were shot or tortured to death).

History demonstrates that it is the failure to gather the struggles around all the unsolved tasks of society into a programme of strug-

gle for workers' rule which leads to fatal division of the masses.

By linking the national and democratic tasks to the socialist revolution the method of permanent revolution makes it possible for the workers' movement to advance a detailed programme to meet the needs of all oppressed sections of society. The essential element in this programme of unity is an implacable struggle to overthrow the bourgeoisie.

Cadre

The conscious understanding of this lesson is vital for our struggle. Armed with the lessons of the permanent revolution, the politically active workers and youth can build the ANC as a fighting mass organisation, drawing together all the oppressed. The struggle for decent wages and jobs for all, an end to the pass laws and migrant labour system, and the abolition of all forms of racial and national oppression will thus at the same time consciously become the struggle to overthrow the capitalist state and establish workers' democracy.

In this way the world socialist revolution, begun in Russia in 1917, will take a step nearer completion.

Towards this end, mastering the theory of the permanent revolution and learning how to apply it, will be a part of the essential development of every cadre.

Three concepts of the Russian Revolution

By Leon Trotsky

The Revolution of 1905 came to be not only the "general rehearsal" of 1917 but also the laboratory in which all the fundamental groupings of Russian political life were worked out and all the tendencies and shadings inside Russian Marxism were projected. At the core of the arguments and divergences was, needless to say, the question concerning the historical nature of the Russian Revolution and its future course of development. That conflict of concepts and prognoses has no direct bearing on the biography of Stalin, who did not participate in it in his own right. The few propagandist articles he wrote on that subject are utterly devoid of theoretical interest. Scores of Bolsheviks who plied the pen popularized the same thoughts, and did it considerably better. Any critical exposition of Bolshevism's revolutionary concepts naturally belongs in a biography of Lenin. But theories have their own fate. Although during the period of the First Revolution and subsequently, as late as 1923, at the time when the revolutionary doctrines were elaborated and applied, Stalin had no independent position whatever, a sudden change occurred in 1924, which opened an epoch of bureaucratic reaction and radical transvaluation of the past. The film of the revolution was unwound in reverse order. Old doctrines were subjected either to a new evaluation or a new interpretation. Thus, rather unexpectedly at first glance, attention was focussed on the concept of "permanent revolution" as the prime source of all the fallacies of "Trotskyism." For many years to come criticism of that concept formed the main content of all the theoretical—sit venio verbo—writings of Stalin and his collaborators. Since on the theoretical plane every bit of "Stalinism" has issued from the criticism of the theory of permanent revolution as it was formulated in 1905, an exposition of that theory, as distinct from the theories of the Mensheviks and the Bolsheviks, clearly belongs in this book, if only as an appendix.

Russia's development is first of all notable for its backwardness. But historical backwardness does not mean a mere retracing of the course of the advanced countries a hundred or two hundred years late. Rather, it gives rise to an utterly different "combined" social formation, in which the most highly developed achievements of capitalist technique and structure are integrated into the social relations of feudal and prefeudal barbarism, transforming and dominating them, fashioning a unique relationship of classes. The same is true of ideas. Precisely because of its historical tardiness, Russia proved to be the only European country in which Marxism, as a doctrine, and the Social-Democracy, as a party, enjoyed a powerful development even prior to the bourgeois revolution—and

naturally so, because the problem of the relation between the struggle for democracy and the struggle for socialism were subjected to the most profound theoretical examination in Russia.

The idealistic democrats—for the most part, the Populists—superstitiously refused to recognise the advancing revolution as a bourgeois revolution. They called it "democratic," attempting to hide under that neutral political label—not only from others, but from themselves as well—its social content. But Plekhanov, the founder of Russian Marxism, in his fight against Populism, showed as far back as the 'eighties of the past century that Russia had no reason whatsoever to rely on preferential ways of development; that, like the "profane" nations, it would have to go through the purgatory of capitalism; and that on this very path it would wrest political freedom, which was indispensible to the proletariat in its continuing fight for socialism. Plekhanov not only segregated the bourgeois revolution, as the immediate task, from the socialist revolution, which he in turn relegated to the vague future, but he foresaw distinct combinations of forces for each of them. The proletariat would secure political freedom jointly with the liberal bourgeoisie; then, after many decades, on a high level of capitalist development! the proletariat would proceed with the socialist revolution in direct conflict against the bourgeoisie.

"To the Russian intellectual ...," Lenin wrote toward the end of 1904, "it always seems that to recognise our revolution as bourgeois means to make it colourless, to humiliate it, to vulgarise it ... The struggle for political freedom and the democratic republic in bourgeois society is to the proletarian merely one of the necessary stages in the struggle for the social revolution." "The Marxists are thoroughly convinced," he wrote in 1905, "of the bourgeois character of the Russian Revolution, What does that mean? It means that those democratic transformations ... which became indispensible for Russia, not only do not signify in themselves the undermining of capitalism, the undermining of the domination of the bourgeoisie, but, on the contrary, they will be the first to really clear the ground for a widespread and rapid, a European rather than an Asiatic, development of capitalism; they will be the first to make possible the rule of the bourgeoisie as a class...." "We cannot jump out of the bourgeois-democratic framework of the Russian Revolution," he insisted, "but we can considerably broaden that framework"—that is, create within the bourgeois society more favourable conditions for the further struggle of the proletariat. To that extent Lenin followed in the footsteps of Plekhanov. The bourgeois character of the revolution was the meeting of the crossroads for the two factions of the Russian Social-Democracy.

Under these circumstances it was quite natural that in his propaganda Koba (Stalin—Editor) should not have ventured beyond those popular formulae which formed the common heritage of Bolsheviks and Mensheviks. "The Constituent Assembly, elected on the basis of universal, equal, direct and secret suffrage," wrote he in January, 1905, "is what we should now fight for! Only such an assembly will give us a democratic republic, extremely necessary to us in our struggle for socialism." The bourgeois republic as the arena of a prolonged class struggle for the socialist objective—such was the perspective. In 1907, that is, after countless discussions in the foreign and the Petersburg press, and after the

earnest verification of theoretical prognoses by the experience of the First Revolution, Stalin wrote: "That our Revolution is bourgeois, that it must end with the demolition of serfdom and not of the capitalist order, that it can be crowned only by a democratic republic—on that, it seems, everybody in our Party is agreed." Stalin was not speaking of what the Revolution was to begin with, but of what it would end with, limiting it beforehand, and rather categorically, to "only a democratic republic." In vain would we seek in his writings of those days for as much as a hint about the perspective of the socialist revolution in connection with the democratic insurrection. Such was to remain his position as late as the beginning of the February Revolution of 1917, until Lenin's very arrival in Petrograd.

The Menshevik theory of 'two stages'

For Plekhanov, Axelrod, and the leaders of Menshevism generally, the characterisation of the revolution as bourgeois had, above all, the political value of avoiding the premature taunting of the bourgeoisie with the red spectre of socialism and thus "frightening it away" into the camp of reaction. "The social relations of Russia have ripened only for a bourgeois revolution," said Axelrod, the chief tactician of Menshevism, at the Unification Congress. "While this general political lawlessness persists, we must not even so much as mention the direct fight of the proletariat against other classes for political power.... It is fighting for the conditions of bourgeois development. Objective historical conditions doom our proletariat to an inevitable collaboration with the bourgeoisie in the struggle against our common enemy." The content of the Russian Revolution was thus confined beforehand to changes that were compatible with the interests and views of the liberal bourgeoisie.

Struggle for the land

This was the starting point for the fundamental divergence between the two factions. Bolshevism resolutely refused to acknowledge that the Russian bourgeoisie was capable of consummating its own revolution. With immeasurably greater force and consistency than Plekhanov, Lenin advanced the agrarian question as the central problem of the democratic revolution in Russia: "The crux of the Russian Revolution is the agrarian (the land) question. We must make up our minds about the defeat or victory of the revolution ... on the basis of accounting for the condition of the masses in their struggle for land." At one with Plekhanov, Lenin regarded the peasantry as a pettybourgeois class and the peasant land programme as the programme of bourgeois progressivism. "Nationalisation is a bourgeois measure," he insisted at the Unifica-

tion Congress. "It will give impetus to the development of capitalism by intensifying the class struggle, by strengthening the mobilisation of land and the investment of capital in agriculture, by lowering the prices on grain." Notwithstanding the admitted bourgeois character of the agrarian revolution, the Russian bourgeoisie was nevertheless hostile to the expropriation of the land owned by the landed gentry, and precisely for that reason strove for a compromise with the monarchy on the basis of a constitution after the Prussian model. To the Plekhanovite idea of union between the proletariat and the liberal bourgeoisie Lenin counterposed the idea of union between the proletariat and the peasantry. He proclaimed the task of the revolutionary collaboration of these two classes to be the establishment of a "democratic dictatorship," as the only means for radically purging Russia of its feudal refuse, creating a free class of farmers and opening the way for the development of capitalism after the American rather than the Prussian model.

The victory of the revolution, he wrote, can be attained "only through dictatorship, because the realization of the transformations immediately and unconditionally necessary for the proletariat and the peasantry will call forth the desperate resistance of the landlords, of the big bourgeoisie and of Tsarism. Without dictatorship it would be impossible to break that resistance, it would be impossible to defeat counter-revolutionary efforts. That would be, needless to say, not a socialist, but a democratic dictatorship. It would not be able to dispose of (without a whole series of intermediary stages in revolutionary development) the foundations of capitalism. At best, it would be able to introduce a radical re-distribution of land ownership for the benefit of the peasantry, carry out a consistent and complete democratization, including a republic; uproot all the oppressive Asiatic characteristics in the life of the factory as well as the village; lay down the beginnings of important improvements in the condition of the workers; raise their standard of living; and, finally, last but not least, carry the revolutionary conflagration into Europe."

Lenin's conception represented a tremendous step forward, proceeding, as it did, from the agrarian revolution rather than from constitutional reforms as the central task of the revolution, and indicating the only realistic combination of social forces that could fulfill that task. The weak point of Lenin's concept was its inherently contradictory notion, "the democratic dictatorship of the proletariat and the peasantry." Lenin himself emphasised the basic limitations of that "dictatorship" when he openly called it bourgeois. He was thus implying that, for the sake of maintaining unity with the peasantry, the proletariat would be obliged to forego posing the socialist task directly during the impending revolution. But that would have meant the repudiation by the proletariat of its own dictatorship. The dictatorship was consequently, in essence, of the peasantry, although with the workers participating. On certain occasions that was precisely how Lenin spoke; for example, at the Stockholm Congress, when he replied to Plekhanov, who had rebelled against the "utopia" of seizing power: "What program are we talking about? About an agrarian program. Who in that program is supposed to seize the government? The revolutionary peasantry. Is Lenin confounding the government of the proletariat with that of the peasantry?" No, he said with reference to himself: Lenin sharply differentiated between the socialist government of the proletariat and the bourgeois-democratic government of the peasantry. "And how is a victorious peasant revolution possible," he exclaimed again, "without seizure of power by the revolutionary peasantry?" In that polemical formulation Lenin very clearly exposed the vulnerability of his position.

The peasantry

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The peasantry was dispersed over the surface of an immense country, with cities as points of contact. By itself the peasantry was incapable even of formulating its own interests, for in each region they were differently conceived. Economic contact between provinces was established by the market and by the railroads; but both the market and the railroads were in the city's hands. In trying to break through the confines of the village and pool their interests, the peasantry necessarily succumbed to political dependence on the city. Neither was the peasantry homogeneous in its social relations: its kulak stratum naturally strove to entice it to unite with the city bourgeoisie, while the lower strata of the village pulled in the direction of the city workers. Under these circumstances, the peasantry as a whole was utterly incapable of assuming the reins of government.

True, in ancient China revolutions brought the peasantry to power, or rather, the military leaders of peasant insurrections. That led each time to a redivision of the land and the establishment of a new "peasant" dynasty, after which history began all over again: new concentration of lands, a new aristocracy, new usury, new uprisings. So long as the revolution maintained its purely peasant character, society did not emerge from these hopeless rotations. Such was the basis of ancient Asiatic, including ancient Russian, history. In Europe,

beginning with the emergence of the Middle Ages, each victorious peasant uprising did not place a peasant government in power but a Leftist burgher party. More precisely, a peasant uprising proved victorious only to the extent that it managed to establish the position of the city population's revolutionary sector. Seizure of power by a revolutionary peasantry was out of the question in twentieth-century bourgeois Russia.

Liberal bourgeoisie

The attitude toward the liberal bourgeoisie thus became the touchstone in the divergence between revolutionists and opportunists among Social-Democrats. How far the Russian Revolution could venture, what character would be assumed by the future provisional revolutionary government, what tasks would confront it, and in what order it would dispose of them—these questions could be correctly posed in all their importance only in reference to the basic character. of the proletariat's politics, and that character was determined, above all, by its relation to the liberal bourgeoisie. Plekhanov demonstratively and stubbornly shut his eyes to the fundamental object-lesson of nineteenth-century political history: wherever the proletariat appeared as an independent force, the bourgeoisie shifted to the camp of the counterrevolution. The bolder the struggle of the masses, the quicker the reactionary transformation of liberalism. No one has yet invented a way to paralyze the workings of the law of the class struggle.

"We must prize the support of the non-proletarian parties," Plekhanov was wont to repeat during the years of the First Revolution, "and not drive them away from us by tactless behavior." With such monotonous moralizings the sage of Marxism demonstrated that he was unable to grasp the living dynamics of society. "Tactlessness" might drive away an occasional oversensitive intellectual. But classes and parties are drawn or repelled by their social interests. "It may be safely said," Lenin retorted to Plekhanov, "that the liberals among the landed gentry will forgive you millions of 'tactless' acts, but they will never forgive incitements to take away their land." And not only the landed gentry: the upper crust of the bourgeoisie, bound to the landowners by identity of property interests and even more closely by the banking system, as well as the upper crust of the petty-bourgeoisie and of the intellectuals, materially and morally dependent on the large and middling property owners, dreaded the independent movement of the masses. Yet in order to overthrow Tsarism, it was necessary to arouse scores upon scores of millions of the oppressed for a heroic, self-sacrificing, reckless, supreme revolutionary onslaught. The masses could be aroused to this uprising only under the banner of their own interests; hence in the spirit of unreconcilable hostility toward the exploiting classes, and first of all, the landlords. The "frightening away" of the oppositional bourgeoisie from the revolutionary peasants and workers was therefore the immanent law of the revolution itself and could not be forestalled by "tactfulness" or diplomacy.

Each new month confirmed Lenin's estimate of liberalism. Notwithstanding the fondest hopes of the Mensheviks, the Kadets not only made no move to lead the "bourgeois" revolution but, on the contrary, more and more found their historic mission in fighting it. After the crushing defeat of the December Insurrection, the liberals, who, thanks to the ephemeral Duma, stepped out before the political footlights, strove with all their might to explain to the monarchy their insufficiently active counter-revolutionary behaviour in the autumn of 1905, when the holiest pillars of "culture" were in danger. The leader of the liberals, Miliukov, who carried on sub rosa negotiations with the Winter Palace, argued quite properly in the press that by the end of 1905 the Kadets were unable even to appear before the masses. "Those who now blame the (Kadet) party," he wrote, "for not protesting then, by convok-

ing meetings, against the revolutionary illusions of Trotskyism...simply do not understand or do not remember the moods then prevalent among the democratic public that attended these meetings." By the "illusions of Trotskyism" the liberal leader meant the independent policy of the proletariat, which attracted to the Soviets the sympathies of the cities' lower classes, soldiers, peasants and of all the oppressed, thus alienating "cultivated" society. The evolution of the Mensheviks developed along parallel lines. Time and again they had to alibi themselves to the liberals for having found themselves in a bloc with Trotsky after October, 1905. The explanations of that talented publicist of the Mensheviks, Martov, came to this—that it was necessary to make concessions to the "revolutionary illusions" of the masses.

Alliance of workers and peasants

In Tiflis political groupings were formed on the same basis of principles as in Petersburg. "The smashing of reaction," wrote the leader of the Caucasian Mensheviks, Jordania, "the winning and attainment of the constitution—will come from the conscious unification and single-minded direction of all the forces of the proletariat and the bourgeoisie...True, the peasantry will be drawn into this movement and will invest it with the character of a natural force; nevertheless, it is these two classes that will play the decisive role, while the peasant movement will pour water on their mill." Lenin made sport of Jordania's misgivings that an irreconcilable policy toward the bourgeoisie might doom the workers to helplessness. Jordania "discusses the question of a possible isolation of the proletariat in the democratic insurrection and forgets...the peasantry! Of the possible allies of the proletariat, he recognizes and takes delight in the landed gentry of the county councils, but he does not recognize the peasants. And that in the Caucasus!" Lenin's retort, essentially correct, oversimplified the question on one point. Jordania did not "forget" the peasantry, and, as is evident from Lenin's own hint, could not have possibly forgotten it in the Caucasus, where it was then stormily rising under the banner of the Mensheviks. But Jordania saw the peasantry not so much as a political ally as a political battering ram which the bourgeoisie could and should utilize in union with the proletariat. He did not believe that the peasantry could become a leading or even an independent force of the revolution, and in that he was not wrong; but neither did he believe that the proletariat could secure the victory of the peasant uprising in the role of leader—and in that was his fatal error. The Menshevik idea of union between the proletariat and the bourgeoisie actually meant submission of the workers as well as the peasants to the liberals. The reactionary utopianism of that program proceeded from the fact that the far-gone dismemberment of the classes paralyzed i the bourgeoisie from the start as a revolutionary factor. In that fundamental question Bolshevism was right: the quest of union with the liberal bourgeoisie was perforce driving the Social-Democracy into the camp opposed to the revolutionary movement of the workers and peasants. In 1905 the Mensheviks merely lacked the courage to draw all the necessary inferences from their theory of "bourgeois" revolution. In 1917, pursuing their ideas to the bitter end, they broke their neck.

Stalin

On the question of the attitude toward the liberals Stalin sided with Lenin during the years of the First Revolution. It must be said that in that period, when it was a question of the oppositionist bourgeoisie, even a majority of the rank and file Mensheviks found themselves closer to Lenin than to Plekhanov. A disdainful attitude towards liberals was a literary tradition of intellectual radicalism. But it would be utterly useless to look for an independent contribution of Koba's on that question, be it an analysis of social relations in the Caucasus or new arguments, or even so much as a new formulation of old arguments. Jordania, leader of the Caucasian Mensheviks, was incomparably more independent of Plekhanov than Stalin was of Lenin. "In vain do the Messieurs Liberals try," wrote Koba after Bloody Sunday,"to save the tottering throne of the Tsar. In vain do they profer the hand of succour to the Tsar!...The agitated masses of people are getting ready for revolution, not for conciliation with the Tsar...Yes, gentlemen, vain are your efforts! The Russian revolution is unavoidable, as unavoidable as the sunrise! Can you stop the rising sun?—that is the question!" and so forth. Koba could not fly higher than that. Two and a half years later, repeating Lenin's words almost literally, he wrote: "The Russian liberal bourgeoisie is antirevolutionary; it cannot be the propeller, much less the leader, of the revolution; it is the sworn enemy of the revolution; and against it a persistent struggle must be waged." It was on that fundamental issue that Stalin passed through a complete metamorphosis during the ensuing ten years, so that he greeted the February Revolution of 1917 as a supporter of the bloc with the liberal bourgeoisie, and, in consonance with that, as the herald of fusion with the Mensheviks into one party. Only Lenin, upon arrival from abroad, sharply terminated Stalin's independent policy, which he called a mockery of Marxism.

Populists regarded all workers and peasants as simply "toilers" and "exploited ones," who were equally interested in socialism, while to Marxists a peasant was a petty-bourgeois, capable of becoming a socialist only to the extent that he either materially or spiritually ceased being a peasant. With a sentimentality characteristic of them, Populists saw in that sociological characterization a dire insult to the peasantry. Along that line was fought for two generations the principal battle between the revolutionary tendencies of Russia. In order to understand the subsequent conflict between Stalinism and Trotskyism, it is necessary to emphasize that, in consonance with all Marxist tradition, Lenin never regarded the peasant as a socialist ally of the proletariat; on the contrary, it was the overwhelming preponderance of the peasantry which had led Lenin to conclude that a socialist revolution was impossible in Russia. That idea recurs time and again in all his articles that directly or indirectly touch upon the agrarian question.

Twofold task

"We support the peasant movement," wrote Lenin in September, 1905, "in so far as it is revolutionary and democratic. We are preparing (at once, immediately preparing) to fight against it in so far as it asserts itself as a reactionary anti-proletarian movement. The whole essence of Marxism is in that twofold task..." Lenin saw the Western proletariat and to some extent the semi-proletarians of the Russian village as socialist allies, but never the whole of the peasantry. "At first, we support to the very end, with all means, including confiscation," he repeated with persistence typical of him, "the peasant in general against the landed proprietor, but later (and not even later, but at the very same time) we support the proletariat against the peasant in general."

"The peasantry will win in a bourgeois democratic revolution," he wrote in March, 1906, "and thereby will completely exhaust its revolutionism as a peasantry. The proletariat will win in a bourgeois democratic revolution, and thereby will only begin really to unfold its true socialist revolutionism." "The movement of the peasantry," he repeated in May of the same year, "is the movement of another class; it is a struggle not against the foundations of capitalism but for their purging of all the remnants of serfdom." That view may be traced in Lenin from article to article, from year to year,

from volume to volume. Expressions and illustrations vary, but the basic thought is unalterable. Nor could it have been otherwise. Had Lenin seen a socialist ally in the peasantry, he would not have had the slightest basis for insisting upon the bourgeois character of the revolution and limiting it to "the dictatorship of the proletariat and the peasantry," to purely democratic tasks. On the occasions when Lenin accused me of "underestimating" the peasantry, he did not have in mind my failure to recognize the socialist tendencies of the peasantry but rather my failure to realize sufficiently, from Lenin's point of view, the bourgeois-democratic independence of the peasantry, its capacity to create its own power and through it impede the establishment of the socialist dictatorship of the proletariat.

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Reaction

The revaluation of that question commenced only during the years of the thermidorian reaction, the beginning of which coincided by and large with Lenin's illness and death. From then on the union of Russian workers and peasants was declared to be in itself sufficient guaranty against the dangers of restoration and a firm pledge that socialism would be achieved within the borders of the Soviet Union. Having substituted the theory of socialism in a separate country for the theory of international revolution, Stalin began to call the Marxist evaluation of the peasantry "Trotskyism," and moreover not only with reference to the present but retroactively to the entire past.

It is, of course, possible to ask whether the classical Marxist view of the peasantry had not proved erroneous. That theme would lead us far beyond the limits of this appendix. Suffice it to say for the nonce that Marxism never ascribed an absolute and immutable character to its estimation of the peasantry as a nonsocialist class. Marx said long ago that the peasant is capable of judgment as well as prejudgment. The very nature of the peasantry is altered under altered conditions. The regime of the dictatorship of the proletariat discovered very great possibilities for influencing the peasantry and for re-educating it. History has not yet plumbed to the bottom the limits of these possibilities. But it is already clear that the growing role of state compulsion in the U.S.S.R., far from refuting, has basically confirmed the very view of the peasantry that distinguished Russian Marxists from Populists. Yet, whatever the situation on that score today, after twentyodd years of the new regime, the fact remains that prior to the October Revolution, or rather prior to the year 1924, no one in the Marxist camp, and least of all Lenin, had regarded the peasantry as a factor of socialist development. Without the aid of a proletarian revolution in the West, he reiterated time and again, restoration is unavoidable in Russia. He was not mistaken: the Stalinist bureaucracy is nothing else than the first stage of bourgeois restoration.

The theory of permanent revolution

Such were the divergent positions of the two main factions of the Russian Social-Democracy. But alongside them, as early as the dawn of the First Revolution, a third position was formulated, which met with practically no recognition in those days, but which we must explain—not only because it was confirmed by the events of 1917, but particularly because seven years after the Revolution, after being turned upside down, it began to play an utterly unforeseen role in the political evolution of Stalin and of the entire Soviet bureaucracy.

Early in 1905 I published in Geneva a pamphlet which analyzed the political situation as it existed around the winter of 1904. I came to the conclusion that the independent campaign of liberal petitions and banquets had exhausted its possibilities; that the radical intellectuals, who had shifted their hopes to the liberals, had found themselves in a blind alley together with the latter; that the peasant movement was creating conditions favorable for victory yet incapable of assuring it; that the showdown could be brought about only through an armed insurrection of the proletariat; that the very next stage along that way must be the general strike. This pamphlet called, "Until the Ninth of January", had been written prior to the Bloody Sunday in Petersburg. The powerful wave of strikes which began that day, together with the first armed clashes that supplemented it, was an unequivocal confirmation of the pamphlet's strategic prognosis.

The preface to my work was written by Parvus, a Russian émigré, who had already become by then a prominent German writer. Parvus's was an extraordinarily creative personality, capable of becoming infected with the ideas of others as well as enriching others with his ideas. He lacked the inward balance and application necessary to contribute anything worthy of his talents as a thinker and writer to the labor movement. There is no doubt that he exerted considerable influence on my personal development, especially with respect to the socialrevolutionary understanding of our epoch. A few years before our first meeting Parvus passionately defended the idea of a general strike in Germany; but the country was passing through prolonged industrial prosperity, the Social-Democracy was adjusting itself to the Hohenzollern regime, and foreigners' revolutionary propaganda met nothing but ironical indifference. Having read my pamphlet in manuscript, the very next day after the bloody events in Petersburg, Parvus was overwhelmed with the thought of the exceptional role which the proletariat of backward Russia was called upon to play. Several days spent jointly in Munich were filled with conversations that clarified much to both of us and brought us personally close together. The preface Parvus then wrote to the pamphlet entered permanently into the history of the Russian Revolution. In a few pages he shed light on those social peculiarities of backward Russia which, true enough, were already well known, but from which no one before him had drawn all the necessary inferences.

"Political radicalism throughout Western Europe," wrote Parvus, "as everybody knows, depended primarily on the petty bourgeoisie. These were artisans and generally all of that part of the bourgeoisie which was caught up by the industrial development but which at the same time was superseded by the class of capitalists...In Russia of the pre-capitalist period cities developed on the Chinese rather than on the European model. These were administrative centers, purely official and bureaucratic in character, devoid of any political significance, while in the economic sense they were trade bazaars for the landlord and peasant milieu of its environs. Their development was still rather inconsiderable, when it was terminated by the capitalist process, which began to establish large cities in its own image, that is, factory towns and centers of world trade...That which had hindered the development of petty bourgeois democracy came to benefit the class consciousness of the proletariat in Russia—the weak development of the artisan form of production. The proletariat was immediately concentrated in the factories...

Political awareness

"Greater and greater masses of peasants will be drawn into the movement. But all they can do is to aggravate the political anarchy already rampant in the country and thus weaken the government; they cannot become a compact revolutionary army. Hence, as the revolution develops, an ever greater portion of political work will fall to the lot of the proletariat. At the same time its political awareness will be enhanced and its political energy will grow apace...

"The Social-Democracy will be confronted with this dilemma: to assume responsibility for the provisional government or to stand aloof from the labor movement. The workers will regard that government as their own, no matter what the attitude of the Social-Democracy...In Russia only workers can accomplish a revolutionary insurrection. In Russia the revolutionary provisional government will be a government of the workers' democracy. That government will be Social-Democratic, should the Social-Democracy be at the head of the revolutionary movement of the Russian proletariat...

"The Social-Democratic provisional government cannot accomplish a socialist insurrection in Russia, but the very process of liquidating the autocracy and establishing a democratic republic will provide it with fertile ground for political activity."

In the heyday of revolutionary events, in the autumn of 1905, I met Parvus again, this time in Petersburg. Remaining organizationally independent of both factions, we jointly edited Russkoye Slovo, (The Russian Word), a newspaper for the working class masses, and, in coalition with the Mensheviks, the important political newspaper, Nachalo (The Beginning). The theory of permanent revolution was usually associated with the names of "Parvus and Trotsky." That was only partially correct. Parvus attained revolutionary maturity at the end of the preceding century, when he marched at the head of the forces that fought so-called "Revisionism," i.e., the opportunistic distortions of Marx's theory. But his optimism was undermined by the failure of all his efforts to push the German Social-Democracy in the direction of a more resolute policy. Parvus grew increasingly more reserved about the perspectives of a socialist revolution in the West. At the same time he felt that "the Social-Democratic provisional government cannot accomplish a socialist insurrection in Russia." Hence, his prognosis indicated, instead of the transformation of the democratic into the socialist revolution, merely the establishment in Russia of a regime of workers' democracy, more or less as in Australia, where the first labor government, resting on a farmerist foundation, did not venture beyond the limits of the bourgeois regime.

Australian democracy

I did not share that conclusion. Australian democracy, maturing organically on the virgin soil of a new continent, immediately assumed a conservative character and dominated the youthful yet rather privileged proletariat. Russian democracy, on the contrary, could come about only in consequence of a largescale revolutionary insurrection, the dynamics of which would never permit the labor government to maintain itself within the framework of bourgeois democracy. Our differences of opinion, which began soon after the Revolution of 1905, led to a complete break at the beginning of the war, when Parvus, in whom the skeptic had completely killed the revolutionist, proved to be on the side of German imperialism and subsequently became the counselor and inspirer of th First President of the German Republic, Ebert.

Proletariat

After writing my pamphlet, "Until the Ninth of January," I repeatedly returned to the development and the grounding of the theory of permanent revolution. In view of the significance it subsequently acquired in the intellectual evolution of the hero of this biography, it is necessary to present it here in the form of exact quotations from my works of the years 1905 and 1906.

"The nucleus of population in a contemporary city—at least, in a city of economic and political significance—is the sharply differentiated class of hired labor. It is this class, essentially unknown to the Great French Revolution, which is fated to play the decisive role in our revolution...In an economically more backward country the proletariat may come to power sooner than in a country more advanced capitalistically, The conception of a kind of automatic dependence of the proletarian dictatorship on a country's technical forces and means is a prejudice of extremely simplified 'economic' materialism. Such a view has nothing in common with Marxism...Notwithstanding the fact that the productive forces of United States industry are ten times greater than ours, the political role of the Russian proletariat, its influence on the politics of its own country and the possibility that it may soon influence world politics are incomparably greater than the role and ' significance of the American proletariat...

"It seems to me that the Russian Revolution will create such conditions that the power may (in the event of victory, must) pass into the hands of the proletariat before the politicians of bourgeois liberalism will find it possible fully to unfold their genius for statecraft... The Russian bourgeoisie will surrender all the revolutionary positions to the proletariat. It will also have to surrender revolutionary hegemony over the peasantry. The proletariat in power will come to the peasantry as the class liberator... The proletariat, leaning on the peasantry, will bring into motion all the forces for raising the cultural level of the village and for developing political consciousness in the peasantry...

"But will not perhaps the peasantry itself drive the proletariat away and supersede it? That is impossible. All historic experience repudiates that supposition. It shows that the peasantry is utterly incapable of an independent political role...From the aforesaid it is clear how I look upon the idea of the 'dictatorship of the proletariat and the peasantry.' The point is not whether I deem it admissible in principle, whether I 'want' or 'do not want' such a form of political co-operation. I deem it unrealizable—at least, in the direct and immediate sense..."

"Talking Russian"

The foregoing already shows how incorrect is the assertion that the conception here expounded "jumped over the bourgeois revolution," as has been subsequently reiterated without end. "The struggle for the democratic renovation of Russia..." I wrote at the same time, "is in its entirety derived from capitalism, is being conducted by forces formed on the basis of capitalism, and immediately, in the first place, is directed against the feudal and vassal obstacles that stand in the way of developing a capitalist society." But the substance of the question was with what forces and by which methods could these obstacles be overcome. "The framework of all the questions of the revolution may be limited by the assertion that our revolution is bourgeois in its objective goals and consequently, in all its in-

evitable results, and it is possible at the same time to close one's eyes to the fact that the principal active force of that bourgeois revolution is the proletariat, which is pushing itself toward power with all the impact of the revolution...One may comfort himself with the thought that Russia's social conditions have not yet ripened for a socialist economy—and at the same time overlook the thought that, upon coming to power the proletariat would inevitably, with all the logic of its situation, push itself toward the management of the economy at the expense of the state...Coming into the government not as helpless hostages but as the leading force, the representatives of the proletariat will by virtue of that alone smash the demarcation between the minimal and maximal programme i.e., place collectivism on the order of the day. At what point in that tendency the proletariat would be stopped will depend on the inter-relation of forces, but certainly not on the initial intentions of the proletariat's party...

"But we may already ask ourselves: must the dictatorship of the proletariat inevitably smash itself against the framework of the bourgeois revolution or can it, on the basis of the existing historical situation of the world look forward to the perspective of victory, after smashing this limiting framework?....One thing may be said with certainty: without the direct governmental support of the European proletariat, the work-

ing class of Russia will not be able to maintain itself in power and transform its temporary reign into an enduring socialist dictatorship..." But this does not necessarily lead to a pessimistic prognosis: "the political liberation, led by the working class of Russia, will raise the leader to a height unprecedented in history, transmit to him colossal forces and means, and make him the initiator of the world-wide liquidation of capitalism, for which history has created all the objective prerequisites..."

As to the extent to which international Social-Democracy will prove capable of fulfilling its revolutionary task, I wrote in 1906: "The European Socialist parties—and in the first place, the mightiest of them, the German party—have developed their conservatism, which grows stronger in proportion to the size of the masses embraced by socialism and the effectiveness of the organisation and the discipline of these masses. Because of that, the Social-Democracy, as the organization that embodies the political experience of the proletariat, may at a given moment become the immediate obstacle on the path of an open clash between the workers and the bourgeois reaction... Yet I concluded my analysis by expressing the assurance that "the Eastern revolution will infect the Western proletariat with revolutionary idealism and arouse in it the desire to start talking 'Russian' with its enemy..."

The test of history

To sum up. Populism, like Slavophilism, proceeded from illusions that Russia's course of development would be utterly unique, escaping capitalism and the bourgeois republic. Plekhanov's Marxism concentrated on proving the identity in principle of Russia's historical course with that of the West. The program that grew out of that ignored the very real and far from mystical peculiarities of Russia's social structure and revolutionary development. The Menshevik view of the revolution, purged of its episodic stratifications and individual deviations, was tantamount to the following: the victory of the Russian bourgeois revolution was possible only under the leadership of the liberal bourgeoisie and must put the latter in power. Later the democratic regime would let the Russian proletariat, with incomparably greater success than heretofore. catch up with its elder Western brothers on the road of the struggle for Socialism.

Lenin's perspective may be briefly expressed in the following words: the backward Russian bourgeoisie is incapable of completing its own revolution! The complete victory of the revolution, through the intermediacy of the "democratic dictatorship of the proletariat and the peasantry," would purge the land of medievalism, invest the development of Russian capitalism with American tempo, strengthen the proletariat in city and

village and make really possible the struggle for socialism. On the other hand, the victory of the Russian revolution would give tremendous impetus to the socialist revolution in the West, while the latter would not only protect Russia from the dangers of restoration but would also enable the Russian proletariat to come to the conquest of power in a comparatively brief historical period.

Socialist tasks

The perspective of permanent revolution may be summarized in the following way: the complete victory of the democratic revolution in Russia is conceivable only in the form of the dictatorship of the proletariat, leaning on the peasantry. The dictatorship of the proletariat, which would inevitably place on the order of the day not only democratic but socialistic tasks as well, would at the same time give a powerful impetus to the international socialist revolution. Only the victory of the proletariat in the West could protect Russia from bourgeois restoration and assure it the possibility of rounding out the establishment of socialism.

That compact formula discloses with equal distinctness the similarity of the latter two concepts in their irreconcilable differentiation from the liberal Menshevik perspective as well as their extremely essential distinction from each other on the question of the social character and the tasks of the "dictatorship" which must grow out of the revolution. The not infrequent complaint in the writings of the present Moscow theoreticians that the program of the dictatorship of the proletariat was "premature" in 1905, is beside the point. In an empirical sense the program of the democratic dictatorship of the proletariat and the peasantry proved equally "premature." The unfavorable combination of forces at the time of the First Revolution did not so much preclude the dictatorship of the proletariat as the victory of the revolution in general. Yet all the revolutionary groups were based on the hope of complete victory; the supreme revolutionary struggle would have been impossible without such a hope. The differences of opinion dealt with the general perspective of the revolution and the strategy arising from that. The perspective of Menshevism was false to the core: it pointed out the wrong road to the proletariat. The perspective of Bolshevism was not complete: it correctly pointed out the general direction of the struggle, but characterized its stages incorrectly. The insufficiency in the perspective of Bolshevism did not

become apparent in 1905 only because the revolution itself did not undergo further development. But then at the beginning of 1917 Lenin was obliged to alter his perspective, in direct conflict with the old cadres of his party.

Prognosis

No political prognosis can pretend to be mathematically exact; suffice it, if it correctly indicates the general line of development and helps to orient the actual course of events, which inevitably bends the main line right and left. In that sense it is impossible not to see that the concept of permanent revolution has completely passed the test of history. During the initial years of the Soviet regime no one denied that; on the contrary, that fact found acknowledgment in a number of official publications. But when the bureaucratic reaction against October opened up in the calmed and cooled upper crust of Soviet society, it was at once directed against the theory which reflected the first proletarian revolution more completely than anything else while at the same time openly exposing its unfinished, limited, and partial character. Thus, by way of repulsion, originated the theory of socialism in a separate country, the basic dogma of Stalinism.

Further Reading

The most complete account of the Russian revolution, as the working out in practice of the permanent revolution, is Trotsky's History of the Russian Revolution in three volumes (published 1932-3). Almost every page of this work, lengthy though it is, contains rich lessons for the workers' movement. A very brief account of the Russian revolution, drawing out all the main lessons, is given in Trotsky's In Defence of October, a speech delivered by him in Copenhagen in November 1932.

Trotsky's first full development of the idea of the permanent revolution was published as Results and Prospects(1906). Other accounts of the theory may be found in annexes 1 and 2 to Trotsky, 1905 (published in 1922); appendix III to History of the Russian Revolution, Volume 3; and The Permanent Revolution (1931), which includes an application of the theory to struggles in the colonial world.

The most readily accessible version of Lenin's perspective on the

Russian revolution, developed in the course of the 1905 revolution, is Lenin, Two Tactics of Social Democracy in the Democratic Revolution (1905). His recognition in early 1917 of the need for the working class to prepare to take power is expressed first in his Letters on Tactics and the April Theses.

A reliable contemporary account of perspectives on, and the course of, the Russian revolution is contained in A. Woods and E. Grant, Lenin and Trotsky: What they really stood for (Militant, London, 1976).

Explanatory Notes

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1905 ('First') Revolution—The forerunner and 'dress rehearsal' for the Revolution of 1917, the 1905 Revolution clearly established the working class as the leading force in the struggle and gave rise to the first Soviets (councils of workers' delegates) before it was eventually crushed.

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Bolsheviks—Revolutionary wing of the Russian Social-Democratic Labour Party which, under the leadership of Lenin, led the working class to the taking of power in October 1917. Trotsky and his supporters joined the Bolshevik Party at its conference of July 1917, past political differences between them having been resolved through the experience of the revolution. He was elected to the Bolshevik central committee and, with Lenin, led the struggle for power.

"Trotskylsm"—The term is here used, not to describe the contributions made by Trotsky to Marxist theory and practice, but as a label invented by Stalin and his chief associates of that period, Zinoviev and Kamenev, in their factional struggle against the programme and ideas of Bolshevism and Marxism that opened up in the Russian CP during 1923-4. Emerging as the leader of the bureaucracy that was gradually usurping state power, Stalin put forward after 🦯 Lenin's death the 'theory' that socialism could be built within the borders of Russia alone—i.e., without the spread of the revolution to the advanced capitalist countries. This reflected the desire of the bureaucracy to consolidate its own position nationally and reach an accommodation with the capitalist powers. The revolutionary standpoint and ideas of Marxism, defended by Trotsky and the Left Opposition in the CP, were henceforth attacked as "Trotskyism". An entire propaganda industry was created by the Stalinist bureaucracy to falsify the heritage of Marxist-Leninist ideas.

Mensheviks ('minority')—the reformist wing of the RSDLP got their name from

the split with the Bolsheviks ('majority') over organisational questions at the 1903 Party Congress. The fundamental political differences between Menshevism and Bolshevism became clear during 1904 and were confirmed in the 1905 Revolution, but they remained opposing tendencies in the RSDLP until 1912, when separate parties were formed. In 1917, with their mistaken 'twostage' theory of the Revolution, Menshevik ministers helped prop up the capitalist Provisional Government, supported its imperialist policy and fought against the proletarian revolution. After October, they became an openly counter-revolutionary party.

Social-Democracy—The term originally used in the late 19th Century to distinguish the workers' parties based on Marxism from the parties of capitalist 'democracy'. With the growth of a conservative bureaucratic leadership over the long period of relative stability and economic growth in Western Europe and North America during the last part of the century, however, these parties underwent a profound degeneration. On the outbreak of World War I the vast majority of their leaders took up a nationalist position in support of their 'own' capitalist classes, thus demonstrating their abandonment of Marxism. Subsequently the term has been used to refer to the tendency of conservative national-reformism which, during the 30 years of boom-following World: War II, has dominated the workers' movement in the major capitalist countries.

Populists (Narodniks)—A liberaldemocratic movement that arose among radical Russian intellectuals in the mid-19th Century. They regarded the peasantry as the revolutionary class in Russian society and believed that Russia could advance to a form of socialism, based on peasant collectives, without undergoing a capitalist development. This perspective proved to be completely false. In the resulting disintegration of the movement different tendencies emerged, some turning to individual terrorism in the hope of provoking a popular uprising while

the group around Plekhanov, breaking with the ideas of populism, established the first foundations of Russian Marxism from the 1880s onwards. After 1900, various populist groups combined to form the Socialist-Revolutionary Party which based itself on the peasantry. After the February Revolution of 1917 they became, with the Mensheviks, the mainstay of the capitalist Provisional Government. By the time of the October Revolution, the right wing of the SRs sided openly with counter-revolution. The left wing, having split, formed a short-lived coalition with the Bolshevik government.

Bourgeois revolution—Originally the term referred to the revolutionary overthrow of the feudal ruling class during the period of the rise of capitalism. The classical bourgeois revolutions, of which the French Revolution of 1789 is the foremost example, served to carry the bourgeoisie (capitalist class) to power on the tide of a mass movement under the banner of democracy. Trotsky explains why, especially in the later 'bourgeois revolutions', the bourgeoisie tended to pass over to the camp of reaction, proving incapable of carrying out the 'bourgeois-democratic' tasks. In the introduction to this supplement, the antidemocratic and counter-revolutionary role of the bourgeoisie is further explained in relation to the revolutions in the colonial world, and to Southern Africa today. This understanding lies at the root of the theory of permanent revolution.

Plekhanov (1856-1918)—First propagandist of Marxism in Russia; founder of the first Russian Marxist group, the Emacipation of Labour Group, in Geneva. He fought the ideas of populism (including terrorism) and revisionism in the labour movement, and wrote a number of works popularising the historical-materialist outlook. With Lenin, he was an editor of the revolutionary Iskra newspaper. However, he tended towards the 'two-stage' concept of the Mensheviks, whom he later joined. During the First World War he abandoned Marxism for social-

thauvinism (supporting the national ruling class on a reformist basis), and in 1917 was opposed to the October Revolution.

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Petersburg (Petrograd)—Capital of Tsarist Russia, today called Leningrad.

Unification (Stockholm) Congress—Conference of the RSDLP held in Stockholm, Sweden, in April 1906, bringing together the Bolshevik and Menshevik tendencies as well as the social-democratic organisations of the Polish, Lithuanian, Latvian and Jewish workers within the Russian empire. At the same time the conference made clearer the political cleavage between the left and right wings of the party, which led to the final split between the Bolsheviks and Mensheviks in 1912.

"Nationalisation is a bourgeois measure"-Lenin was referring to nationalisation as a means of expropriating the feudal landlords, thus laying the basis for redistribution of the land and the development of a class of independent farmers. In fact, it required the overthrow of the bourgeoisie by the working class in October 1917 to carry out this measure. The Bolshevik government's decree on the land (one of its first acts) expropriated the big landowners and turned over the land to the peasants' councils, thereby providing the workers' state with a powerful basis among the peasantry.

Prussian model—Capitalism had developed later in Germany than in the Western part of the continent. Thus, as Marx explained, the German bourgeoisie "saw itself threateningly confronted by the proletariat, and all those sections of the urban population related to the proletariat in interests and ideas, at the very moment of its own threatening confrontation with feudalism and absolutism." The bourgeoisie sought compromise with the landlords and the monarchy, to avert a revolution from below. The landowning Junkers, their interests intertwined with capitalism, from their own side sought a deal with the bourgeoisie. The result was the Prussian constitutional model enshrining this compromise. Its essence was the denial of democratic rights to the masses.

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Kulak—'Fist'; popular expression in Russia for a wealthy peasant.

Burghers—The early bourgeoisie, or urban middle class, that developed during the epoch of feudalism.

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Kadets—The Constitutional-Democratic Party of the liberal-monarchist bourgeoisie in Russia. Failing to save the monarchy in February 1917, they took advantage of their key position in the Provisional Government to pursue their counter-revolutionary and imperialist policies. After the October Revolution, they actively supported the invasion of Russia by the armies of the imperialist powers.

December insurrection—The armed uprising of the Moscow workers from 22 to 30 December 1905, the last major offensive of the working class in the Revolution of that year. It was suppressed by the army and was followed by a period of increasing reaction lasting several years.

Winter Palace—The Tsar's official residence in Petersburg.

Bloody Sunday—9 January 1905, when a peaceful demonstration of workers led by a priest, Gapon, tried to present a petition to Tsar Nicholas II and was met with volleys of gunfire. This massacre sparked off the Revolution of 1905.

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Hohenzollern—Name of the German royal family which presided over the capitalist development of Germany until it was overthrown by the workers' Revolution of 1918-19.

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Slavophilism—A primitive form of Russian chauvinism, glorifying the Russian people and its church against all foreign influences, including Tsarism which was regarded as a German imposition.

This is a supplement to INQABA YA BASEBENZI, quarterly journal of the Marxist Workers' Tendency of the African National Congress. Postal subscriptions for readers outside South Africa can be ordered from:

BM Box 1719
London WC1N 3XX