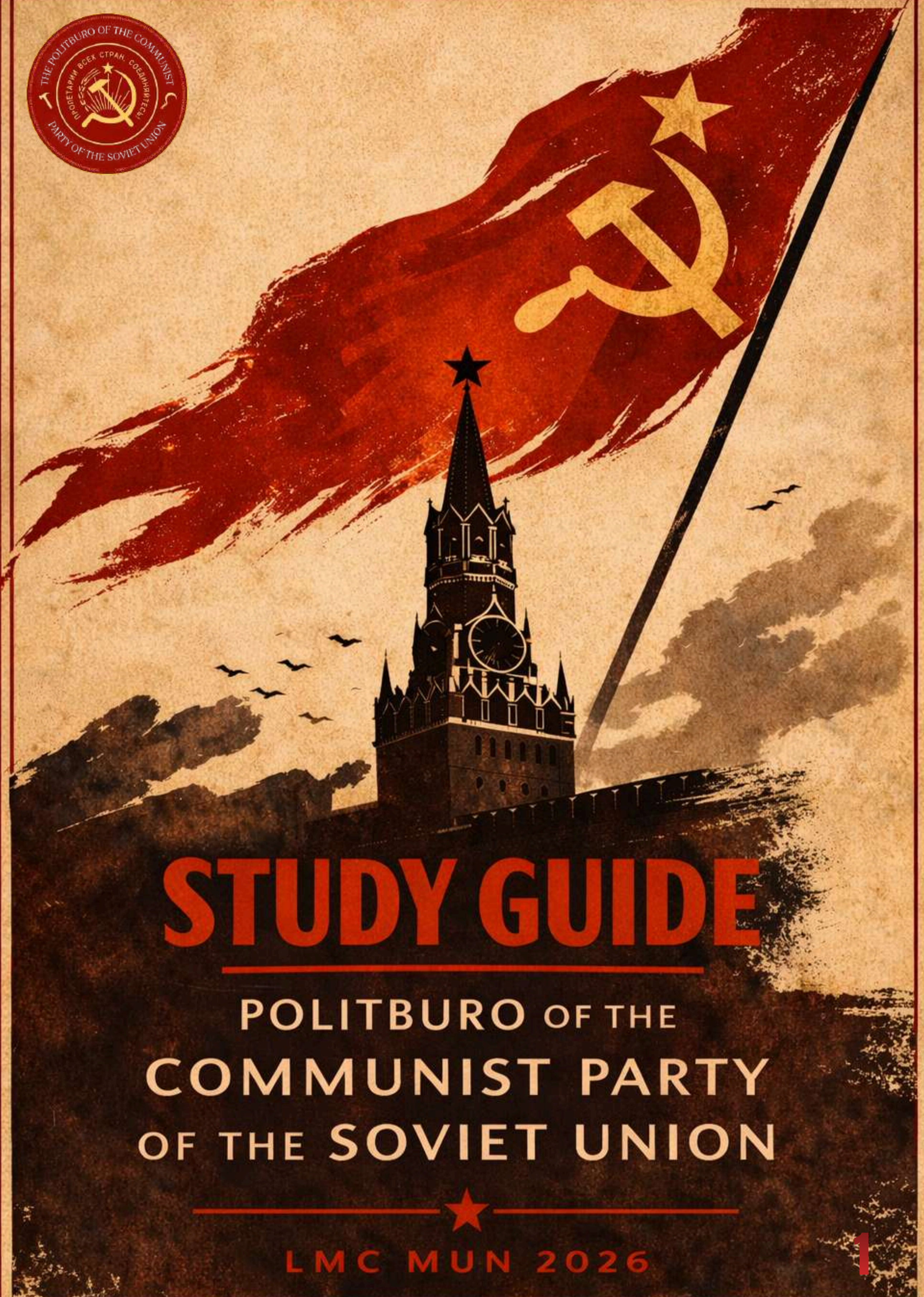


★ ★ ПРОЛЕТАРИИ ВСЕХ СТРАН, СОЕДИНЯЙТЕСЬ! ★ ★



STUDY GUIDE

POLITBURO OF THE
COMMUNIST PARTY
OF THE SOVIET UNION

LMC MUN 2026

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★ ★ ПРОЛЕТАРИИ ВСЕХ СТРАН, СОЕДИНЯЙТЕСЬ! ★ ★



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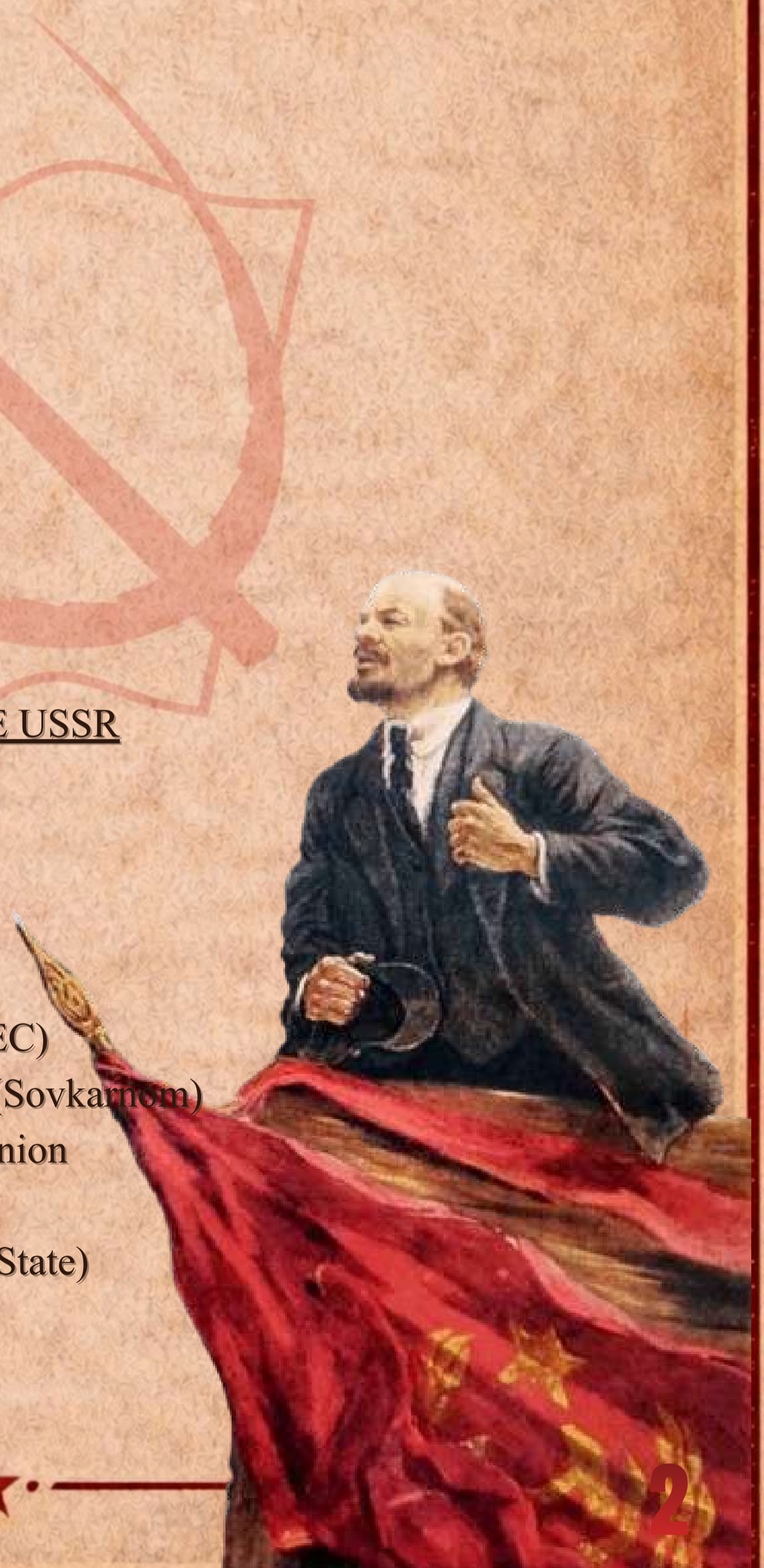
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EXECUTIVE BOARD'S ADDRESS

“The last capitalist we hang shall be the one who sold us the rope.”

-Vladimir Lenin

Comrades, it is 1924.

The news of a dead Vladimir Lenin spread like wildfire across the Motherland. The architect of October, the voice that bent history to the will of the proletariat, has fallen silent. The one man who taught the workers to hear the drums of liberation is gone, and with him the one force capable of holding the Bolsheviks together. The Soviet state now stands weakened, its foundations strained by famine, exhaustion, and more importantly, uncertainty. Fields lie barren, factories restless, and power once firmly grasped by a single man, now waiting to be seized. The Union, victorious yet fragile now stands on the brink of another revolution.

A fire burns in Petrograd, but the question is: who will extinguish it? Many will enter the Politburo believing history rewards patience. It does not. History remembers those who act. Veni. Vidi. Vici. I came. I saw. I conquered. The only question is; who among you will earn the right to say it? Comrades, history does not move gently for it advances with the weight of iron and the will of those who dare to shape it. Across the vast expanse of the Motherland, storms gather above factories, fields and frozen frontiers. The Politburo now stands at the very heart of a nation forged not by privilege, but by struggle: steel and sweat and sacrifice having cemented a state that refuses to bend before emperors, exploiters, or the decaying order of the old world. Here, diplomacy isn't a luxury but a battlefield. Dog eat dog. Comrade kill Comrade. Each battling gruesomely for their own survival. Leadership here means treading a fine line between loyalty and survival, conviction and calculation, with the sharpness of a sickle and the strength of a hammer. Yet the question remains, who will extinguish that fire and perhaps more importantly, who will dare let it burn?

Welcome, where communism breeds.

Welcome to the Land of Fire.

Welcome, to the Politburo of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union.

The Executive Board,
Politburo of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union,
LMCMUN 2026.





LETTER FROM THE DESK OF LEV KAMENEV



Уважаемым членам Политбюро,

Товарищи,

Нынешний момент является одним из самых важных в истории нашей революции. Смерть Владимира Ленина поставила советское государство на перепутье. Долгие годы его руководство вело большевистскую партию и молодую Советскую Республику через революцию, гражданскую войну и огромные испытания построения социалистического государства на руинах старого порядка. Теперь ответственность за сохранение и продвижение этой революции лежит на коллективной мудрости и дисциплине высшего руководства партии. Политбюро было создано как центральный орган принятия политических решений в Коммунистической партии. В эти беспокойные времена именно этот орган должен обеспечить сохранение партийного единства, стабильность советского государства и дальнейшее продвижение пролетарского дела. Каждый член этого комитета несет на своих плечах бремя истории. Решения, принимаемые в этих палатах, определяют не только непосредственное руководство Союза, но и долгосрочное направление социалистического проекта. Задачи, стоящие перед нами, не являются ни простыми, ни ограничивающимися вопросами преемственности. Партия должна противостоять вызовам в управлении, экономическом восстановлении и идеологическом направлении. Новая экономическая политика продолжает формировать советскую экономику; необходимо уточнить баланс между властью партии и государственным управлением; и вопрос о том, как лучше всего защитить и укрепить революцию — как внутри страны, так и на международной арене — остается всегда актуальным. Поэтому крайне важно, чтобы обсуждения в этом комитете проводились дисциплинированно, серьезно и непоколебимо приверженно идеалам революции. Дискуссии должны быть энергичными, но всегда вестись в духе товарищеской ответственности перед партией и пролетариатом. Личные амбиции должны оставаться второстепенными по отношению к коллективным интересам социалистического государства. Будущее Советского Союза не будет определяться случайностью. Оно будет определяться решимостью, рассудительностью и единством тех, кому доверено руководство в этот решающий час. Пусть этот комитет послужит форумом не только для выражения несогласия, но и для построения стабильного и прочного пути развития революции.

Лев Каменев

Председатель Московского Совета

Член Политбюро



(ENGLISH TRANSLATION)

To the Respected Politburo Members,
Comrades,

Vladimir Lenin's death signals a turning point for the Communist Party and the Soviet Union. Lenin was the main leader of the Bolshevik movement for years, but he was also the central person who kept the Party together during the revolution, civil war, and the early years of socialist rule. His death removes that one source of power. The responsibility of leadership now lies collectively with the individuals given the duty of directing the Party and the government.

For a long time, the Politburo has been the main place where the most important political and administrative decisions of the Soviet system are made. The people within this group have authority over the Party apparatus, the military, the state security agencies, and the means of economic administration. The discussions of the Politburo will decide not only the current leadership of the Party but also the more general direction and stability of the Soviet Union in a system whereby the Party controls the course of the state.

The Soviet state's current situation is rather complex. The country is still rebuilding from the catastrophe of the civil conflict. The New Economic Policy has brought uncertainty as well as opportunity into the national economy. The Party has to stay united inside while dealing with different ideas about how to run things, what kind of economic policies to have, and what the future of socialism should look like. The Soviet state still finds itself surrounded by powers hostile and dubious of the revolutionary regime from the outside.

Therefore, it is imperative that the deliberations and choices made by this body be rooted in discipline, political clarity, and a dedication to the group welfare of the Party. The questions before us are not only personal or technical; they have to do with how stable the Soviet Union is going to be in the long run and how to make sure the revolutionary gains made since 1917 are kept. These problems need to be discussed most prominently now in the Politburo. Every member of this group has the power and the duty to help decide how the next phase of the Soviet experiment will look. The legacy of the revolution calls for extreme caution, tactical foresight, and relentless adherence to the values upon which the Party was formed.

For the unity of the Party and the continued strength of the Soviet state.



Lev Kamenev,
Chairman of the Moscow Soviet,
Chairperson of the Politburo.



INTRODUCTION TO THE COMMITTEE



The Politburo of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union was the most powerful authority in the Soviet political system in practice and the highest decision-making body within the Bolshevik Party. Established in 1919 amid the Russian Civil War, the Politburo was intended as a tiny executive body able to swiftly and forcefully make political judgments on behalf of the Communist Party and the larger Soviet state.

The Communist Party dominated state bodies in the early Soviet system of government. While official government organizations like the Council of People's Commissars (Sovnarkom) handled administrative and executive chores, the Party leaders set the strategic course of policy. The Politburo was in charge of determining political, military, and financial strategy within the Party system. Its choices impacted the running of important organizations including the Red Army, Central Committee, and internal security apparatuses.

This committee is formed soon after Vladimir Lenin died on 21 January 1924. Since the October 1917 Revolution, Lenin had been the main character in the Bolshevik leadership. Guiding the Party through the Civil War and the early establishment of the Soviet state depended greatly on his power and ideological impact. His death opened a leadership vacuum in the Party and the government, which raised questions about succession, political power, and the direction of Soviet governance in the future. The Politburo then consisted of a number of powerful people who had sway over several facets of the Soviet apparatus. Within the Party machinery, the military command, and the ideological leadership of the Bolshevik movement, leaders like Joseph Stalin, Leon Trotsky, Grigory Zinoviev, Nikolai Bukharin, Lev Kamenev, etc, reflected several sources of power.

Delegates in this committee will represent members of the Politburo and will be responsible for engaging with questions of governance, political authority, and strategic direction. Decisions taken within this body will shape the structure of leadership within the Communist Party and influence the future development of the Soviet state in the years following Lenin's death.





AGENDA OVERVIEW

Following Vladimir Lenin's death on 21 January 1924, the committee's agenda centers on the political and institutional ramifications. Since the Bolsheviks' takeover of power, Lenin had been the main power inside the Communist Party and the Soviet state. Maintaining party cohesiveness and directing the early growth of the Soviet political system depended in great measure on his leadership. His death raises a quick concern of succession and governance for the Soviet administration. The Politburo has to decide going forward how power inside the Communist Party will be organized and how leadership roles will be shared across its members. This covers choices on the equilibrium of authority among Party institutions, state organs like the Council of People's Commissars, and vital military or administrative entities.

Apart from the problem of leadership replacement, the Soviet government still has a number of domestic and foreign difficulties to deal with. These include keeping the Party politically stable, overseeing the New Economic Policy's economic transformation, making sure the Red Army and internal security apparatus are under control, and reacting to possible dangers from both local opposition and foreign powers. Therefore, the committee will discuss two main points on the agenda: the succession and leadership structure of the Communist Party as well as the wider political and security challenges the Soviet state faced right after Lenin died. Politburo decisions will have a direct impact on the structure of the Party leadership and the stability of the Soviet political system going forward.





SIGNIFICANCE OF FREEZE DATE



The committee's freeze date is 22 January 1924, the day right after Vladimir Lenin died. This is a turning point for the Soviet Union. Since the October Revolution of 1917, Lenin had been the main leader of the Bolshevik Party and the center of attention in the Soviet political system. His power was a unifying force in the Party, and he often helped resolve conflicts between top members.

The Soviet government entered an era of doubt after Lenin died. There was no official way to find a clear successor, and power in the Communist Party was spread among a number of senior people who had power over different parts of the Party apparatus and the state institutions. Lenin's lack of power set up political rivalry among the top leaders.



LENIN'S DEAD BODY

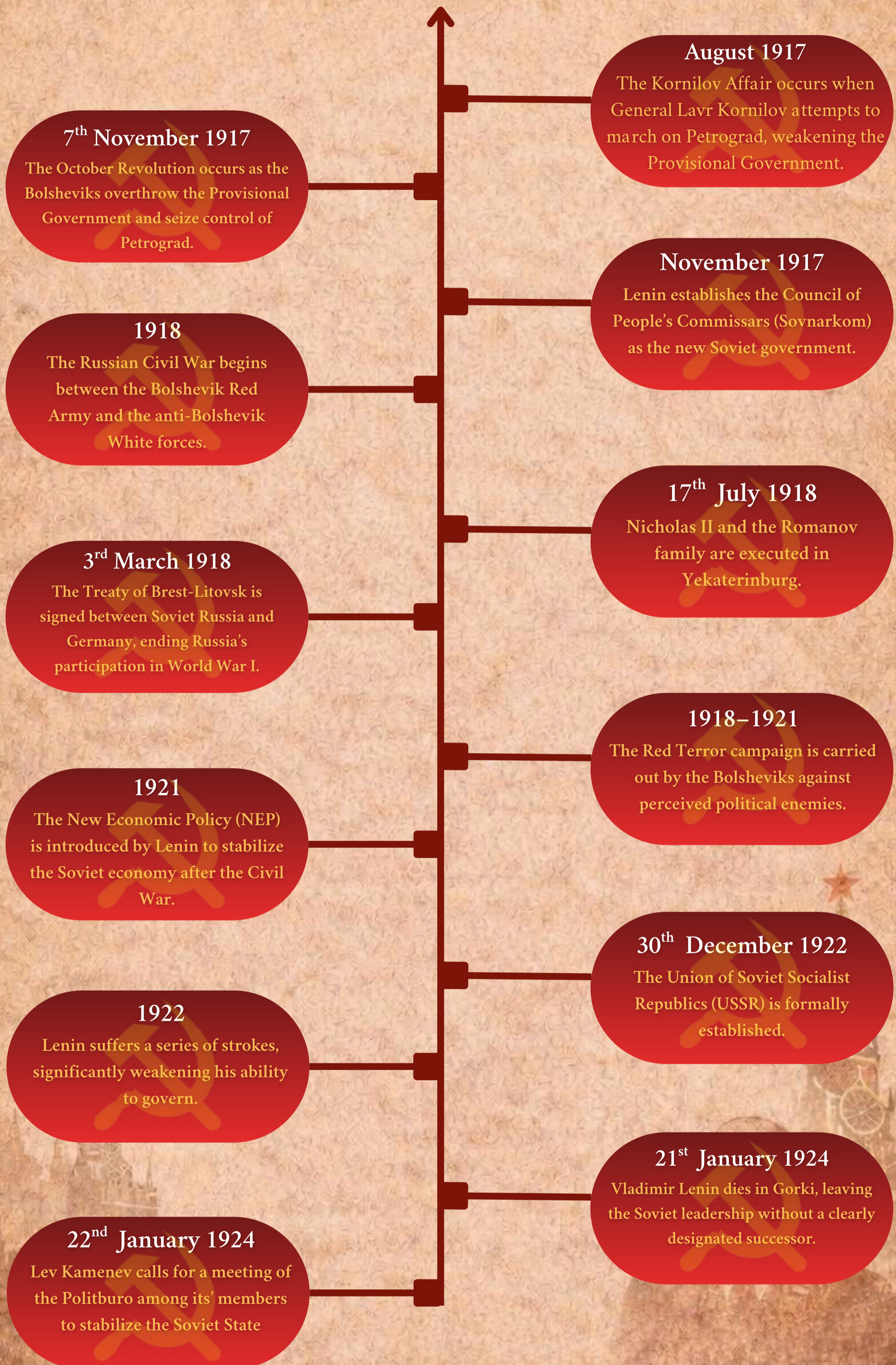




TIMELINE OF EVENTS







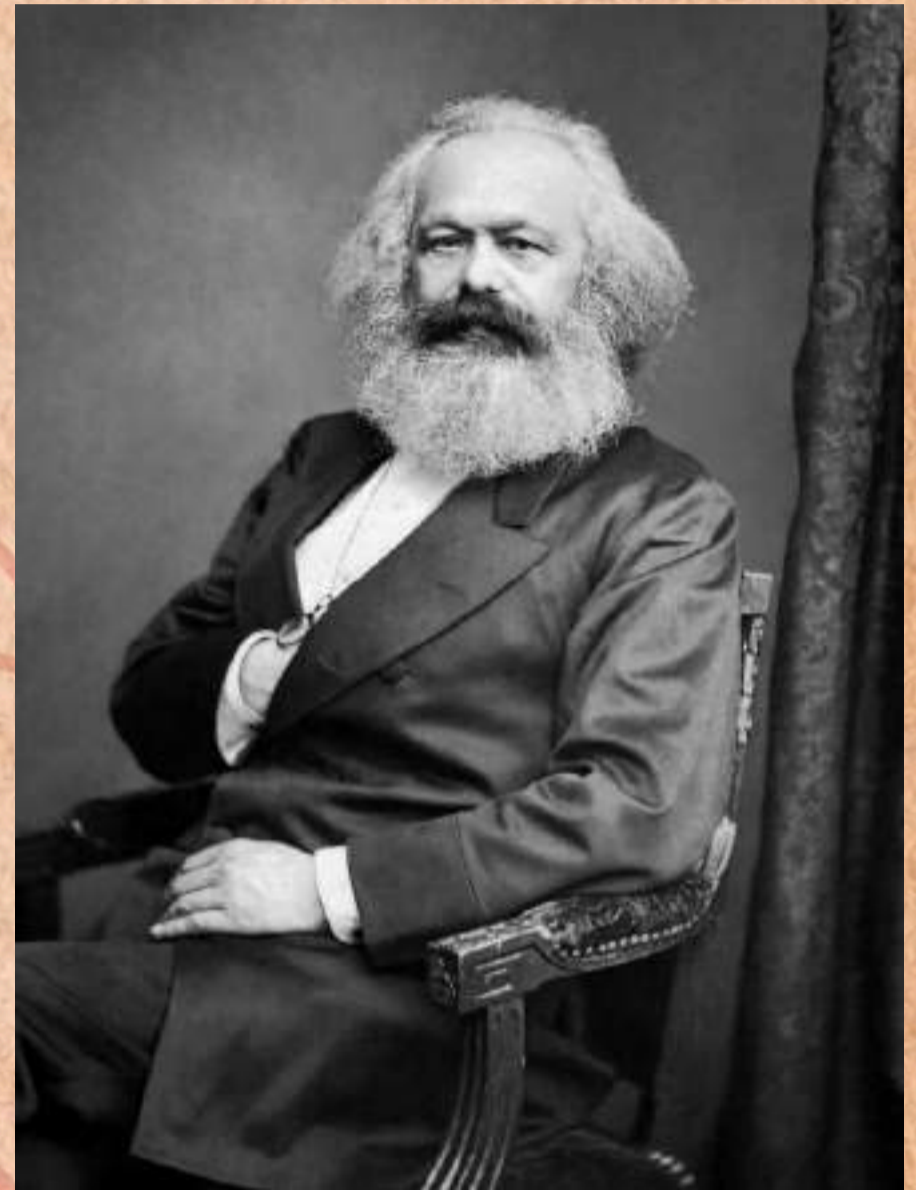


PHILOSOPHICAL FOUNDATIONS

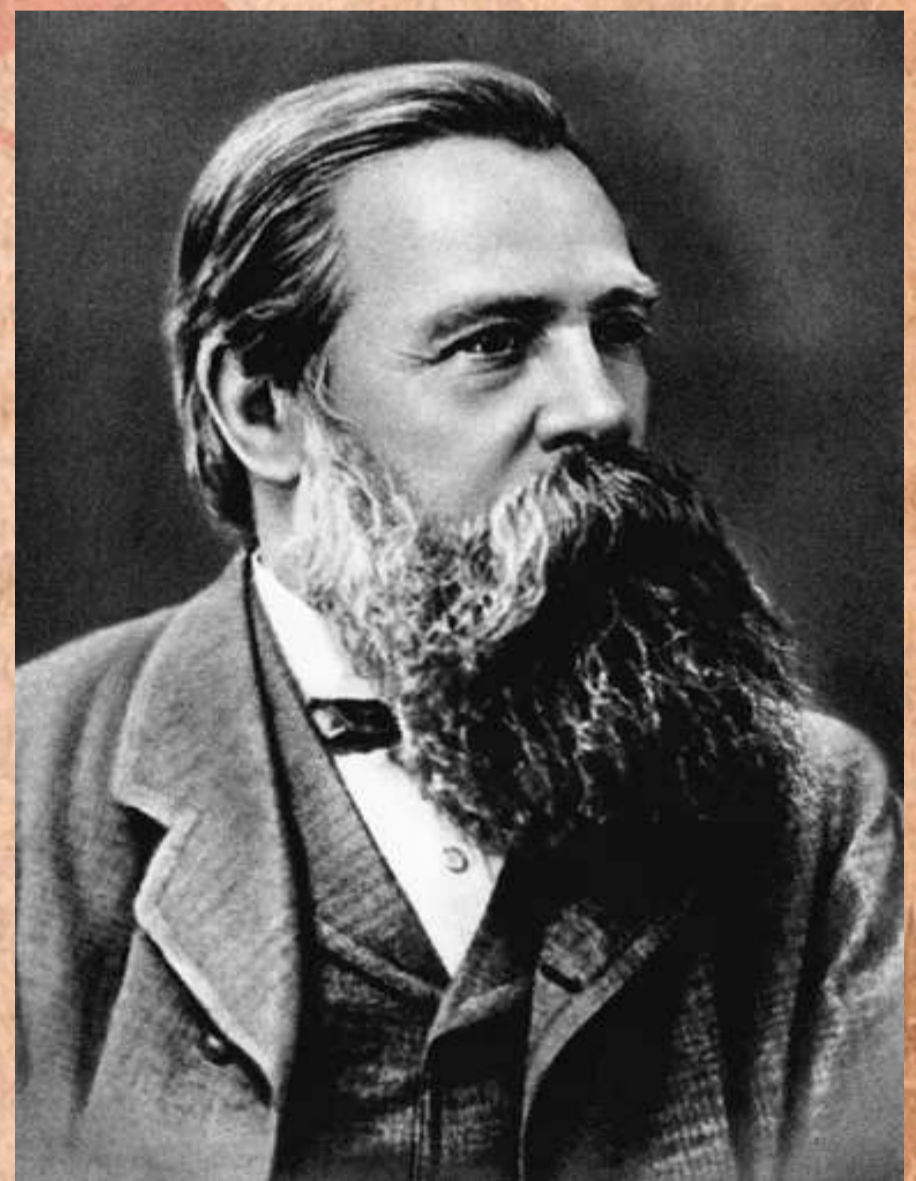


MARXISM

Marxism is a political philosophy and method of socioeconomic analysis that uses a dialectical materialist interpretation of historical development, known as historical materialism, to understand class relations and social conflict. Originating in the works of 19th-century German philosophers Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels, the Marxist approach views class struggle as the central driving force of historical change. Marxist analysis views a society's economic mode of production as the foundation of its social, political, and intellectual life, a concept known as the base and superstructure model. In its critique of capitalism, Marxism posits that the ruling class (the bourgeoisie), who own the means of production, systematically exploit the working class (the proletariat), who must sell their labour power to survive. This relationship, according to Marx, leads to alienation, periodic economic crises, and escalating class conflict. Marx theorised that these internal contradictions would fuel a proletarian revolution, leading to the overthrow of capitalism and the establishment of a socialist mode of production. For Marxists, this transition represents a necessary step towards a classless, stateless communist society.



KARL MARX



FRIEDRICH ENGELS



COMMUNISM

Communism is a political and economic ideology. The goal of Communism is the creation of a communist society, a socioeconomic order on common ownership of the means of production, distribution and exchange that allocates products in society based on need. A communist society requires the absence of private property and social classes and the eventual abolition of Money and State.

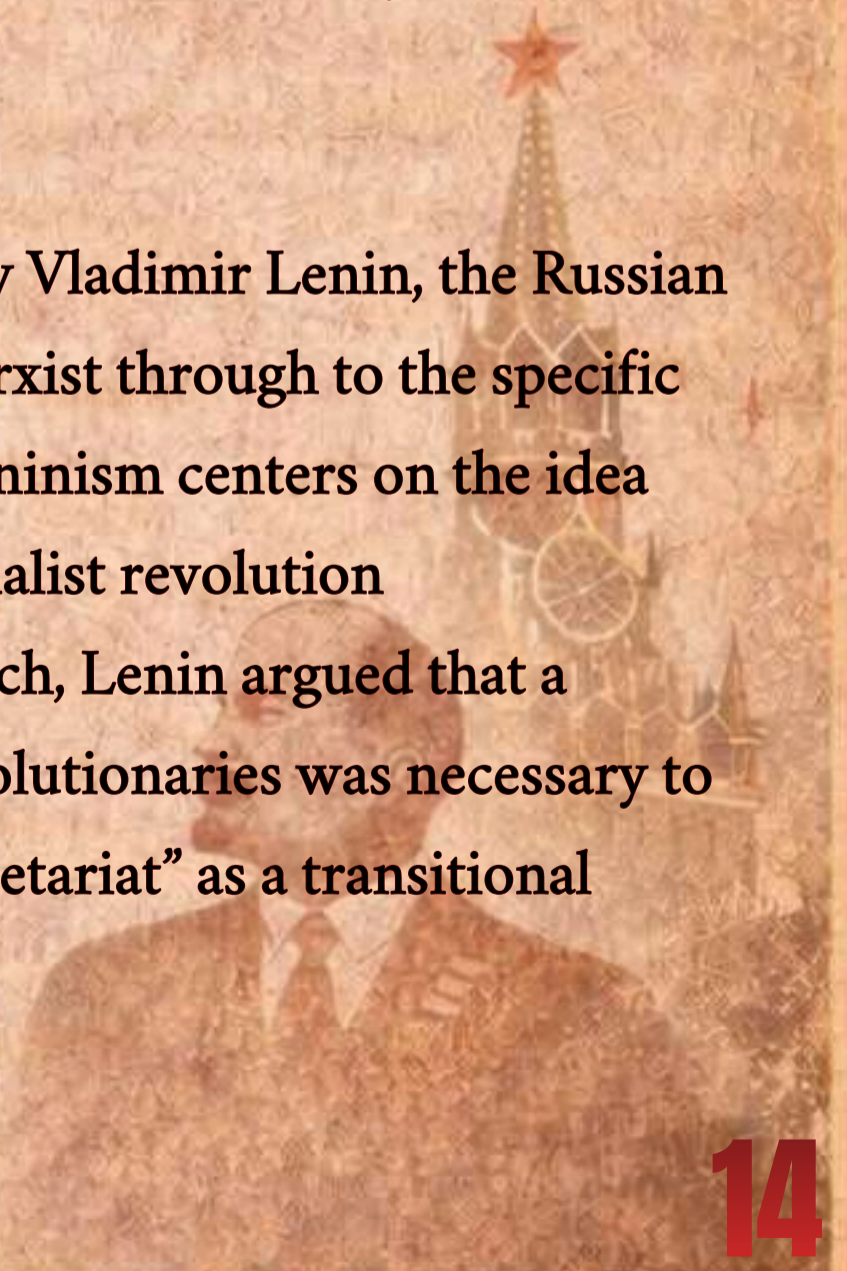
Essentially, it is the last stage of Marxism.

Communists often seek a voluntary state of self governance but disagree on the means to the end. This is what reflects a distinction between a liberation socialist approach of communisation and workers self management and an authoritarian socialist, or party driven approach to establish a socialist state which is expected to wither away.

Communism in its “modern form” grew out of the socialist movement in 19th-century Europe that argued about capitalism and its evils (such as capitalism caused the misery of urban factory workers). In 1848, Karl Marx and Friedrich Engles offered a new definition of communism in The Communist Manifesto . In the 20th-century, Communist governments espousing Marxism-Leninism came to power, first in the USSR with the 1917 Russian Revolution, later it spread to Eastern Europe followed by Asia and other regions after World War II. By the 1920s, communism had become one of the two dominant type of Socialism in the world (the other being Social Democracy).

LENINISM

Leninism is a political theory and is a practise developed by Vladimir Lenin, the Russian revolutionary leader as an adaptation and extension of Marxist through to the specific conditions of earl twentieth-century Russia. At its core, Leninism centers on the idea that the working class or proletariant cannot achieve a socialist revolution spontaneously or through a gradual reform. Instead of which, Lenin argued that a disciplined, centralised vanguard party of professional revolutionaries was necessary to lead the Proletariat and establish a “dictatorship of the proletariat” as a transitional phase towards communism.



One of the most distinctive feature of Leninism would be the concept of the Vanguard Party. The Vanguard Party is what served as the “most advanced and resolute section of the working class” which provided political education, strategic leadership and an discipline through all the organisations which helped in guiding the masses through its complexities.

Leninism also gave an introduction to the concept of democratic centralism where internal debate was permitted within the party but when a decision was made, all members were expected to uphold the descison which was made. The principle of this concept was to ensure unity and effectiveness in revolutionary struggle.

Another concept was Lenin’s theory of imperialism, which he described as the so called “highest stage of capitalism”. Lenin said that the capitalist nations in their search for a market and in their search for resources had expanded into different colonies which created influence and later created global inequalities and war.

Leninism became the guiding ideology of the USSR after the Bolsheviks seized power in 1917. It shaped the structure of the Communist Party, giving the policies of the new socialist state and it later influenced some revolutionary movements across the globe.

While Leninism is rooted in the Marxist theory, it marked a practical adaptation to Russia’s condition as a country and it layed the foundation for the most dominant form of communism in the 20th century which was Marxism-Leninism.

WHAT IS THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN COMMUNISM AND MARXISM?

Marxism is a philosophy, while communism is a system of government based on Marxist principles. Marx envisioned a society in which workers owned the means of production. In real-world communism, governments own the means of production. So, Marxism is the theoretical framework developed by Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels analyzing class struggle and capitalism, while Communism is the practical, revolutionary implementation of that theory aimed at creating a classless, stateless society



I. The Communist Manifesto

INTRODUCTION

The Communist Manifesto, published in February 1848 by Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels, stands as one of the most consequential political documents in modern history. Commissioned by the Communist League; a transnational organisation of German workers operating largely in exile across London, Paris, and Brussels; the Manifesto was intended as a programmatic statement: a declaration of principles, a diagnosis of historical development, and a call to revolutionary action. In fewer than fifty pages, Marx and Engels synthesised decades of philosophical thought, historical analysis, and political agitation into a text that would shape the ideological architecture of the Soviet Union, inspire dozens of revolutionary movements worldwide, and fundamentally alter the vocabulary of political life for the next century and a half.

To understand the Manifesto is to understand the intellectual bedrock upon which the Soviet experiment was constructed. Every subsequent development; Leninism, Stalinism, the theory of the vanguard party, the doctrine of socialist construction; traces its lineage, however tortured, back to the arguments advanced here. This section examines the Manifesto in depth: its historical context, its philosophical structure, its key arguments, its internal tensions, and its lasting significance.

HISTORICAL CONTEXT OF THE MANIFESTO :

The Manifesto was composed at a moment of extreme crisis for European capitalism. The industrial revolution had transformed social life in Western Europe, producing a massive urbanization of the population, the emergence of a massive urban proletariat, and the creation of enormous wealth and enormous poverty. The 1840s, or the 'hungry forties,' were marked by a series of food shortages, financial panics, and massive levels of unemployment. Revolutionary ferment was building throughout the continent, and within a few weeks of the Manifesto's publication, revolutions broke out in France, Germany, Austria-Hungary, and elsewhere, producing the Revolutions of 1848.

Marx and Engels had been working on the theoretical framework throughout the 1840s. Marx had been working on the ideas of Hegel in his doctoral dissertation and early journalistic writings, they had been working together on "The German Ideology" (1845-1846), which had established the materialist theory of history, and Marx had published "The Poverty of Philosophy" (1847) in reply to the French anarchist Proudhon. The Manifesto was the culmination of all this in a brief, persuasive document that was intended for mass circulation amongst the working class. It was not an academic work. It was a weapon.

BOURGEOIS AND PROLETARIANS

The social structure of a capitalist society consists of two main conflicting classes, the **bourgeoisie**, who own the means of production, and the **proletariat**, who own nothing but their labour power and must sell it to survive. This naturally causes a conflict, as the concentration of capital requires the exploitation of labour. The bourgeoisie is revealed as a revolutionary class that reshapes social and economic life in terms of industrial production, technological innovation, and global markets. In destroying traditional feudal structures and continuously changing the mode of production, it generates unprecedented dynamism in the economy, as well as instability in the social order that it establishes.

THE MATERIALIST CONCEPTION OF HISTORY

The materialist conception of history holds that the organisation of economic production forms the foundation of society. Social institutions, political structures, and ideological systems arise from and reflect underlying material relations. Historical change occurs when contradictions develop between productive forces and the relations through which production is organised.

PROLETARIANS AND COMMUNISTS

In the general movement of the working class, communists are the political expression of the interests of the proletarians. The role of communists is to define the general direction and objectives of the movement in line with the general interests of the working class.

ROLE OF THE COMMUNIST PARTY

The Communist Party acts as the political instrument that expresses and organizes the consciousness of the proletariat. It acts as the strategic center of revolutionary activity, where theory and political action are connected and leadership in the general struggle of the working class is provided.

CRITIQUE OF PRIVATE PROPERTY

Communist ideology differentiates between personal possessions and the concept of private property, where the latter is seen as the ownership of means of production, enabling the appropriation of the labour of others.

CLASS, THE STATE, AND THE TRANSITION TO COMMUNISM

The state is defined as the political organization that is a product of the class relationships of the time. In the capitalist society, the state is the embodiment of the class relationships that have been embedded in the economic system. In the transitional period, the state is organized along the lines that favor the working class.

II. Foundations of Marxism

HISTORICAL MATERIALISM

Historical materialism refers to the concept that material conditions within a particular society, particularly with regard to economic production and relations of work, are what shape the social structure, politics, and even the ideas or ideologies within a particular society. Social change happens when a contradiction arises between the production forces and the relations by which production happens.

THE DIALECTICAL METHOD

The dialectical method refers to the process by which social change happens. This method illustrates that social change happens because of the existence of contradictions within a particular social system. These contradictions bring conflict, which results in social change.

ALIENATION

Alienation refers to a state wherein the workforce becomes estranged from the product of their own work, the process of production, other workforce members, and their own creative ability. Labour thus becomes external to the worker rather than an expression of human creativity. Work thus turns into an economic necessity forced upon the workforce.

CLASS STRUGGLE AND SOCIAL CHANGE

Class struggle is conceived as the key driving force for social change. Conflicts between social groups with differing economic interests lead to changes in social structure and political power.

III. Development of Marxism-Leninism

RUSSIAN CAPITALISM AND THE REVOLUTIONARY QUESTION

The rise of capitalism in uneven social and economic conditions gave rise to the question of the path and character of revolutionary transformation. Marxist thought was utilised to study societies with uneven development, where capitalist industry coexisted with older forms of the economy.

VANGUARD PARTY AND DEMOCRATIC CENTRALISM

The idea of the vanguard party posits an organisation that serves to advance the interests of the working class. Democratic centralism arranges the internal life of the party. Discussion and debate are open within the party organisation, but after decision-making, organisational unity and discipline are expected to guide political action.

THEORY OF IMPERIALISM

The concept of imperialism is seen as an aspect of capitalist evolution marked by capital concentration, dominance of financial institutions, and expansion of the economy beyond national boundaries. Competition between the leading economies for markets, resources, and influence becomes an essential aspect of the world economy.

THE APRIL THESES

The April Theses outlined an agenda for political transformation, focusing on the transfer of power to the hands of the workers, restructuring political power, and remodelling the economy on socialist lines.

INSTITUTIONALISATION AS STATE IDEOLOGY

Marxism-Leninism emerged as an ideology that led the political process, state, and economy. The basic tenets of Marxist theory were absorbed in the political party, state, and the general socialist ideology

IV. Stalinism vs Trotskyism

With regard to Marxist-Leninist ideology, there are varying perspectives on how socialism would develop or continue. Stalinism is primarily concerned with the development of socialism in a single country. This is done through a high level of industrialisation in a country, a high level of centralisation in a country's politics, and a high level of party control in a country. On the other hand, Trotskyism is primarily concerned with the development of permanent revolution. This is done by ensuring that socialism continues to develop globally in order to deal with the inherent limitations of the capitalist system in the world.

V. Ideological Basis of the Soviet State

The ideological base of the Soviet state was based on **Marxism-Leninism**, and it acted as the guiding philosophical base for political, economic, and social development in the country. Dialectic materialism acted as the philosophical base for understanding social and historical processes in the Soviet Union, and the **Communist Party acted as the vanguard** institution that guided political authority in the Soviet Union. The concept of the dictatorship of the proletariat, where political authority was exercised in the interest of the proletariat, acted as the guiding concept in the Soviet Union. The state, through its institutions, sought to instill its ideological base in the larger structure of society, and political authority remained centralized in the Soviet Union.



HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Coronation of Tsar Nicholas II - 1896

On 26th May, Nicholas II was crowned Tsar of Russia in the Dormition Cathedral at the Moscow Kremlin. (Nicholas II was the last Tsar of Russia. Despite his coronation in May 1896, he only took control over the Romanov dynasty after his father, Alexander III, passed away on 1st November.) With him, the 304-year-old dynasty also came to an end. His wife, Alexandra Feodorovna, was also crowned empress together. During the week-long celebrations, a crowd of 500,000 people gathered on May 30th to celebrate the coronation of Tsar Nicholas II at the Khodynka field in Moscow, which resulted in a stampede causing 1389 casualties and over 1300 injuries.

THE LI-LOBANAV TREATY - 1887-1903

It was signed on June 3rd and established a secret alliance between the Russian Federation and Qing China against Japan, which allowed Russia to build the Trans-Siberian Railway through Manchuria.

1897 - Adoption of the gold standard and the first general census.

1898 - The Russian Social Democratic Labour Party (RSDLP) was founded in Minsk. It was largely illegal and aimed to unify the Marxist groups present in Russia to overthrow the Tsar. It followed the ideology of Marxism, a group of concepts and beliefs based on the philosophy of Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels. One of the early founders was the father of Russian Marxism, Georgy Plekhanov. Port Arthur, an all-year-round ice-free port, was leased from China, which was later captured by Japanese troops

1899 - A global contraction in Money markets was seen, which was followed by an industrial crisis in Russia. Student strikes were also seen across the country.

1900- The Boxer rebellion occurred in China, which was a violent anti-imperialist, anti-Christian movement led by a secret society (Yihequan), which led to Russia sending troops to Manchuria to protect the Chinese Eastern Railway.

1901- The Socialist Revolutionary Party was formed, focusing on land reform for peasants and became one of the most popular revolutionary groups in the empire. It was very different from the RSDLP, and it believed that Russia's massive peasant population would be the driving force of the revolution.

1902 - The Trans Siberian railway was nearly completed, which led to military transport to the far east. Peasant uprisings occurred in the southern provinces due to high taxes.

1903- At the second congress of the RSDLP, it split into two factions - the Bolsheviks and Mensheviks. The Bolsheviks were headed by Vladimir Lenin, and their main ideology was that the working class and peasantry could skip capitalism and go straight to socialism. The Mensheviks were headed by Julius Martov and believed that the working class and peasantry should go through capitalism first. Even though they had a common goal - to overthrow the Tsar-these differences led to them splitting.

RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR (1905)

The Russo-Japanese War started when Japan launched a surprise attack on Port Arthur on February 8th, which led to the weakening of the Tsar's authority. Japan attacked Russia due to Russia's dominance in Korea and Manchuria(Northeast China). It occurred during 1904-1905, and eventually, Japan was handed a decisive victory.

Battle of Mukden (1905): One of the largest land battles in history before WWI, involving over 600,000 troops.

Battle of Tsushima (1905): A catastrophic naval defeat for Russia. The Japanese fleet, led by Admiral Togo, destroyed two-thirds of the Russian Baltic Fleet, which had sailed 18,000 miles to join the fight. The war ended with the Treaty of Portsmouth mediated by the US president, Theodore Roosevelt, which led to the POTUS winning the Nobel Peace Prize. Russia ceded territories to Japan.

BLOODY SUNDAY (January 22nd, 1905)

Peaceful protestors led by Georgy Gapon marched to the Winter Palace to petition for improved labour conditions, but this protest was met by armed forces, which resulted in open fire and led to the killing of more than 100 innocent civilians.

The Russian Revolution started in 1905, featuring strikes and rebellions for various reasons, with the most significant being Russia's defeat to Japan and the occurrences of Bloody Sunday. This resulted in a decline of trust and confidence in the Tsar, which further intensified the revolution. The Tsar released the 'October Manifesto' as a reaction to this Resolution. It was created under Sergei Witte's influence and shifted Russia from an autocracy to a constitutional monarchy by assuring citizens the establishment of a legislative parliament—The Duma. In April 1906, the initial Duma of the Russian Empire was formed, yet its authority was regulated and restricted by the Tsar. The liberal Constitutional Democratic Party (Kadets) participated, and the chosen chairman was Sergey Muromtsev, a professor and liberal politician. This Duma existed for just 72 days (27th April - 8th July) before being dissolved by the Tsar, who felt it posed a threat to his autocratic power. Pyotr Stolypin became the Prime Minister (third in the Russian Empire's history) and implemented numerous agrarian reforms designed to establish a class of autonomous peasant landowners and stabilize rural Russia. On February 20th, 1907, the second Duma convened in St. Petersburg, featuring a significant active group of socialist and radical representatives. On June 1st, the Tsarist regime detained numerous leftist politicians, alleging conspiracy, initiating the disbandment of the second Duma.

On June 3rd (Coup of June), Tsar Nicholas III and Pyotr Stolypin disbanded the second Duma and unlawfully altered the electoral law, diminishing the representation for laborers and farmers while proclaiming the Russian Revolution finished. A third Duma is formed, which is more traditional and stays faithful to the Tsar. On June 13th, the Bolsheviks (which included the young operative Joseph Stalin) carried out the Tiflis bank robbery, stealing more than 340,000 rubles to finance their party. The Anglo-Russian Convention was signed on August 31st, concluding the Great Game, a competition among Britain, France, and Russia to acquire and colonize territories in key strategic locations for raw materials and trade connections. It resulted in the establishment of the Triple Entente via a series of 3 agreements that concluded the 'Great Game'.



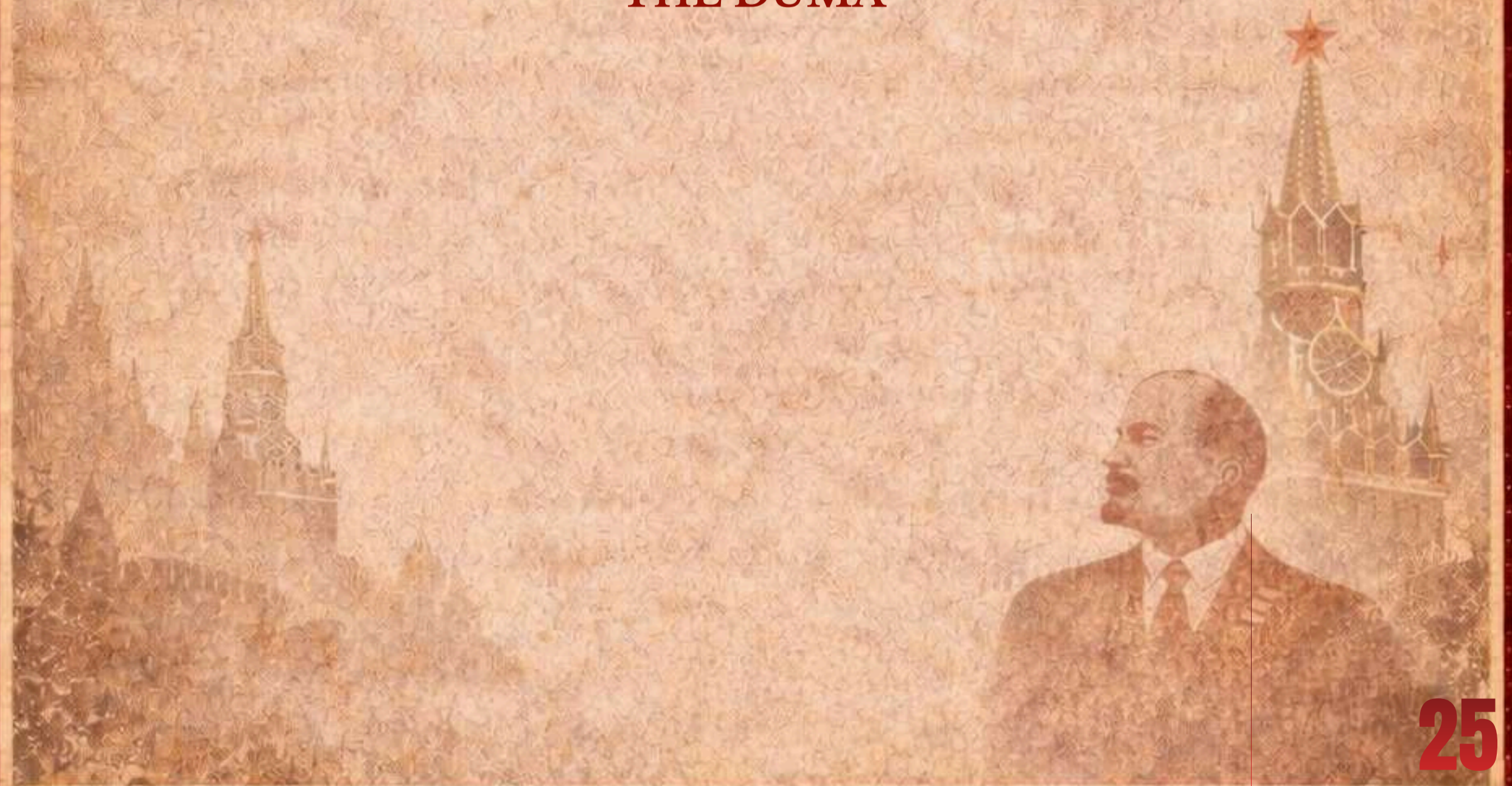
BLOODY SUNDAY

Event took place, characterized by a tremendous energy release from an unknown origin close to the Podkamennaya Tunguska River in Siberia. It emitted energy comparable to 10-15 megatons of TNT. Stoyplin implemented significant agricultural reforms after the 'Coup of June 1907' and initiated the large Siberian Migration, leading to 2.8 million peasants moving to Siberia due to affordable rail fares. 1909 On March 22nd, the Balkan crisis concluded, and Russia, influenced by Germany, is compelled to acknowledge Austria-Hungary's annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, marking a diplomatic setback for the Tsar. Russian forces invaded Northern Persia (Tabriz) to quell constitutional revolutionaries and safeguard Russian commercial interests. In 1910, the Stoyplin Land Law was enacted,

facilitating peasants in severing their communal land connections and attaining private ownership. The Tsar enacted a law that significantly curtailed the Grand Duchy of Finland's autonomy, placing its domestic matters directly under the oversight of the Russian Duma and cabinet. Leo Tolstoy, the renowned author globally, passed away at a secluded train station in Astapavo, and the authorities limited public mourning for the author following his funeral, which turned into a venue for antigovernment protests.



THE DUMA



1911: ASSASSINATION OF PYOTR STOLYPIN:

Pyotr Stolypin was the 3rd Prime Minister of the Russian Empire and Minister of Internal Affairs of Russia, who had initiated the Stolypin reform (agrarian reforms) that granted private land ownership rights to the peasants and had also initiated a system of martial law that allowed arrest, speedy trial and execution of accused revolutionaries. Stolypin had travelled to Kyiv even after there were 10 attempts made to take his life; he was watching a performance of Rimsky-Korsakov's "The Tale of Tsar Saltan" at the Kyiv Opera with the Tsar and his eldest daughters, grand duchesses Olga and Tatiana. Despite the theatre being guarded by 90 men inside, Dmitry Bogrov, a Jewish leftist revolutionary, shot Stolypin twice in the arm and chest, then being caught and hanged ten days after the assassination, Stolypin, however, simply stood up and gestured to the Tsar to go back and made the sign of the cross, he died 4 days later from his injuries.

1912 (APRIL): LENA GOLDFIELDS MASSACRE

For every thousand workers, there were more than 700 accidents in the goldfields of the Lena Gold Mining Joint Stock Company, along the Lena River, had exceptionally harsh working conditions, with miners having to work 15-16 hours a day. The meagre salary was often used to pay fines, while the other part was in the form of coupons to be used in stores at the mine itself. All of this had led to a strike, one of the causes being that rotten meat was distributed at one of these stores. Their demands included an eight-hour workday, a 30% raise in wages, the elimination of fines, and the improvement of food delivery. However, their strike committee was arrested. When 2,500 workers marched towards the goldfield to protest and complain about the arrest, they were met by troops of the Russian Imperial Army, who began firing at them on the orders of Captain Treschenkov. It was reported that there were 270 dead and 250 wounded.

1914 (AUGUST): RUSSIA ENTERS THE FIRST WORLD WAR:

With the assassination of the Austro-Hungarian Archduke Frank Ferdinand, there were demonstrations in front of the Austro-Hungarian Embassy in Petrograd upon their ultimatum to Serbia. Tsar Nicholas II then decides to declare war in Serbia's favour in an attempt to gain the In favour of his people as well as due to the Ottoman Empire closing the Black Sea for Allied Trade, and the German Empire was doing the same for the Baltic Sea. Conditions had worsened with poor supplies and poor command.

Though there was initial patriotism, the mood had quickly worsened, and the Russian Empire had expected a short war, not expecting it to last beyond Autumn and not even giving their own Troops proper Winter Clothing for Battles in the Mountains. Aleksei Brusilov, Head of the 8th Army, had prescribed a triple line of defence, but also found that its subordinates often neglected its orders. Thus, despite there being a constant stream of men for the army, their officers (the vast majority of whom were of noble origin) often lived a life of luxury away from the troops and treated them like serfs. 1915

(SEPTEMBER): TSAR NICHOLAS II TAKES PERSONAL CONTROL OF THE ARMY

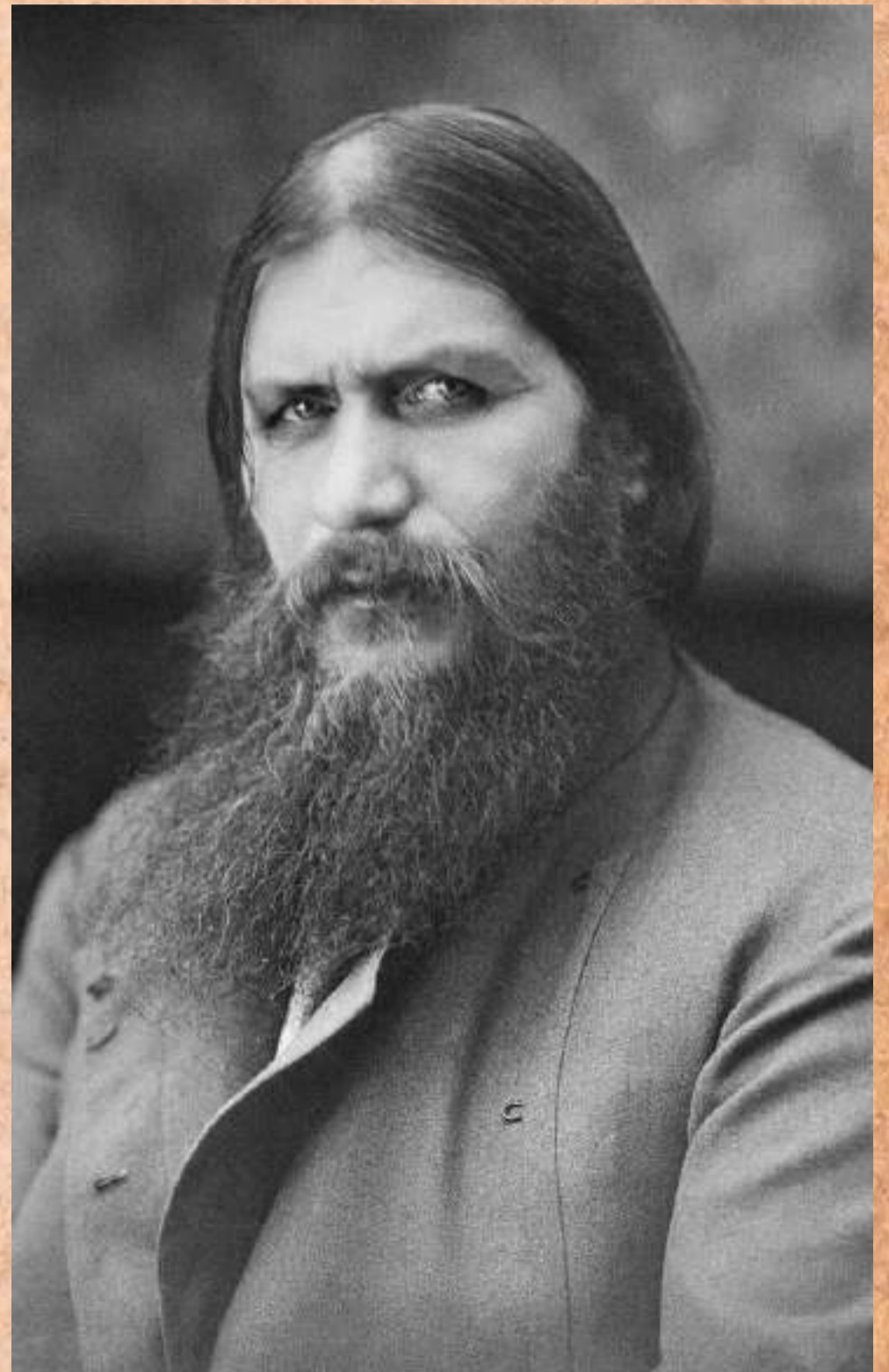
Tsar Nicholas II takes personal control of the army in an attempt to try to make the situation less Disastrous, however, his ministers had mostly declared their disapproval of his decision Tsar Nicholas II had then decided to allow Empress Alexandra not to take control over the Domestic Government and Administration (while he stayed in Belarus), however, the Empress was rather unpopular, considering her German origins as well as the compromising favour she had granted to the infamous healer Grigori Rasputin, she had dismissed Ministers who had disapproved of her conduct of business or that of her favourite. Thus, there were 4 prime ministers, 5 ministers of the interior, 3 of foreign affairs, 3 of transport, and 4 of agriculture between September 1915 and February 1917 due to constant dismissals. Tsar Nicholas II dismissed the Minister of War, Alexei Polivanov, despite his revivals of the Army after the disasters of 1915, due to his ties with the liberal opposition.

1916 (JUNE-SEPTEMBER): BRUSILOV OFFENSIVE

General Alexei Brusilov launches a massive offensive with better machine-guns, artillery, and ammunition supplies after scouting the Austro-Hungarian Positions with aircraft, which were pounded by the shells of Artillery from the start of his offensive According to Prit Buttar, "Brusilov's revolutionary tactics had been stunningly successful: artillery had been used with unprecedented precision; infantry had worked their way close to the defences before launching their attacks, and those attacks had not used the traditional lines of men who were so easy for machine guns and defensive artillery to destroy. However, this comes with a cost of 1,440,000 casualties and deaths of the Russian Imperial Army. It also leads to hyperinflation and severe food shortages in urban areas like Petrograd as a result of the economic cost.

1916 (DECEMBER): ASSASSINATION OF RASPUTIN

Rasputin, the infamous mystic of the Tsar Kingdom was murdered during the early morning on 30th December 1916 at Prince Yusupov's home from three gunshot wounds (one of which was a close-range shot to the forehead), his body was found under the river ice around 200m downstream from the Petrovsky Bridge. What follows is the strange story of his assassination. Prince Felix Yusupov was a conspirator who had worked with Purishkevich and the Grand Duke Dmitri Pavlovich to assassinate Rasputin, he had supposedly invited Rasputin to his Palace. After midnight, and had ushered him into the basement, Rasputin had apparently drunk and eaten tea and cakes laced with cyanide, as well as 3 glasses of wine, which were also poisoned, and offered by Yusupov, which surprisingly did not affect him. Pavlovich then gave a revolver to Yusupov, who then proceeded to shoot Rasputin in the chest, then drove to Rasputin's apartment that night (with Sukhotin wearing Rasputin's coat and hat to make it appear as if Rasputin had returned home that night. Yusupov then returned to the Palace and checked the basement, only for Rasputin to leap somehow and attack Yusupov, then fleeing upstairs, only to be shot by Purishkevich in the courtyard. The conspirators wrapped his body in cloth, then dumped him into the Little Nevka River below the Petrovsky Bridge after driving to it. Thus the "CURSE OF RASPUTIN" was born.



GRIGORY RASPUTIN



FEBRUARY REVOLUTION, 1917

The February Revolution of 1917, which overthrew Tsar Nicholas II, found Lenin in Switzerland. The British government opposed his attempts to return to Russia, so he was forced to negotiate passage through Germany, travelling in a sealed train. His political enemies used this to accuse him of collaborating with Germany, but this did not stop him from taking leadership of his party. On the night of the 3rd to 4th of April 1917, Lenin arrived in Finland Station in Petrograd and immediately gave an important speech. He declared that the overthrow of Tsarism was only the first stage and that the middle-class revolution could no longer satisfy the masses. He called on the working class to arm itself, strengthen Soviet power, mobilise the countryside and prepare to take supreme power to rebuild society on a socialist basis. Even many Bolsheviks were shaken by this, and Plekhanov called the programme crazy, but Lenin was not discouraged.

THE OCTOBER REVOLUTION, 1917

The Provisional Government, led by Socialist Revolutionary Party politician Alexander Kerensky, was unable to solve the most pressing issues of the country. Most importantly, to end the war with the Central Powers. A failed military coup by General Lavr Kornilov in September 1917 led to a surge in support for the Bolsheviks, who took control of the soviets, which until then had been controlled by the Socialist Revolutionaries. Promising an end to the war and "all power to the Soviets", the Bolsheviks then ended dual power by overthrowing the Provisional Government in late October, on the eve of the Second All-Russian Congress of Soviets of Workers' and Soldiers' Deputies, in what would be the Second Revolution of 1917. The initial stage of the October Revolution, which involved the assault on Petrograd, occurred largely without any human casualties. Despite the Bolsheviks' seizure of power, they lost to the Socialist Revolutionary Party in the 1917 Russian Constituent Assembly election, and the Constituent Assembly was dissolved by the Bolsheviks in retaliation. The Bolsheviks soon lost the support of other far-left allies, such as the Left Socialist-Revolutionaries, after

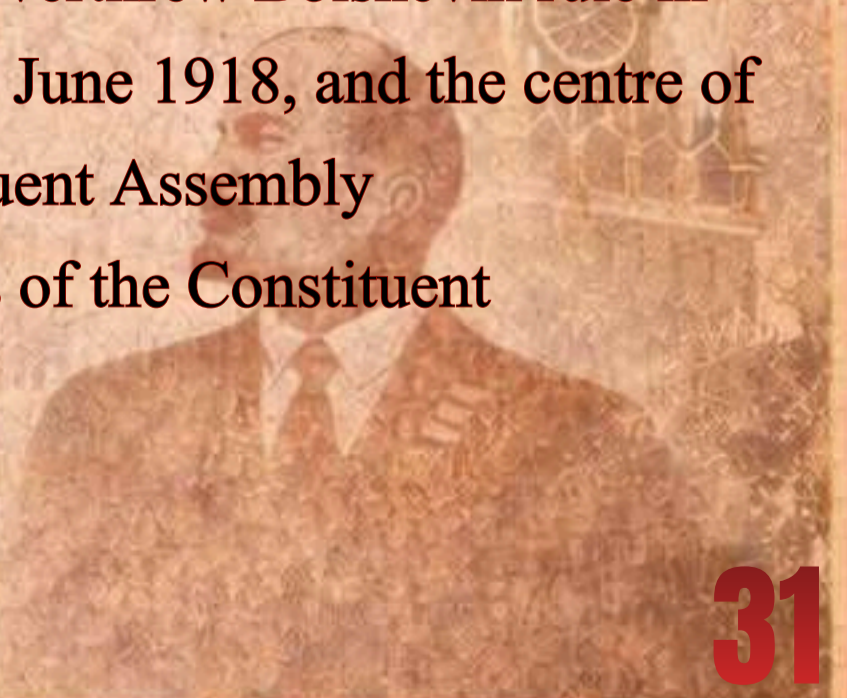
their acceptance of the terms of the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk presented by the German Empire. Conversely, several prominent members of the Left Socialist Revolutionaries had assumed positions in Lenin's government and led commissariats in several areas. This included agriculture (Kolegaev), property (Karelin), justice (Steinberg), post offices and telegraphs (Proshian) and local government (Trutovsky). The Bolsheviks also reserved several vacant seats in the Soviets and the Central Executive for the Menshevik and Left Socialist Revolutionary parties in proportion to their vote share at the Congress. The dissolution of the Constituent Assembly was also approved by the Left Socialist Revolutionaries and anarchists, both groups were in favour of a more radical democracy.



THE CONSTITUENT ASSEMBLY UPRISING, 1917

The Russian Constituent Assembly had been a demand of the Bolsheviks against the Provisional Government, which kept delaying it. After the October Revolution, the elections were run by the body appointed by the previous Provisional Government. It was based on universal suffrage but used party lists from before the Left-Right SR split. The anti-Bolshevik Right SRs won the elections with the majority of the seats, after which Lenin's Theses on the Constituent Assembly argued in Pravda that formal democracy was impossible because of class conflicts, conflicts with Ukraine and the Kadet-Kaledin uprising. He argued the Constituent Assembly must unconditionally accept sovereignty of the soviet government, or it would be dealt with "by revolutionary means". On 30 December 1917, the SR Nikolai Avksentiev and some followers were arrested for organising a conspiracy.

This was the first time the Bolsheviks used this kind of repression against a socialist party. Izvestia said the arrest was not related to his membership in the Constituent Assembly. On 4 January 1918, the All-Russian Central Executive Committee made a resolution saying the slogan "all power to the constituent assembly" was counterrevolutionary and equivalent to "down with the soviets". The Constituent Assembly met on 18 January 1918. The Right SR Viktor Chernov was elected president, defeating the Bolshevik-supported candidate, the Left SR Maria Spiridonova (she would later break with the Bolsheviks, and after decades of gulag, she was shot on Stalin's orders in 1941). The Bolsheviks subsequently disbanded the Constituent Assembly and proceeded to rule the country as a one-party state with all opposition parties outlawed in 1921. A simultaneous demonstration in favour of the Constituent Assembly was dispersed with force, but there was little protest afterwards. The first large Cheka repression involving the killing of libertarian socialists in Petrograd began in April 1918. On 1 May 1918, a pitched battle took place in Moscow between the anarchists and the Bolshevik police. The Union of Regeneration was founded in Moscow in April 1918 as an underground organisation of "democratic resistance" to the Bolsheviks, composed of the Popular Socialists and "personal representatives" of the Right Socialist Revolutionaries, Kadets and Defensists, among others. They were tasked with propping up anti-Bolshevik forces and creating a Russian state system based on "state consciousness, patriotism and civil liberties" with the goal to liberate the country from the "Germano-Bolshevik" yoke. On 7 May 1918, the Eighth Party Council of the Socialist Revolutionary Party commenced in Moscow and recognised the Union's leading role, putting aside political ideology and class for Russia's salvation. They decided to start an uprising against the Bolsheviks to reconvene the Russian Constituent Assembly. While preparations were underway, the Czechoslovak Legions overthrew Bolshevik rule in Siberia, the Urals and the Volga region in late May-early June 1918, and the centre of SR activity shifted there. On 8 June In 1918, five Constituent Assembly members formed the All-Russian Committee of Members of the Constituent Assembly (Komuch) in Samara,



which declared it the new supreme authority in the country. The Social Revolutionary The Provisional Government of Autonomous Siberia came to power on 29 June 1918, after the uprising in Vladivostok.

OPPRESSIONS AGAINST THE BOLSHEVIKS

The main Russian military and political force opposing the Bolsheviks was known as the White movement, or simply the Whites; its armed formations were known as the White Army. Certain historians differentiate the White movement from the so-called "democratic counter-revolution" primarily spearheaded by the Right SRs and the Mensheviks, who upheld the principles of parliamentary democracy and established anti-Bolshevik countergovernments (Komuch, Ufa Directory) through a coalition with Russia's right-wing parties until November 1918. Up until this time, parliamentary democracy was the primary inclination of the anti-Bolshevik factions in Eastern Russia (though not in the South), but thereafter, the White movement consolidated under an authoritarian-right agenda centered on Alexander Kolchak, who ascended to power via a military coup as its main leader along with his All-Russian government. Following the Kolchak coup, the Right SRs and Mensheviks opposed the Whites and tactically collaborated with both sides in the Civil War, while also seeking to topple the White governments or position themselves as "the third force" in the conflict: for instance, they tried to initiate an anti-Kolchak uprising in November 1919 with assistance from Czech General Radola Gajda, and in 1920, they created an organization named 'Political Centre' that successfully deposed the White regime in Irkutsk. Despite the diverse political views within the White movement, encompassing liberals, monarchists, and the ultra-nationalist Black Hundreds, it lacked a universally accepted leader or doctrine of the imperial one; its positive agenda was mainly encapsulated in the motto "united and indivisible Russia," signifying the reinstatement of imperial borders (excluding Poland and Finland) and the rejection of self-determination rights, which led to animosity towards national independence movements. The movement is linked with pogroms and antisemitism, though its interactions with Jews were more nuanced. When the White Army was

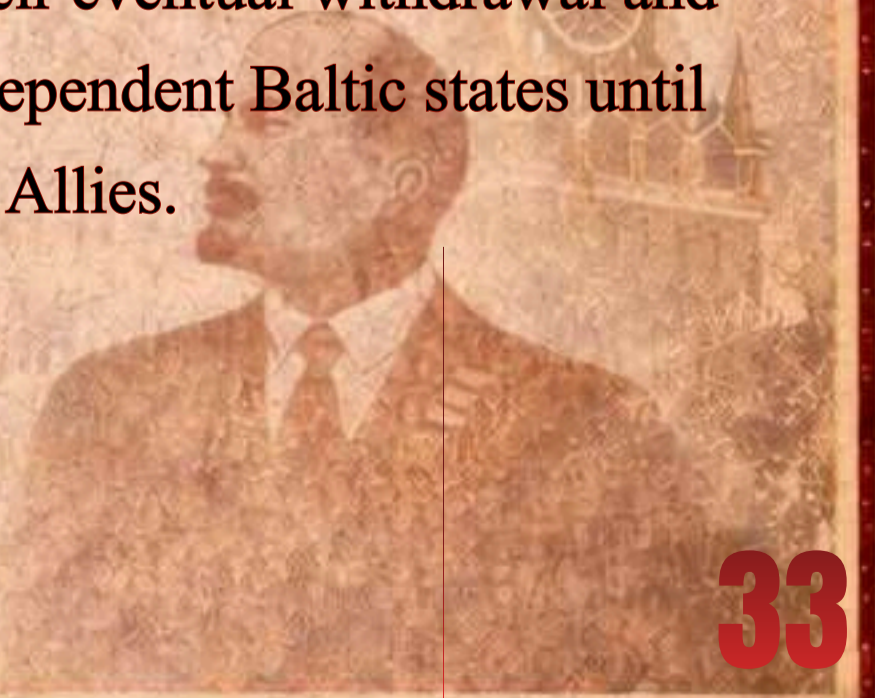
created, the structure of the Russian Army of the Provisional Government period was used, while almost every individual Formation had its own characteristics. The military art of the White Army was based on the experience of World War I, which, however, left a strong imprint on the specifics of the Civil War.

ALLIED INTERVENTION

The Western Allies armed and supported the Whites. They were worried about a possible Russo-German alliance, the prospect of the Bolsheviks making good on their threats to default on Imperial Russia's massive foreign debts and the possibility that Communist revolutionary ideas would spread (a concern shared by many Central Powers). Hence, many of the countries expressed their support for the Whites, including the provision of troops and supplies. Winston Churchill declared that Bolshevism must be "strangled in its cradle". The British and French had supported Russia during World War I on a massive scale with war materials. After the treaty, it looked like much of that material would fall into the hands of the Germans. To meet that danger, the Allies intervened with Great Britain and France, sending troops into Russian ports. There were violent clashes with the Bolsheviks. Britain intervened in support of the White forces to defeat the Bolsheviks and prevent the spread of communism across Europe.

CENTRAL POWERS' ANTI-BOLSHEVIK INTERVENTION

The Central Powers also supported the anti-Bolshevik forces and the Whites; after the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk, the main goals of the intervention were to maintain the newly conquered territories and prevent a re-establishment of the Eastern Front. After the defeat of the Central Powers, many armies that stayed mostly helped the Russian White Guard eradicate communists in the Baltics until their eventual withdrawal and defeat. Pro-German factions fought against the newly independent Baltic states until their defeat by the Baltic States, backed by the victorious Allies.



PRO INDEPENDENCE MOVEMENTS AND GERMAN PROTECTORATES

The German Empire created several short-lived buffer states within its sphere of influence after the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk: the United Baltic Duchy, the Duchy of Courland and Semigallia, the Kingdom of Lithuania, the Kingdom of Poland, the Belarusian People's Republic, and the Ukrainian State. Following Germany's armistice in World War I in November 1918, the states were abolished. Finland was the first republic to declare its independence from Russia in December 1917, and established itself in the ensuing Finnish Civil War between nationalist German-supported White Guards and socialist Bolshevik-supported Red Guards from January to May 1918. The Second Polish Republic, Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia formed their own armies immediately after the abolition of the Brest-Litovsk Treaty and the start of the Soviet westward offensive and the subsequent Polish-Soviet War in November 1918.

OPPOSITION AND REPRESSION IN SOVIET RUSSIA

At the Fifth All-Russian Congress of Soviets of 4 July 1918, the Left Socialist-Revolutionaries had 352 delegates compared to 745 Bolsheviks out of 1132 total. The Left SRs raised disagreements on the suppression of rival parties, the death penalty, and mainly, the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk. The Bolsheviks excluded the Right SRs and Mensheviks from the government on 14 June for associating with counterrevolutionaries and seeking to "organise armed attacks against the workers and peasants" (though the Mensheviks did not exist as a united movement and were split into the left-wing "internationalist" and more right-wing factions, while the Left SRs advocated forming a government of all socialist parties. The Left SRs agreed with the extrajudicial execution of political opponents to stop the counterrevolution, but opposed having the government legally pronounce death sentences, an unusual position that is best understood within the context of the group's terrorist past. The Left SRs strongly opposed the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk and opposed Trotsky's insistence that no one try to attack German troops in Ukraine. According to historian Marcel Liebman, Lenin's wartime measures, such as banning

opposition parties, were prompted by the fact that several political parties either took up arms against the new Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic, or participated in sabotage, collaboration with the deposed Tsarists, or made assassination attempts against Lenin and other Bolshevik leaders. Liebman noted that opposition parties such as the Cadets and Mensheviks, who were democratically elected to the Soviets in some areas, then proceeded to use their mandate to welcome in Tsarist and foreign capitalist military forces. In one incident in Baku, the British military, once invited in, proceeded to execute members of the Bolshevik Party who had peacefully stood down from the Soviet. When they failed to win the elections. As a result, the Bolsheviks banned the opposition party when it turned against the Soviet government. In some cases, bans were lifted. This banning of parties did not have the same repressive character as later bans were enforced under the Stalinist regime.

RUSSIAN CIVIL WAR

"A lie told often enough becomes the truth"-Vladimir Lenin

The mindset and brutality of the Russian Civil War are perfectly depicted in the above quote. The Russian Civil War (1917–1923) was a brutal, multi-party conflict that determined the political future of the world's largest nation and solidified the first communist state in history. Triggered by the collapse of the Romanov dynasty and the subsequent seizure of power by the Bolsheviks during the October Revolution, the war was not merely a domestic struggle but a global ideological battleground. It pitted the Red Army, fighting to defend the new Soviet regime, against the White Army, a loose coalition of monarchists, capitalists, and social democrats, while various "Green" peasant armies and Foreign interventionist powers further complicated the landscape. The foundational event for 20th-century Russia began with the Russian Civil War. The foundations of a unified Russian state were laid in the 15th century under Ivan III. Moscow became the leading Russian principality and came to dominate the region known as Great Russia; by the early 16th century, the remaining Russian states were united with Moscow. The Russian Civil War was a multi-party civil war in the former Russian Empire, lasting from 1917 to 1922, sparked by the overthrow of the Russian Provisional Government in the October Revolution, as many factions vied to determine Russia's political future. It resulted in the formation of the Russian Socialist Federative Soviet Republic and later the Soviet Union in most of its territory.

Its finale marked the end of the Russian Revolution, which was one of the key events of the 20th century. The Russian monarchy ended with the abdication of Tsar Nicholas II during the February Revolution, and Russia was in a state of political flux. A tense summer culminated in the October Revolution, where the Bolsheviks overthrew the provisional government of the new Russian Republic. The Bolshevik seizure of power was not universally accepted, and the country descended into a conflict which became a full-scale civil war in May–June 1918. The two largest combatants were the Red Army, fighting for the establishment of a Bolshevik-led socialist state headed by Vladimir Lenin, and the forces known as the White movement (and its White Army), led mainly by the right-leaning officers of the Russian Empire, united around the figure of Alexander Kolchak. In addition, rival militant socialists, notably the Ukrainian anarchists of the Makhnovshchina and Left Socialist-Revolutionaries, were involved in conflict against the Bolsheviks. They, as well as non-ideological green armies, opposed the Bolsheviks, the Whites and the foreign interventionists. Thirteen foreign states intervened against the Red Army, notably the Allied intervention, whose primary goal was to re-establish the Eastern Front of World War I. Three foreign states of the Central Powers also intervened, rivalling the Allied intervention with the main goal of retaining the territory they had received in the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk with Soviet Russia. The Bolsheviks initially consolidated control over most of the former empire. The Treaty of Brest-Litovsk was an emergency peace with the German Empire, which had captured vast swathes of the Russian territory during the chaos of the revolution. In May 1918, the Czechoslovak Legion in Russia revolted in Siberia. In reaction, the Allies began their North Russian and Siberian interventions. That, combined with the creation of the Provisional All-Russian Government, saw the reduction of Bolshevik-controlled territory to most of European Russia and parts of Central Asia. In 1919, the White Army launched several offensives from the east in March, the south in July, and the west in October. The advances were later checked by the Eastern Front counteroffensive, the Southern Front counteroffensive, and the defeat of the Northwestern Army. By 1919, the White armies were in retreat and by the start of 1920 were defeated on all three fronts. Although the Bolsheviks were victorious, the territorial extent of the Russian state had been reduced, for many non-Russian ethnic groups had used the disarray to push for national independence. In March 1921, during a related war against Poland, the Peace of Riga was signed, splitting disputed territories in Belarus and Ukraine between the Republic of Poland on one side and Soviet Russia and Soviet Ukraine on the other.

Soviet Russia invaded all the newly independent nations of the former empire or supported the Bolshevik and socialist forces there, although the success of such invasions was limited. Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania all repelled Soviet invasions, Ukraine and Belarus were divided (as a result of the Polish–Soviet War), while Armenia, Azerbaijan and Georgia were occupied by the Red Army. By 1921, the Bolsheviks had defeated the national movements in Ukraine and the Caucasus, although anti-Bolshevik Uprisings in Central Asia lasted until the late 1920s. The armies under Kolchak were eventually forced into a mass retreat eastward. Bolshevik forces advanced east, despite encountering resistance in Chita, Yakut and Mongolia. Soon, the Red Army split the Don and Volunteer armies, forcing evacuations in Novorossiysk in March and Crimea in November 1920. After that, fighting was sporadic until the war ended with the capture of Vladivostok in October 1922, but anti-Bolshevik resistance continued with the Muslim Basmachi movement in Central Asia and Khabarovsk Krai until 1934. There were an estimated 7 to 12 million casualties during the war, mostly civilians.

THE DEATH OF VLADIMIR LENIN

On 21 January 1924, Vladimir Lenin died at his residence in Gorki, near Moscow, following a series of strokes, that had severely impaired his health since 1922. By late 1923, he had effectively withdrawn from active political life, leaving key party affairs to be managed by senior leadership. His death created an immediate power vacuum within both the Party and the State.

In response, Lev Kamenev issued an official letter to all members of the Politburo, instructing their immediate presence in Moscow Kremlin for an emergency session. The purpose of this meeting was to deliberate on the question of succession, ensure continuity of governance, and address the broader political and administrative direction of the Soviet Union in the absence of Lenin. His dead body currently still lies in his Gorki Residence, under supervision of appointed officials, with preparations of a funeral and further proceedings remaining void and unanswered.





SOVIET STATE AND GOVERNANCE

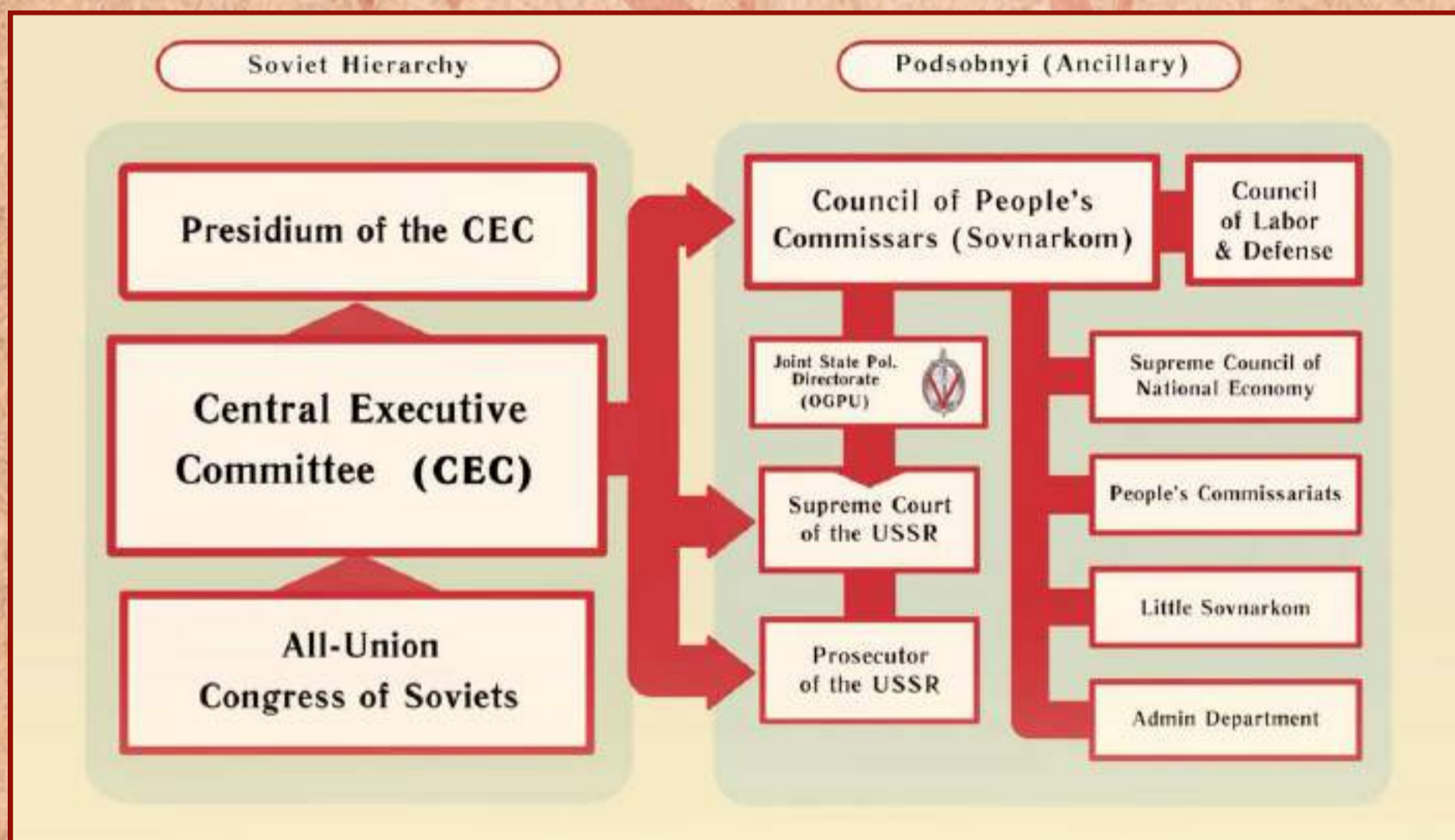


The Soviet System was set up to DENY a specific branching of the government into the legislation, executive and judiciary.

In general the Soviet governmental system consisted of two legs -

1. The Soviet Hierarchy which contained the supreme organ of legislative, executive and administrative power of the USSR
2. The Podsobnyi which were ancillary organs which had simultaneous legislative, executive and administrative powers,

Basically the constitution did not distinctly divide the powers and duties of the different bodies and both the legs had similar powers and duties to fulfill side by side.



Chiefly the soviet hierarchy was represented by the Central Executive Committee (CEC) and the most important of the Ancillary organs was the Council of People's Commissars (Sovnarkom).

Each body was formally designed to be collegial means instead of being governed by a single head it was de jure governed by a council of people and it was a way to expand decision by allowing representatives elected from below to get a seat at the main table.



This means that even though there was no president or Prime Minister of the USSR, each of these councils at the end used to be headed by a chairperson informally as a 'first among equals'.

Therefore, the Chairperson of the CEC was the 'President' (ceremonial head) of the USSR and the Chairperson of Sovnarkom was the 'Premier'.

The Party apparatus on the right coordinated with the state apparatus on the left (as established by the constitution).

By 1919, even after the bill commending the fact that the Sovnarkom can pass laws but if the CEC objected it, then it may come to the view of the CEC was abolished and the Sovkarnoom ended up gaining more legislative power than the CEC after the 7th Soviet congress where Lenin made the CEC a sessional meeting every 2 months. Also Lenin passed a part in the resolution that they may circumvent a law if and when during a civil war or counter revolution. By 1920 the opposition and other parties especially after the civil war did not meet as much and the majority of the CEC became members of the CP thus it being single parted by the CP. After the civil war and the opposition was removed from the CEC and it became powerless the new constitution and Lenin's reforms were passed, thus handing over more power to the Sovnarkom.

The turning of the CEC into a single party committee led to the rise of intra-party factions, as a result of which a resolution was passed to ban it thus stopping everyone from voting unanimously.

I. Nature of the Soviet State

As of the 22nd of January, 1924, the Soviet Union was a revolutionary socialist state, not a constitutional democracy, nor a federation of the usual sort. It was a state whose character was determined almost exclusively by the Constitution of the RSFSR of 1918, the revolutionary decisions of the Revolution of October 1917, and the ideology of the Bolsheviks, as expressed by Lenin. Yet the USSR was created officially in December, 1922, it did not have a constitution, and the principles of governance were still modeled after the RSFSR model, which meant that the Soviet Union was a state that did not conceive of itself as a neutral arbiter between citizens, but one whose very purpose was to represent the interests of the proletariat and poor peasants as a class.

It is evident from the 1918 Constitution that the sovereignty was not vested in “the people” as a whole, but in specific social classes. While the political rights were vested in workers, soldiers, and peasants, the members of the former ruling classes, such as large landowners, capitalists, and clergy, were deliberately denied the right to participate in politics. This was in line with the idea of the dictatorship of the proletariat, which was advanced by Lenin. It was not dictatorship in the personal sense, but the political predominance of one class over others. The state was not intended to be a permanent state, and it was conceived as a temporary revolutionary state to suppress counter-revolution and lead the way to socialism.

Ideologically, the Soviet state was opposed to the liberal principle of separation of powers, which Lenin saw as a bourgeois illusion, an illusion created by those who sought to dominate others. The Soviet state was based on the principle of the unity of state power, which was realized through Soviets or councils. This was based on the argument that a revolutionary state required speed, decisiveness, and political clarity, which could not be realized if there was a separation of powers. The Soviet state was therefore based on collective organs rather than individual organs.

Lastly, though the Soviet State and the Communist Party were distinct entities in law, in practice, they were closely linked. The constitution did not mention the Communist Party as having any role to play in the functioning of the State, yet by 1924, the Communist Party had a hold on all major State institutions and was making decisions within its own framework before implementing them through the State machinery. This was a situation whereby the State was a shell of a government and the Communist Party was the driving force behind it. The Soviet State was just a puppet of the Communist Party.



II. STATE APPARATUS

1. Congress of Soviets

Overall by 1924, even though on paper the Congress of Soviets was the “supreme organ” and the soviet hierarchy went from a bottom to up system, by 1924 the real decisions were done and implemented by the inner communist party circles like the Politburo, Orgburo, etc, thus contradicting the bottom to up system and relying on a top to bottom system.

At the apex of the Soviet system, as provided for in the RSFSR Constitution of 1918 and remaining in effect as of January 1924, was the Congress of Soviets. From a constitutional perspective, this institution was declared the highest organ of the Soviet state and the personification of the idea that power was vested upwards from the workers', peasants', and soldiers' councils that existed in various locations around the Soviet Union. The Congress of Soviets was vested with the most basic powers of the Soviet state. These included the ability to enact and amend the constitution, make decisions regarding broad policy guidelines, decide issues regarding war and peace, and ratify the formation and structure of the central government institutions. The All-Union Congress of Soviets, as constituted in the post-1922 period, was the official embodiment of the Soviet Union as a state and the personification of the idea of the voluntary association of the socialist republics. On paper, no other institution was higher than the Congress of Soviets.

Nonetheless, despite the supreme constitutional position of the Congress of Soviets, it was not a permanent body. It only met periodically, and such sessions may have been brief. This automatically meant it was not in a position to run the government on a daily basis. Consequently, the Congress of Soviets was only there to approve matters, not to make decisions. In the early 1920s, and even more so after the Civil War, the Congress of Soviets was only there to legitimize decisions that had already been made elsewhere, especially within the Party circles, and it was just there for the sake of it.

The discrepancy between formal dominance and factual weakness was not a mere circumstance. It was a structural element. In other words, Lenin and his party considered mass assemblies to be indispensable to lend legitimacy to their regime, but not very useful to govern a country. The Congress would be given a superior status symbolically, and actual powers would be delegated to lower levels. This would allow the Soviet state to appear to be ruled collectively and representatively, while in reality, power would be concentrated in a few hands.

The Congress of Soviets, the highest legal authority of the USSR, still existed by January 1924, but it did not have any independent influence over the governance of the country. The relevance of the Congress of Soviets was that it could bestow legality, but it did not have the ability to initiate governance. This difference between where power was claimed to be and where it was exercised is vital to comprehend the politics of the USSR after the death of Lenin, where the rules of constitutional succession were absent, but the actual locus of power was the institutions that were operational at the lower levels.

2. The Central Executive Committee (CEC) - “THE REAL CENTRE OF STATE POWER”

- Between the infrequent meetings of the Congress of Soviets, the ultimate authority rested in the Central Executive Committee (CEC), which as of 22 January 1924 had become the highest permanently functioning organ of the Soviet government and had legislative, executive, and supervisory authority all at once in direct contravention of the separation of powers doctrine. This was the intent of the Soviet system: rejecting “bourgeois parliamentarism” in favor of the fusion of powers in the name of revolutionary efficacy and class dominance.
- The CEC, under the RSFSR Constitution of 1918, was mandated to issue decrees, oversee the execution of laws, guide the general course of policy, and oversee the activities of the subordinate organs, including the Council of People’s Commissars (Sovnarkom). In theory, Sovnarkom was under the authority of the CEC, whose decrees could annul, alter, or ratify Sovnarkom’s decrees. The CEC was mandated to call the Congress of Soviets, to which it was accountable, thereby completing the chain of command in the Soviet system of governance.

3. The Council of People's Commissars (Sovkarnom - Сукарно)

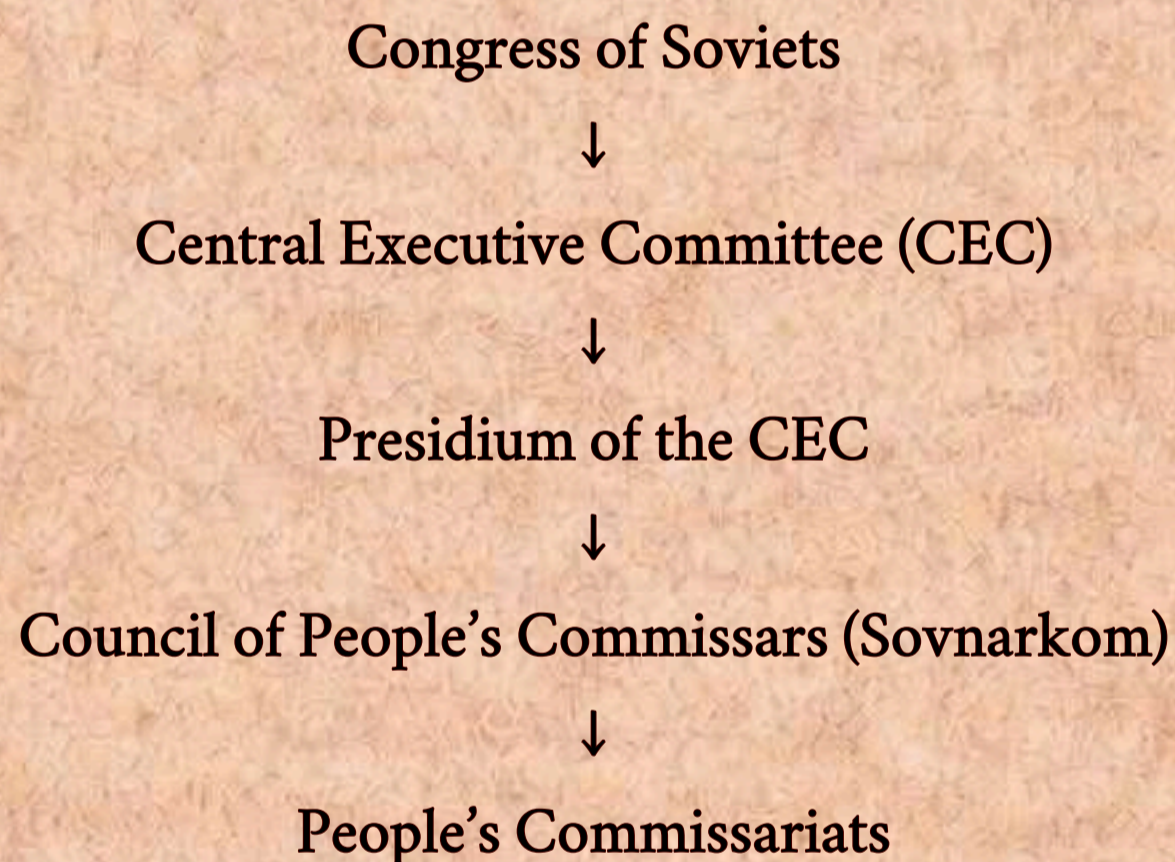
- As of 22nd January 1924, the "Council of People's Commissars" or "Sovnarkom," as it was called, had become the highest organ of executive and administrative authority in the Soviet Union, although in reality, it had become something much larger than the conventional government structure. The Sovnarkom was formed immediately after the October Revolution and was intended to be the working and revolutionary executive organ that could act quickly without the delay that might have been experienced in a parliament-based system of government. This need for speed and urgency, which had been brought about by the Revolution and the subsequent civil war, had become the defining characteristic of the Sovnarkom.
- As provided for in the 1918 Soviet Constitution, the Sovnarkom was made subordinate to the Central Executive Committee (CEC), and its main responsibility was the management of the day-to-day activities of the Soviet government and the implementation of its decrees and decisions in the areas of the economy and the Red Army through the various commissariats that were under its control. Each of the People's Commissars was in charge of a specific department in the government.
- Nevertheless, reality was far removed from theory. In the Civil War period (1918-1921), Sovnarkom was granted extraordinary powers. It was empowered to enact laws by decree without the previous approval of the CEC on the pretext of combating counterrevolution and responding to emergency situations on the battlefields.
- Theoretically, the CEC had the power to annul such laws under the Constitution. In practice, however, with the CEC convening less frequently, the role of the Sovnarkom was de facto to become the main legislative body, particularly on economic and security issues. The distinction between "executing" laws and "making" laws was no longer relevant. The centralization of power was complemented by the views of Lenin, who regarded flexibility as the key to the existence of the socialist state. The emergency measures, which were originally temporary, had become the new normal.

• The head of the Sovnarkom was the latter's Chairman, who was analogous to a Prime Minister. This role was held by Vladimir Lenin, the central figure of the Revolution and the new state, until his death. The fact that Lenin was sick from 1922 onwards, however, made the Sovnarkom less cohesive, with the role of the deputy chairmen and the Party becoming more prominent.

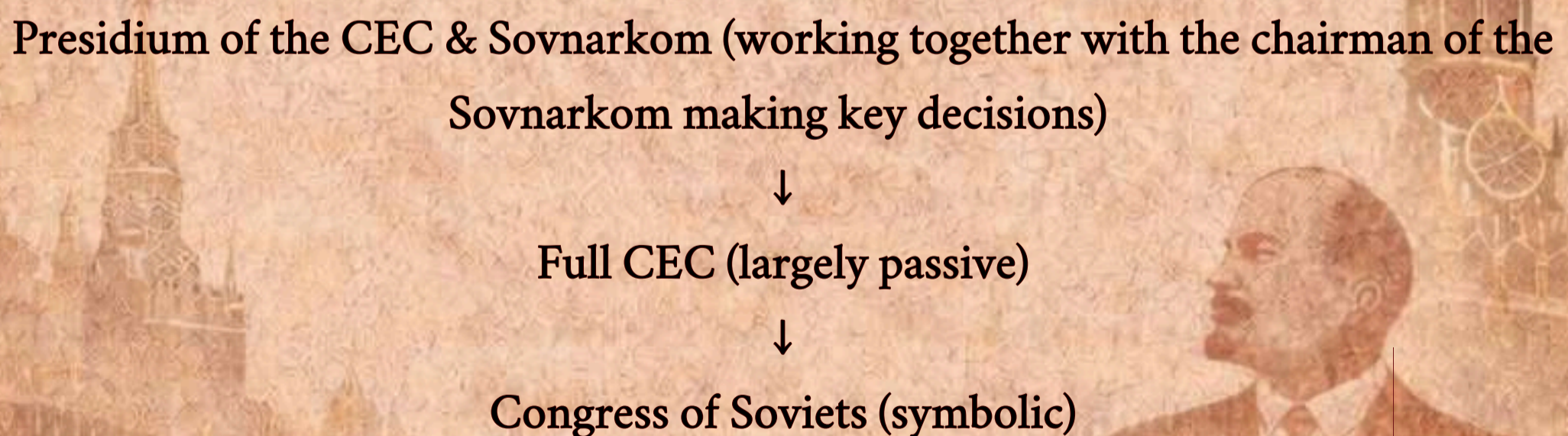
Summary of the Soviet Government Hierarchy

As of 22 January 1924, there was no single, undisputed second-most powerful state post after Lenin. Power was intentionally diffused, with the Chairman of the CEC (head of state) and the leadership of Sovnarkom (head of government) existing in parallel. This ambiguity is exactly why a leadership vacuum emerged after Lenin's death.

On paper (constitutional order):



In daily reality (how power actually flowed):



III. THE COMMUNIST PARTY OF THE SOVIET UNION

- By the time of Lenin's death, Soviet politics had a dual structure of power: the state apparatus (the Soviets, CEC, and Sovnarkom), and the party apparatus (Party Congress, Central Committee, Politburo, and Secretariat). But again, these institutions were not only not joined in a constitutional sense, but also not entirely separate. There is no mention of the Communist Party in the 1918 Soviet Constitution as a body of power. In theory, Soviet politics was governed by the Soviets elected from below. In theory, all power resided in the Soviets. In practice, however, Soviet politics was governed by a combination of state and party institutions.
 - In reality, however, the Communist Party was in complete control of the state apparatus without formally replacing it. This was achieved through the overlap of personnel instead of fusion. The same individuals were present in the highest organs of the Communist Party, such as the Politburo, and the most important positions in the state apparatus, such as the chairmen of the Sovnarkom, the heads of the commissariats, the military command, and the chairs of the executive committees. In effect, the state apparatus was present, functioning, and alive, but the decisions were already taken in the Communist Party forums.
 - This state of affairs has been termed "dual power without separation" by historians. In the Soviet state, there was no separation of powers as in the American model, where the three arms of government operate independently. In the Soviet state, there was dual power, with the state executing the decisions of the Communist Party. The Sovnarkom was in charge of enforcing the laws, but the laws were the decisions of the Politburo. The Central Executive Committee was supposed to oversee the Sovnarkom, but the former was composed mainly of Communist Party members, barred by the Party's ban on factions.
- More importantly, however, it was not coercion that maintained this dominance, but democratic centralism. Once a decision had been taken by the Party leadership, all Party members, whatever their role in the state, had to agree to its implementation unanimously. And since all senior state officials were Party members by 1924, it meant that state debate effectively ceased when Party debate ceased. In short, it was a system in which the Party ruled through the state, not instead of it.

• The dual structure that had emerged had become stabilized and institutionalized by January 1924. The Soviets still existed, laws still passed through constitutional institutions, and elections still took place under the Soviet system. But it was to the inner organs of the Party, particularly to the Politburo and Secretariat, that the true locus of power had shifted. And it is in this context that it must be understood that Lenin's death did not signal a power vacuum in the state, but a power struggle in the Party, since whoever ruled the Party would necessarily rule the state.

1. The Politburo - THE CENTRE OF POWER

By January 22nd, 1924, however, the Politburo of the Communist Party had emerged as the nerve center of power in the Soviet Union. The Politburo was originally created during the Civil War to facilitate efficient decision-making during a crisis. The Politburo was originally intended to be a small decision-making body within the larger framework of the Central Committee. As long as Lenin was alive, however, it was used as a means to coordinate the direction of the Party. The decisions made by the Politburo were ostensibly made collectively, but because of Lenin's influence, he was able to shape decisions decisively. The members of the Politburo were not merely policymakers; they were arbiters of both Party and state power. They had the potential to control appointments, commissars, and policy within the Soviet state.

However, with Lenin's death, the mechanism of collective leadership was not only a symbol of possible unification but also a symbol of possible threats. There was no mechanism to address the question of the succession of supreme power in the party and the state. The struggle was taking place within the Politburo, as the prominent party members were competing to gain control over the Secretariat, the Sovnarkom, and the regional party committees.

Therefore, the Politburo at the time of Lenin's death was not just a consultative body, but the actual center of power of the Soviet Union, connecting the Party and the State, determining the political, military, and economic destiny of the country. The test for the new leaders was obvious: whoever managed to gain supremacy over the Politburo, the information agenda, and the support of the Party would be the one with the real power, given the indivisibility of the State and the Party. And with the passing of Lenin, the specter of civil war, factionalism, and personal ambition was always just around the corner.

REAL POWER HIERARCHY IN THE USSR (JANUARY 1924) - Including State Governments and the Communist Party

1. Politburo (The highest authority in practice)

At the very top was the Politburo of the Communist Party. All important decisions, economic policies, international relations, military strategies, repressions, appointments, and ideologies were either made here or required its sanction.

Sovnarkom and CEC had no authority to bypass the Politburo. The state power was already in the grip of the political power of the Communist Party by 1924, and the Politburo was its political authority. Everything else was answerable to it.

2. Secretariat + Orgburo (The real controllers of power, not policies)

Just beneath the Politburo and potentially more dangerous was the Secretariat and the Orgburo.

Secretariat was in charge of controlling information flow and execution of decisions.

Orgburo was in charge of controlling appointments and promotions.

Together, the Secretariat and Orgburo were in real command of those who held the power, though not in a direct policy-making capacity.

In practice, no other official was able to function without their permission. They were answerable to the Politburo in name but were essential in practice.

3. Central Committee (Ratifying authority)

The Central Committee was positioned below the Politburo in terms of actual power.

Even though it was nominally above, it rarely met and automatically ratified decisions made by the Politburo. The Central Committee was incapable of making decisions on its own. In fact, it was a legitimizing body, not a governing body.

4. Sovnarkom (Government executor)

The Council of People's Commissars, also referred to as Sovnarkom, was next.

Sovnarkom was actually in charge of running the country. It issued decrees, managed the economy, supervised commissariats, etc. However, Sovnarkom was not actually in charge of making decisions on direction.

This was because Sovnarkom's head and commissars were actually Party members.

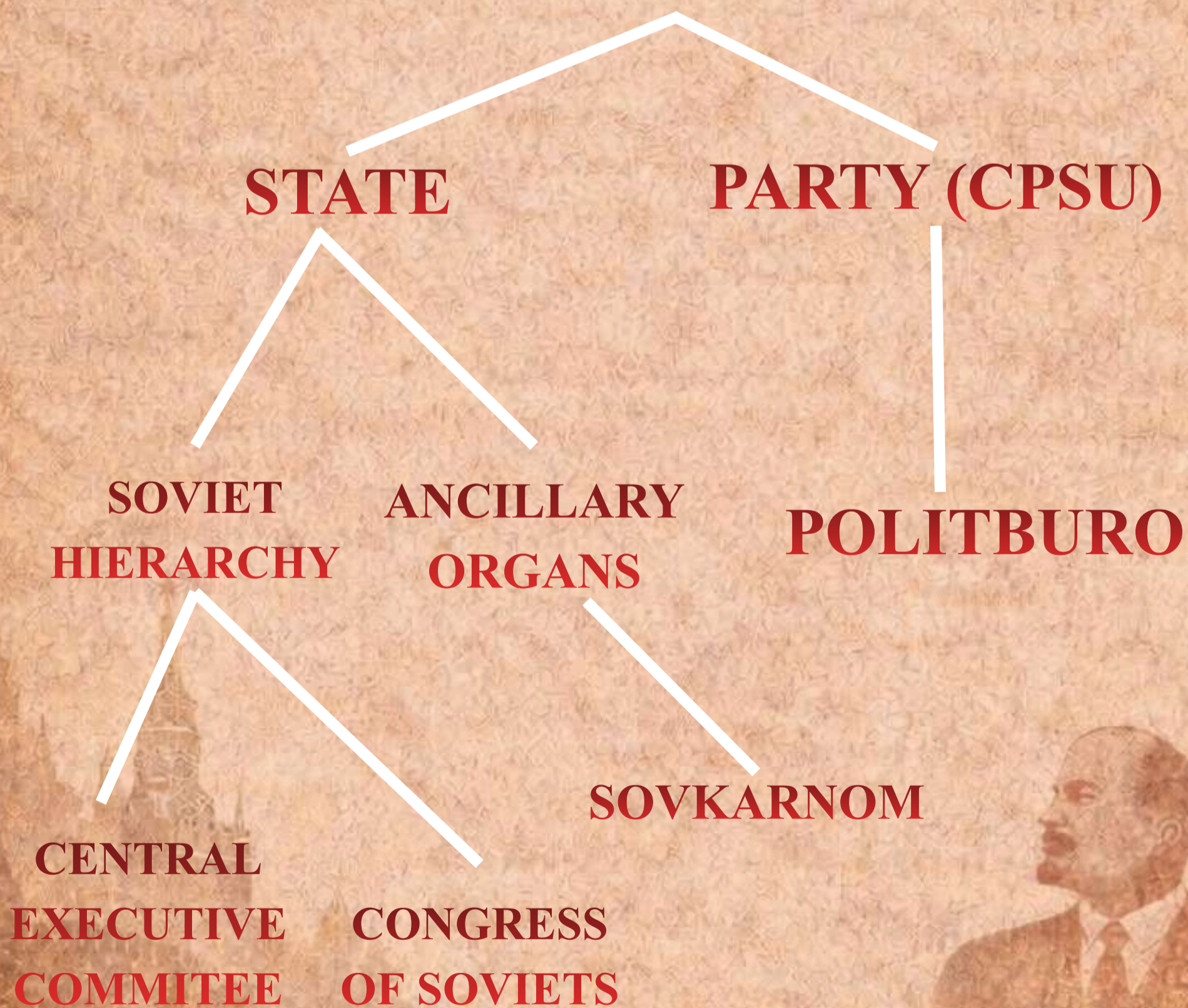
5. Central Executive Committee (CEC)

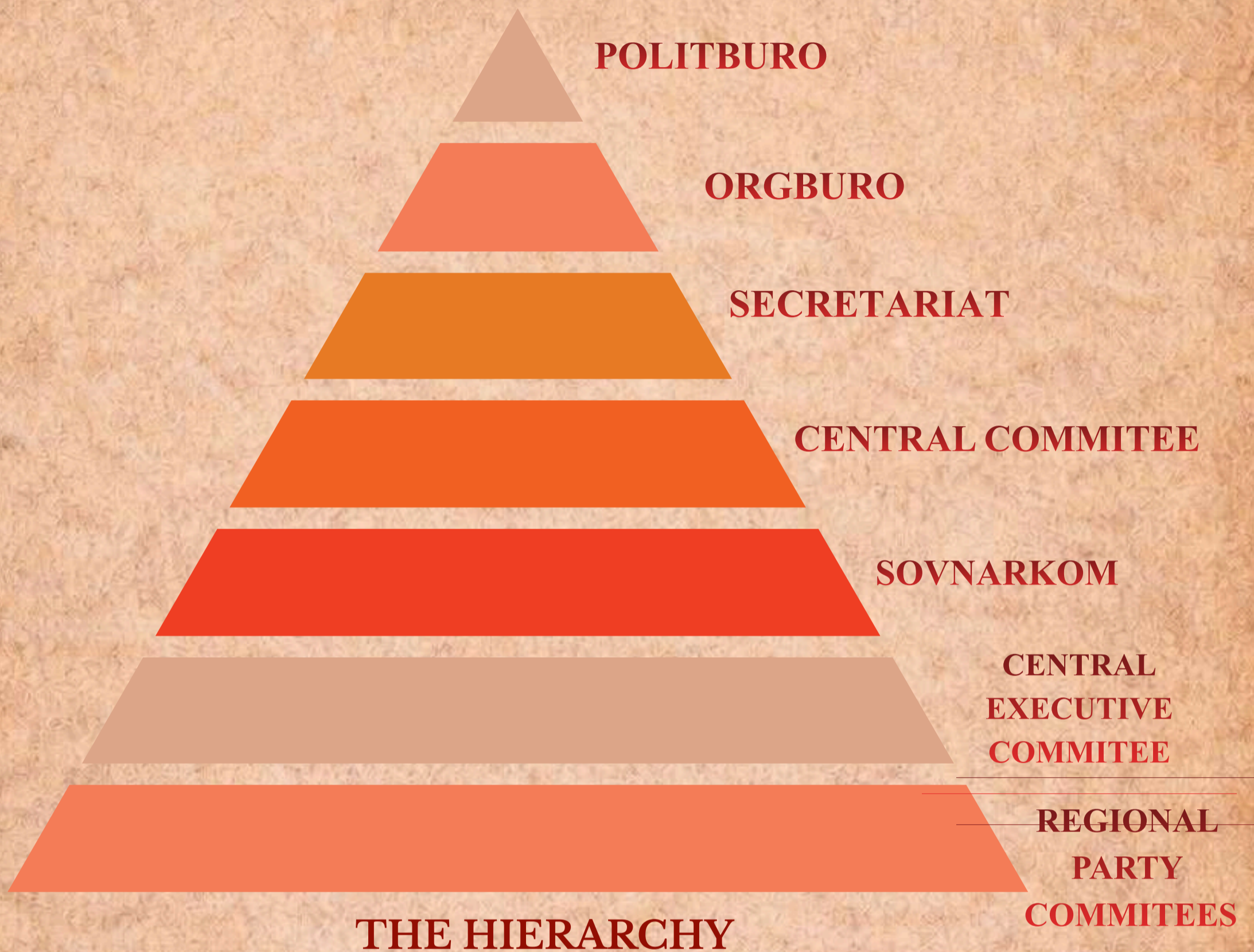
In 1924, the CEC had limited real power. It was constitutionally the supreme organ of the Soviet government, but in reality, it was just a mere formality for decisions made elsewhere. The person at the top of the CEC (Kalinin) had no real authority over the Party or the government.

6. Regional Party Secretaries

In the real world, regional Party secretaries were more important than regional government officials. The regional Party secretary had real authority over cadres and implementation in the region. In reality, the regional Party secretary was more important than the regional Soviet or commissariat head.

SOVIET GOVERNMENT





Why the Politburo had so much power

There were three main reasons:

1. Party supremacy over the state

The Bolshevik system was based on the supremacy of the Communist Party over the state. Since the Politburo headed the Party, it indirectly controlled the state.

2. The small decision-making group

The large body of the Central Committee rarely gathered to make decisions. The Politburo was small and thus could make timely decisions.

3. The control of key organizations

The members of the Politburo simultaneously held important posts within the state, such as the Red Army, the Department of Foreign Affairs, the Department of Internal Affairs, or the Department of Economic Administration.

Kamenev's Role in the Politburo

However, the Communist Party lacked any formally designated leader or successor after the death of Vladimir Lenin on 21 January 1924. Therefore, the Party leadership made decisions collectively through the Politburo.

Lev Kamenev was among the most senior Bolshevik leaders and had considerable political influence as the Chairman of the Moscow Soviet and a longstanding member of the Party's central leadership team. Due to his seniority and relatively balanced position in the Party leadership team, Lev often led discussions and meetings within the Party, ensuring order in the Politburo meetings. Infact he often chaired Politburo Meetings in the 2-years frame during Lenin's leadership when he fell ill and could not chair the Politburo Meetings himself.

Therefore, Lev was not the supreme leader of the Soviet Union just because he led meetings and discussions within the Party; this was because of his senior, neutral and balanced position in the Party leadership at the time of transition following the death of Vladimir Lenin.

IV. THE RED ARMY

The Red Army was the main military force of the Soviet regime and was charged with the responsibility of protecting the Bolshevik regime from both internal and external attacks. The Red Army was formed in 1918 in the midst of the Russian Civil War and was instrumental in the Bolshevik regime's victory over its opponents.

Under the guidance of Leon Trotsky, who was the People's Commissar for Military and Naval Affairs, the Red Army was transformed from an undisciplined force to a highly centralized and disciplined military force.

The Red Army had become one of the most powerful forces in the Soviet regime by 1924. While the Red Army was technically answerable to the Soviet government, its top hierarchy was closely linked to the Communist Party. The loyalty of the Red Army was thus considered crucial to the stability of the regime.



V. GPU AND STATE SECURITY ORGANS

The GPU, also known as the State Political Directorate, was created on February 6, 1922 as the primary internal security and intelligence agency of the Soviet state. It was a successor to the former Cheka, which was a revolutionary internal security agency formed to combat counter-revolutionary activities during the Civil War. The primary function of the GPU was to ensure internal security, monitor political opposition, conduct intelligence activities, and combat threats to the Soviet government. It was a powerful agency with a presence of informers and investigators throughout the country. At that time, it was headed by Felix Dzerzhinsky. The survival of the Bolshevik government largely depended on its internal stability. Therefore, it was a critical agency that protected the Soviet state from any political threats and counter-revolutionary activities.



VI. OTHER STATE APPARATUS

Apart from the military forces and the security agencies, there were a few other organizations that were a part of the Soviet administration.

The first organization was the Comintern, also known as the Communist International. It was formed in the year 1919, and the main aim was to coordinate the communist movement around the world. Through the formation of the Comintern, the Soviet government tried to support the revolutionary movements around the world.

Another important organization that was a part of the Soviet administration was the People's Commissariats, which were more like the ministries of the government, dealing with specific areas of administration, such as foreign affairs, agriculture, education, justice, the economy, and so forth. At the helm of each of these organizations was a People's Commissar, who was responsible for the administration of the specific area under consideration.

These were the organizations that were a part of the Soviet administration, including the military forces, the security agencies, the international revolutionary organizations, and the administrative organizations, through which the Soviet government was administered during the early years of the formation of the Soviet Union.



THE SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS



WHY "SOCIALIST"?

The republics in the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics were termed "Socialist" because the political and economic system in the nation was founded on the principles of socialism. The political party in power believed that the state should be arranged in a manner that private ownership of the main means of production was abolished and economic resources were placed under collective ownership for the working class in the nation. After the Bolshevik Revolution in 1917, the new government formed by Vladimir Lenin set out to reorganize the Russian State in accordance with the principles of Marxism. The key industries, banks, transport systems, and production units in the nation were nationalized, meaning that these economic resources were taken away from private ownership and placed under the ownership of the State. The intention behind these economic policies was to change the capitalist economic system in the nation, in which economic activities were controlled by private individuals and firms, to socialism, in which economic activities were to be controlled by the State in the interests of the working class and peasants.

The title "Socialist" also reflected an ideological commitment to the idea that the Soviet state was a workers' state. This is because, according to Marxist ideology, socialism was a transitional state between capitalism and communism. In a socialist state, the workers, represented by the Communist Party, would own the state and would use it to remake society, eliminate class distinctions, and eliminate the economic power of the old ruling classes.

Each of these republics was a Soviet Socialist Republic, which meant that it was a republic with a political system based on soviets or workers' councils, with an economic and political system based on socialism. While these republics had their own local governments, they were part of a larger socialist state run by the Communist Party.



Thus, by January 1924, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics was a newly formed federal state composed of several Soviet republics. In fact, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics was formally established on 30 December 1922, where several socialist republics were unified into a single state through a central government system with the Communist Party at the helm.

As of January 1924, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics was composed of four Union Republics.

Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic (RSFSR)

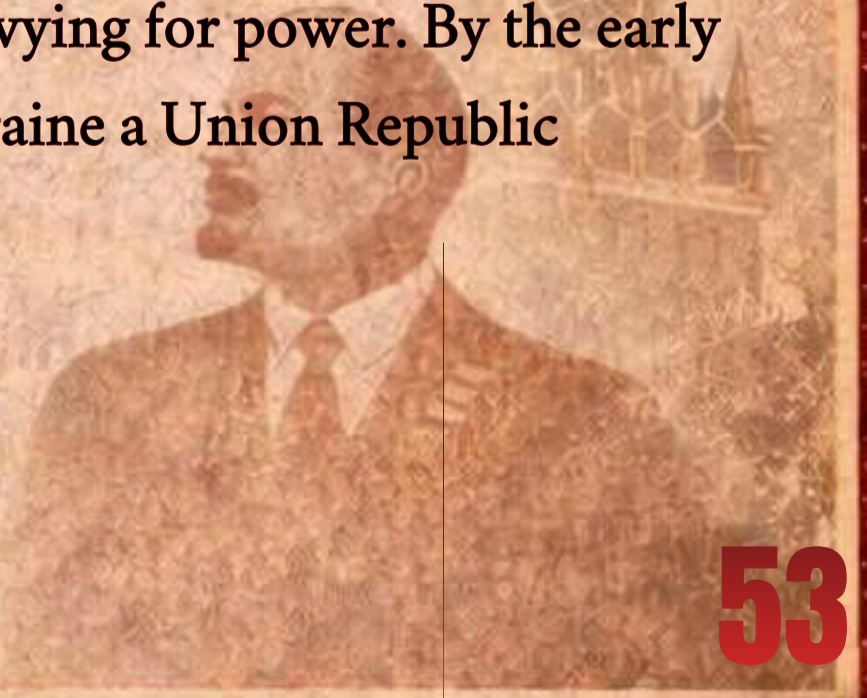
The Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic was the biggest and most important republic within the USSR. It occupied most of the territory of the previous empire and was the political and administrative center of the country. Moscow was its capital and also the capital of the entire USSR.

The RSFSR had a varied population and comprised a large number of autonomous regions for various ethnic groups within the empire. Most of the central bodies of the Soviet government, such as the Council of People's Commissars and the Communist Party leadership, were situated within the RSFSR and hence had a major impact on the administration of the entire USSR.

Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic

The Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic was one of the most important economies within the USSR. It had arable land, making it a major agricultural producer, especially of grain crops. Apart from agriculture, the region had major industrial centers, mainly in the east.

The region had experienced severe conflict during the Russian Civil War, with many players, including nationalists, the Whites, and Bolsheviks, vying for power. By the early 1920s, the Bolsheviks had gained total control, making Ukraine a Union Republic within the Soviet Union.



Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic

The Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic was located in the western part of the Soviet Union. It was relatively small compared to other Soviet republics in both population and industrialization. The region had gone through considerable territorial alteration and warfare in the Russian Civil War and the Polish-Soviet War. By the end of 1924, the Byelorussian SSR had become an agrarian state, where the mainstay of the economy was farming. The Byelorussian SSR had been incorporated into the USSR and had helped to consolidate the western frontier of the Soviet Union under Bolshevik control.

The Soviet Socialist Republics of the USSR in January 1924



Transcaucasian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic

The Transcaucasian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic was a federative republic, consisting of the smaller Soviet republics of Armenia, Azerbaijan, and Georgia. The areas had experienced political instability and conflicts during the fall of the Russian Empire and the Russian Civil War. In order to simplify administration, the Bolsheviks combined the three smaller Soviet republics into one federative republic, called the Transcaucasian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic, within the USSR. This was a strategic move, given the location of the republics and their access to natural resources, especially the oil fields in Azerbaijan.



SOVIET LAW AND LEGALITIES



Early Constitutional Development:-

A fundamental change from the idealistic principles of direct democracy to the creation of a centralized, one-party state characterized the USSR's early constitutional development up to 1924, the year of Lenin's death. Two important papers were created during this time: the USSR's 1924 Constitution and the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic's (RSFSR) 1918 Constitution.

The RSFSR Constitution of 1918 :

The USSR was founded primarily for the reasons listed below, starting with the RSFSR Constitution. Following the Bolshevik takeover of power in the October Revolution of 1917, the first Soviet constitution was ratified on July 10, 1918. It was intended to establish the dictatorship of the proletariat rather than a conventional liberal constitution that sought to restrict state power.

1. **Class Struggle:** Political liberties were expressly limited by the 1918 Constitution. It disenfranchised entire social strata considered "exploiters," including former aristocrats, merchants, clergy, and private entrepreneurs, while granting rights to the "toiling masses" (peasants and industrial workers).
2. **Rejection of Separation of Powers:** The constitution created a system of "Soviets" (councils) that controlled all governing authority rather than allocating power among the executive, legislative, and judicial institutions. The phrase "All Power to the Soviets" was codified into law, establishing a single, supreme body of governmental authority.
3. **Federal Structure:** The RSFSR was theoretically constituted as a federation of national republics under the 1918 Constitution, but in reality, the Communist Party controlled a large amount of authority in Moscow.



NOTE: THE OFFICIAL 1924 USSR CONSTITUTION WAS CREATED ON 31ST JANUARY 1924 (AFTER FREEZE DATE), TILL THEN THE RSFSR CONSTITUTION APPLIED TO THE SOVIET UNION, CONSIDERING THE FACT THAT THE RUSSIAN SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC WAS THE LARGEST AMONG THE OTHER SSRs. So, the 1924 USSR Constitution will not apply to the committee, instead the RSFSR Constitution will.

A link to the RSFSR Constitution of 1918, which will be used by the EB for the committee proceedings is provided below:

<https://www.marxists.org/history/ussr/government/constitution/1918/>

The Lack of the Principle of Constitutionalism within the USSR :

Scholars note a critical divergence during this period between the written law and the actual exercise of power. While the 1918 and 1924 Constitutions proclaimed the "Soviets" as the supreme authority, the real locus of power shifted to the Communist Party (then known as the Bolshevik Party).

During Lenin's final years, this "dual power" system emerged: the Soviets held the legal authority, but the Party held the effective power, making decisions that were later formally ratified by the Soviet bodies. This structure, often described as "utopian in form but totalitarian in practice," laid the groundwork for the highly centralized Stalinist system that would follow in the next decade .

The Soviet Criminal Code (SCC), 1922 :

The normative base of the first stage of criminal law codification became certain provisions of the Constitution of the RSFSR of July 10, 1918 and the resolution of the All-Russian Extraordinary Congress of Soviets of Workers' and Peasants' Deputies, which recognized the fact that the foundations of the laws of the RSFSR had been formed. During the first two years, until the adoption of the Guidelines Principles of 1919, the principles of the "classical school" of criminal law remained in effect.

The *second stage of criminal law codification* is considered to be a partial codification in the form of the "Guidelines for Criminal Law", approved by the decision of the People's Commissariat of Justice of the RSFSR on December 12, 1919. In doctrinal terms, this document was based on the Bolshevik interpretation of legalist legal thinking, the sociological school of criminal law and partly the psychological theory of law. At the same time, the "Guiding Principles" were called upon to act not as a recommendation, but as a binding act throughout the entire Republic and laid down the principles and ideological framework for judicial interpretation (at the level of people's courts, revolutionary and military tribunals).

At the *third stage of criminal law codification*, in the summer of 1920, the board of the RSFSR People's Commissariat of Justice on the whole approved the general scheme of the project of the republican Criminal Code with its pandect (dualistic) structure. In the future, People's Commissar D.I. Kursky was directly involved in the development of the General Part of the future Criminal Code of 1922. The Criminal Code of the RSFSR, approved on May 24, 1922 at the plenary meeting of the All-Russian Central Executive Committee, was published in its final version and entered into force on June 1, 1922. The Special part of the Criminal Code of 1922 united eight chapters (Articles 57 – 227), in which certain types of crimes were systematized on the subject of assault and public danger, clearly fixing the priorities of the criminal-punitive policy, headed by state crimes.

Chapter I of the Special Part of the Criminal Code, devoted to liability for state crimes, is divided into two subsections on counter-revolutionary crimes (Articles 57 – 73) and crimes against the order of government (Articles 74 – 104). It should be noted that the central norm of this subgroup in article 57 of the Criminal Code contained a norm-definition of "counter-revolutionary crime", acting as an auxiliary tool in the application by the courts of the analogy of the law in cases of acts not directly covered by the articles of the code, as well as in the interpretation of the very term "counterrevolutionary" in judicial practice.

Chapter II of the Criminal Code on official crimes (Articles 105 – 118) fixed the third most important and dangerous category of acts with a special subject of their commission – "official" (Article 109), which was the permanent or temporary workers of the Soviet apparatus, holding office by appointment or election.

They could be prosecuted both for bribery, embezzlement of state money or official forgery, and for discrediting the authorities, abuse or abuse of power, inaction of the authorities or negligent attitude towards the authorities. By the way, for qualified types of bribery, imprisonment for a term of at least three years was provided, and in especially aggravating circumstances – execution with confiscation of property (Articles 114 and 114-a).

In Chapter III of the Criminal Code, all criminal law norms were systematized for violating the rules on the separation of church and state (Articles 119-125), including the teaching of religious beliefs to minors in educational institutions and schools, the performance of religious rites, the forced collection of fees in favor of church and religious organizations. In addition, only in Ukraine were additional offenses introduced under Articles 125-3 and 125-4 of the Criminal Code on failure to provide information or reports on property intended for religious worship or religious purposes, or concealment of church property handed over to believers under an agreement. Various elements of economic crimes, codified in the norms of Chapter IV of the Criminal Code (Articles 126-141), differed depending on the degree of damage to the state economy by improper or mercenary conduct of business (for example, mismanagement as a special offense, the conclusion of unprofitable contracts), or in connection with violation of the duties of citizens (for example, labor desertion), the rules of foreign and domestic trade, state monopolies, excise duties, labor protection

A link to the Soviet Criminal Code of 1922, which will be used by the EB for the committee proceedings is provided below:

<https://soviethistory.msu.edu/1924/socialist-legality/socialist-legality-texts/first-soviet-criminal-code/>





THE SOVIET ECONOMY

War Communism

War Communism was an extremely intricate political and economic system implemented by Vladimir Lenin during his term as head of the Russian Revolution during the time period of 1918 to 1921. This system was brought in as a result of the Russian Civil war which began in 1917 and due to Lenin's political ideology. These systems had a detrimental effect on the socio-economic face of the country leading to widespread famine and social suffering. From 1914, Soviet Russia suffered through a continuous series of military revolutions. When Lenin became leader in 1917, he brought a series of Leftist Pro-Communist policies that had been inspired by Karl Marx's and Kaiser Wilhelm II's theories on Socialism. These included the forced conscription of peasants into industry and armies, as well as the nationalization of most industries. After finally gaining complete political control of Russia, Lenin brought in aspects of these policies. After seeing the disregard and hate these policies got from the common people, Lenin labeled them as merely "war communism" and a past, temporary necessity of war.

The basis of War Communism was the compulsory seizure of foodstuffs and their distribution without the market mechanism. The policy perhaps helped to win the war by keeping the army fed at least minimally, but it had negative consequences. Peasants reduced their planting to meet only their consumption needs, did their utmost to conceal their reserves from the requisitioning authorities, and occasionally responded to seizures with violent attacks on food collectors. Not only were peasants alienated by this policy, but a sharp decline in production also ensued.

Agricultural production fell by about 40 percent. Sown area was reduced, in passive response to grain seizure, by 34 percent from 1917 to 1920. Compared with production in 1913, yields of the major grains had fallen by more than 25 percent by 1920.

Industrial production fell by 70 percent between 1913 and 1921, and that of heavy industry by nearly 80 percent.

Coal extraction fell by 77 percent between 1913 and 1920. The results were serious famine and supply shortages. By the winter of 1920-1921, the civil war had essentially ended, and perhaps for this reason the resentment of the workers and peasants about the standard of living became stronger. The country witnessed a swelling tide of sporadic peasant uprisings; police counted 118 in February of 1921. Revolt was threatened in the countryside and workers rioted in the streets of Petrograd (St. Petersburg's new name). In March, 1921, sailors at the major naval base in Kronstadt mutinied, calling for economic reform and political change. There was an urgent need for reform. In the same month as the Kronstadt rebellion, the Tenth Party Congress approved the ending of War Communism.

NEW ECONOMIC POLICY (NEP)

In early 1921, the Soviet Union faced a severe economic crisis following the devastation of World War I and the Russian Civil War. In response to widespread discontent among peasants and workers due to the harsh policies of War Communism, Bolshevik leader Vladimir Lenin proposed the New Economic Policy (NEP) in March 1921. This policy marked a significant shift from radical state control towards a more market-oriented approach, aiming to stabilize the economy and regain the support of the peasantry. The NEP abolished forced grain requisitions and replaced them with a tax in kind, allowing farmers to sell their surplus produce in an open market.

“The New Economic Policy changed the implementation of communism, allowing more private entrepreneurship and giving greater incentives to individual farmers and business people”

In early 1921, the Soviet economy was in a grave economic crisis. Forced grain collection and centralized control of the economy helped the Red Army fight, but such tough measures led to continuous unhappiness among the poor majority of the country including the peasants, workers, and soldiers. Vladimir Ilich Lenin was forced to reject a very infamous principle of War Communism. In March, 1921, Lenin persuaded his colleagues Joseph Stalin, Nikolay Ivanovich Bukharin, Grigory Yevseyevich Zinovyev, and others to adopt the New Economic Policy (NEP) in an attempt to stabilize the economy and to consolidate the Soviet ideology.

The NEP represented a withdrawal from a radicalized economy. It reduced control of the government in the economy and gave farmers and smaller business owners access to the market. As a result, it helped the Soviet economy to recover, following the Russian Civil War.

Under the New Economic Policy, private enterprise was encouraged, within set limitations, in the areas of agriculture, domestic trade, light industries, and public services. The state, however, retained its monopoly over the so-called commanding heights: banking, heavy industries, transportation and communication, and foreign trade. Small businesses were granted a measure of economic freedom. Entrepreneurs were permitted to resume management of smaller concerns, to hire labor, and to trade more freely with the goods produced. The new class of small urban capitalists, however, suffered social pressures from which the peasants were exempt. It was difficult for them to obtain credit at banks, the rents on their apartments were often higher than their neighbors', and their children had to pay higher tuition fees at schools. Many of them expressed their suspicion that their situation was precarious and temporary by free spending and high living, taking advantage of liberties while they existed. The new era of "free enterprise" benefited not only the peasants and small-business owners but also individual workers. Trade unions, organized under the leadership of Mikhail Tomsky, were permitted to strike against the private capitalists. It was thought necessary that they be allowed to strike against state enterprises as well, even though they were urged not to do so and were reminded that by doing so they were by definition striking against themselves.

Significance of the NEP:

The most important impact of the New Economic Policy was the transformation of state-market and state-society relations. Specifically, the Soviet state no longer saw all market relations as negative. The main features of the NEP were the abandonment of forced requisitions in agriculture and the substitution for them of a tax in kind, the toleration of private ownership in trade and small-scale industry, and the attempt to entice foreign capitalists into the Soviet Union in order to acquire their badly needed skills and capital.

Replacing the policy of forced acquisition of grain with the tax in kind enabled farmers to sell their surplus food, giving a degree of market freedom to farmers. By allowing the operation of small private farms, the Soviet regime sought reconciliation with the peasantry. Many scholars have viewed the period of the NEP (1921-1928) as a relatively free period for agricultural and business activities under the Soviet government.

Under the new dispensation, the economy began to revive. Lenin told rank-and-file Communists to “master trade.” State industries and state farms were commanded to show a profit and to operate on commercial principles. Financial stability was slowly recovered. By the end of 1922, a third of government revenue was coming from the food tax, another third from a variety of direct money taxes, and the final third from the issuance of bank notes. The New Economic Policy restored a considerable measure of capitalism to the Soviet economy, particularly in agriculture and trade. Lenin’s idea was that by this strategic retreat the Communist Party could keep control of the country but stimulate its recovery from the destruction and disorganization of the war years. Once the pressing problem of getting the economy functioning again was solved, the party could then resume its advance toward socialism.

Internal trade was conducted by state trading organs (which were relatively few), private traders, and cooperatives. Cooperative trading bodies were actively encouraged by the government and became relatively successful in the sale of consumer goods in rural areas. State-controlled trade was confined primarily to wholesale trade in urban areas. In Moscow in 1922, 83 percent of retail trade was in private hands and only 7 percent in state hands, whereas 77 percent of wholesale trade was handled by the state. In the NEP period, agriculture developed along capitalistic lines. The peasants paid taxes that, with the passage of time, became more and more monetary taxes rather than in-kind taxes. The land belonged to the state, but the peasants did what they saw fit with it. In seven years, agriculture reached levels that were unsurpassed in prerevolutionary Russian history. These levels would never again be reached in the Soviet system under the increasingly repressive agricultural policies pursued by Joseph Stalin.





FOREIGN TIES OF THE USSR



Lenin's theoretical and practical legacy is the most valuable asset of our people and the entire revolutionary liberation movement. It is many-faceted and inexhaustible and is a powerful instrument in the struggle to transform the world. No wonder the advocates of capitalism find his ideas just as terrible and dangerous today as they did in his lifetime. That is why Leninism has been and remains the target of the fiercest attacks and a subject for the most subtle falsifications and slanders, A special effort is being made to use every possible means to denigrate and distort Lenin's views on foreign politics and international relations and to play down their importance in our own day. Equally strenuous efforts are being made to cast the wrong light on Lenin's practical activity in directing Soviet foreign policy.

In November 1920 Lenin surprised Western observers and his fellow Bolsheviks alike by declaring that “we have entered a new period in which we have . . . won the right to our international existence in the network of capitalist states.” By 1921, the generally accepted turning point in Soviet policy, Bolshevism had made the transition from a revolutionary movement to a functioning state. The Civil War was won, the New Economic Policy ended the brutal “War Communism” and restored a measure of free market activity to peasants, and the Soviet government was organized along traditional ministerial lines (though subject to the dictates of the Communist Party). Russia was ready needed to pursue traditional relations with foreign powers in search of capital, trade, and technology for reconstruction. The emergence of what Stalin called “Socialism in one country” therefore obliged the Soviets to invent out of whole cloth a “Communist” foreign policy.

That invention took shape as a two-track approach whereby Russia (from 1922 the U.S.S.R.) would on the one hand continue to operate as the center of world revolution, dedicated to the overthrow of the capitalist powers, and yet conduct an apparently regular existence as a nation-state courting recognition and assistance from those same powers.



The first track was the responsibility of the Comintern (Third International) under Grigory Zinovyev and Karl Radek; the second, of the Narkomindel (foreign commissariat) directed from 1920 to 1930 by the timid and cultured prewar nobleman, Georgy Chicherin. The Comintern enjoyed direct access to the Politburo, whereas the Narkomindel had no voice even in the Central Committee until 1925. In practice, however, the foreign policy interests of the U.S.S.R. dominated even the Comintern to such an extent that other Communist parties were not factions in their own country's politics so much as Soviet fifth columns operating abroad. When subversive activity flagged, diplomacy came to the fore; when diplomacy was unfruitful, revolution was emphasized. The goal was not to encourage "peace" or "progressive reform" in the West, but solely to enhance Soviet power. Thus Lenin instructed Comintern parties "to unmask not only open social patriotism but also the falseness and hypocrisy of social pacifism"; in other words, to do all that was possible to undermine Moscow's rivals on the left as well as on the right through the infiltration and subversion of Western labor unions, armed forces, newspapers, and schools. Yet Moscow readily ignored or confounded the efforts of local Communists when diplomatic opportunities with foreign countries seemed promising. The scent of betrayal this caused made mandatory the secrecy, discipline, and purges demanded of Communist parties abroad.

At the third congress of the Comintern in 1921 even Trotsky, the impassioned advocate of world revolution, admitted that the struggle of the proletariat in other countries was slackening. At that time the mutiny of Russian sailors at Kronshtadt and widespread famine in Russia impelled the party to concentrate on consolidating its power at home and reviving the economy. The Soviets, therefore, turned to the capitalists who, Lenin jeered, would "sell the rope to their own hangmen" in search of profits. Indeed, Western leaders, especially Lloyd George, viewed the vast Russian market as a kind of panacea for Western industrial stagnation and unemployment. But he and others misunderstood the nature of the Soviet state. Private property, commercial law, and hard currency no longer existed in Russia; one did business, not in a market, but on terms laid down by a state monopoly. What was more, by 1928 the whole point of trade was to allow the Soviet economy to catch up to the West in the shortest possible time and thus achieve complete self-sufficiency. It was, in George Kennan's words, a "trade to end all trade."

Foreign Threats faced by the USSR:

1) Military Intervention (The Allied Intervention & Russian Civil War) — The greatest threat came from the large-scale foreign military intervention during the Russian Civil War.

2) The Polish-Soviet War — This was a significant conventional war that threatened to spread revolution to Europe but led to a painful defeat.

Initially, Poland invaded to secure its borders, but the conflict changed. The Red Army's advance toward Warsaw in 1920 aimed to ignite a communist revolution in Poland and connect with a potential revolutionary Germany.

Significance: Poland scored a decisive victory at the Battle of Warsaw, known as the "Miracle on the Vistula." This crushed Lenin's hopes for quick revolutionary expansion into Central Europe. The 1921 Treaty of Riga gave Poland considerable territories, creating a lasting hostile neighbor.

3) Diplomatic and Economic Isolation — The USSR was largely seen as an international outcast. Major powers refused to recognize the Bolshevik government. It was not included in the Paris Peace Conference (1919) or the League of Nations. France and Britain encouraged creating a buffer zone of new or enlarged states (Poland, Czechoslovakia, Romania, the Baltic states) to physically and politically isolate the USSR from Europe. Both informal and formal blockades severely restricted trade, slowing the recovery of the war-damaged Russian economy.

4) Ideological and Revolutionary Threat — The West viewed the USSR as an ideological threat. This Moscow-based organization sought to promote communist revolutions around the world, undermining the governments of countries with which the USSR wanted diplomatic relations.

5) Regional Conflicts and Border Wars — Beyond the main fronts, the Soviet state fought to gain control over the territories of the former Russian Empire. Fighting occurred with Finland, the Baltic states (Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania), and there was involvement in conflicts in the Caucasus and Central Asia. While not all were started by the Bolsheviks, they showed the instability and violent contestation of its borders.



QUESTIONS TO CONTEMPLATE

- In the absence of Vladimir Lenin, should leadership be vested in a single individual or a collective body?
- What mechanism should determine succession within the Communist Party?
- Should Party leadership and state leadership be unified under one office?
- What limits, if any, should be placed on centralized authority?
- Should the Communist Party remain supreme over all state institutions?
- What should be the relationship between the Politburo and Sovnarkom?
- Who should control the Red Army and military decision-making?
- How should the internal security apparatus be regulated and overseen?
- How should key appointments within the Party and state be controlled?
- Should internal dissent within the Party be tolerated or suppressed?
- What measures are necessary to maintain Party unity?
- Should the New Economic Policy be continued, modified, or ended?
- What balance should exist between state control and private economic activity?
- How should agricultural and industrial challenges be addressed?
- To what extent should Soviet Republics retain autonomy?
- Should the Union move toward greater centralization or decentralization?
- Should the Soviet state prioritize internal stability or international revolution?
- What lessons from recent conflicts should guide future governance?
- What should be the long-term direction of the Soviet state?
- On what basis should legitimacy of leadership be established in the post-Lenin period?



GUIDE TO COMMITTEE PAPERWORK



Paperwork will play a crucial role in committee as it would not only give delegates an edge over others but also provide scope to the delegates to carry out their plans for committee and also change the entire course of committee. The following are the forms of paperwork that will be accepted in the Politburo of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union:

1. Position Papers :

Position Papers are documents which are used to communicate the general overview of a portfolio to the Executive Board. A position paper requires a brief statement of the problem, the policy/stance of the given portfolio on the problem, and the solutions put forth by the portfolio to bring an end to the problem. Additionally, the position paper must be provided with appropriate citations. [\[Sample\]](#).

Position Papers must be submitted to the committee email id (politburocpsu.lmcmun26@gmail.com) by 8th May, 2026, 11:59 PM.

2. Communiqué :

As the name suggests, a communique is used as a means of communication to other people, within or outside the committee. Communiques are of two types - Public and Private, and may be individually written or jointly written by 2 or more parties. Private communiques are sent to individual people, and are for their eyes only. They are used for secret negotiations or the elaboration of a covert plan of action. Public communiques, on the other hand, are used to make announcements to the entire committee, and anything written in a public communique is meant for perusal of the entire cabinet. When it comes to communiques, creativity and originality are key.

[\[Sample\]](#)

A total of two pre-committee communiques will be accepted from delegates. These must be submitted to the committee email id provided.

The deadline for the pre-committee communiques is 12th May 2026, 11:50 PM.



3. Directives:

These are going to be working like action orders – a plan of action. Delegates must use this to put into force any and all missions they undertake that come under their jurisdiction either in their individual capacity or in their joint capacity. These can be of private and public accessibility and contain both Joint and Lone Directives. [Sample]

COMMITTEE SPECIAL PAPERWORK:

1. Leninist Integrity Directive (LID) (Ленинская директива о добросовестности):

The Leninist Integrity Directive is a Special HANDWRITTEN ONLY Committee Paperwork for the PCPSU, submitted to formally initiate legal/court proceedings against a sitting member of the Politburo for conduct deemed detrimental to Party unity, state stability, or revolutionary integrity. The entire essence of this paperwork is to move the politburo into a court room and initiate trial against a member of the committee. If on being ratified by the EB and having majority vote of committee, the paperwork passess, the committee will move into a 2v2 debate between the prosecutors (the person who authored the paperwork + another delegate selected by him/her) and the defendant (the person against whom the paperwork is written + another delegate selected by him/her). The LID can only be initiated which specific violations of the Soviet Criminal Code stated by the Prosecutor.

Grounds for Submission:

1. This Motion may be invoked on the basis of:
2. Counter-revolutionary conduct
3. Abuse of departmental authority
4. Factionalism or anti-Party activity
5. Misuse of military or security organs
6. Economic sabotage or gross administrative misconduct
7. Actions exceeding constitutional authority
8. Other provisions as stated in the Soviet Criminal Code

Personal disagreements shall not constitute valid grounds.

THE FORMAT TO THE LID IS AS FOLLOWS : [SAMPLE LID].



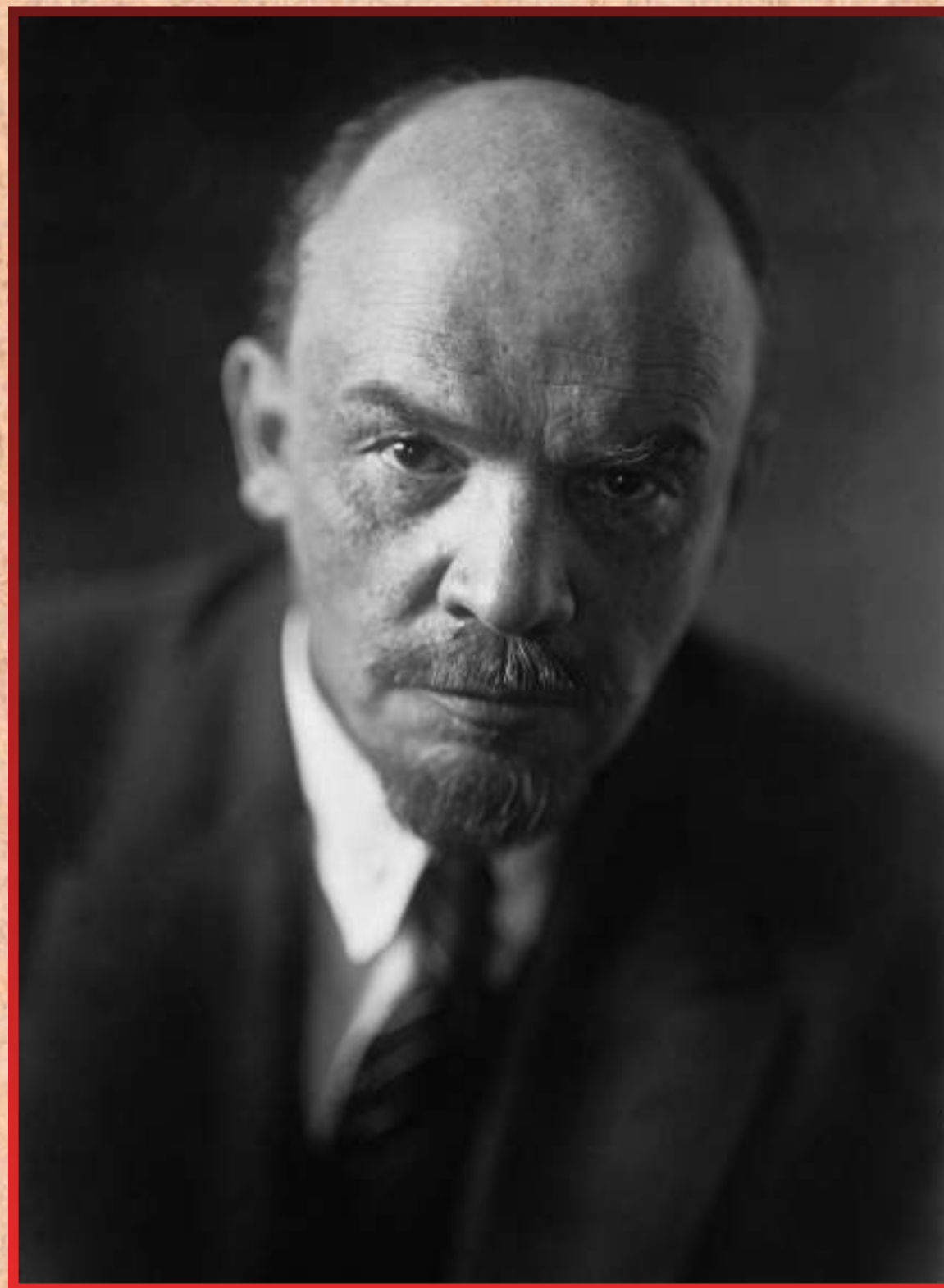
FINAL PAPERWORK FOR COMMITTEE:

CONSTITUTION OF USSR - [Further Details will be revealed later]

The Final Position Paper of the Committee shall consist of the drafting and adoption of a Constitutional Framework defining:

1. The structure of the Soviet State.
2. The distribution of powers between state organs.
3. The relationship between the Communist Party and the State.
4. The executive authority replacing the leadership previously exercised by Vladimir Lenin.
5. The mechanisms of accountability and removal of high officials

The Constitution must be clear, precise, and legally structured. Ambiguity will be subject to Chair review.





CONCLUDING NOTES

Delegates of this committee are advised to be prepared for a highly fast-paced, crisis-driven and dynamic committee. The Executive Board expects delegates to engage not merely in discussion, but in decisive action, even through communiques if necessary. This is not a conventional deliberative body delegates, it is a PURE cabinet, it is the Politburo. All delegates must strictly adhere to the freeze date: 22 January 1924. All arguments, alliances, and decisions must be rooted within the political, ideological, and material realities of the Soviet Union immediately following the death of Vladimir Lenin and portfolio policies.

Delegates are expected to maintain a clear distinction between the Party and the State, and to understand the mechanisms through which power operates within both. Influence in this committee will not be derived solely from speeches, but from the ability to maneuver through party structures, build alliances, control narratives, and utilize one's allotted position effectively. Delegates must consider how their actions impact both internal party dynamics and the stability of the Soviet state as a whole. Delegates are expected to submit creative yet logical, and actionable paperwork. Paperwork should directly respond to crisis updates and aim to create tangible shifts in committee dynamics. Delegates are also encouraged to keep in mind Soviet Law, as legalities in certain instances will play a role in the committee.

For first-time delegates, the nature of this committee may appear complex and demanding. The Executive Board will ensure clarity of procedure and guidance when required. For experienced delegates, this committee presents an opportunity to demonstrate not only knowledge, but control and the ability to be highly creative. Spread your wings, bring out your inner red terror and unleash it upon the politburo! GOOD LUCK Delegates.

Cheers to a great gathering of the Politburo,
Executive Board,
Politburo of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union,
LMCMUN 2026.



RESEARCH SUGGESTIONS



Beyond the references and citations provided in the next few pages some other research materials we found which were pretty engaging and amusing from youtube where the following videos, we do recommend each and every delegate to go through them once before committee.

<https://youtu.be/Cqbleas1mmo> - The Russian Revolution - OverSimplified (Part 1)

<https://youtu.be/b1reY72ktEc> - The Russian Revolution - OverSimplified (Part 2)

<https://youtu.be/9N8hsXQapjY> - History vs. Vladimir Lenin - Alex Gendler





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