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**Part Two: Chapters 5 to 7
Appendices and Bibliography**

THE ROLE OF SOCIALIST COMPETITION IN ESTABLISHING
LABOUR DISCIPLINE IN THE SOVIET WORKING CLASS,
1928-1934

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SOCIALIST COMPETITIONIntroduction

Among the most striking features of the Soviet industrialisation drive during the period under review that distinguish it from corresponding developments in other countries was the role accorded to socialist competition. The importance attached to this phenomenon by the Party leadership and the speed with which it spread through Soviet society are attested to by the fact that at the beginning of 1929 the term 'socialist competition' (sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie)¹ had yet to be coined, whereas by the end of that year it had already become an integral and, as it transpired, permanent feature of Soviet industrial relations. This Chapter examines the origins, aims development and characteristics of socialist competition with special reference to its role in the establishment of labour discipline.

Although socialist competition has been studied only scantily in the West,² there is an extensive fund of material on the subject in the Soviet Union.³ The periodisation of socialist competition most favoured by Soviet labour historians is as follows:⁴

1917 to 1928	the Maturity of the Prerequisites for Competition
1929 to 1935	the Shock Worker Movement
1935 to 1957	the Stakhanovite Movement.

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1 This term is sometimes translated as 'socialist emulation', a useful distinction from 'capitalist competition' and one that embodies the notions of comparison and example. See, for example, Article 15 of the 1977 Constitution of the USSR, Constitution (Fundamental Law) of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, Moscow, 1982, p.20. However, the term 'socialist competition' has become so widespread in Western works on the subject that I have elected to use it throughout.

2 The best known work on the subject remains Solomon Schwarz, Labor in the Soviet Union, New York, 1952, although even he devotes little space to the phenomenon. See pp.188-193.

3 A good bibliography is contained in I.E. Vorozheikin, Ocherk istoriografii rabochego klassa SSSR, M. 1975. pp. 271-280.

4 See, for example, N.B. Lebedeva, 'Noveishaya istoriografiya sotsialisticheskogo sorevnovaniya v SSSR', in Voprosy istorii, 1976, no.2, p.49.

Thus, the Soviet historian is at pains to stress the continuity in the development of the movement, an argument that, as will be demonstrated, does not bear close scrutiny.

In this section I shall suggest an alternative periodisation of socialist competition that may be summarised thus:

- 1918 to 1920 Early Manifestations of Competition and Shock Work
- 1926 to 1928 the Development of Prototypes of Shock Work and Competition
- 1929 to 1931 the Shock Worker Movement in the Socialist Offensive
- 1931 to 1934 Socialist Competition aimed at Raising Skills
- 1935 to 1941 the Stakhanovite Movement.

It should be noted at the outset that, although the shock worker movement (udarnichestvo) became a prominent feature of socialist competition during the first five year plan, the two movements have quite different antecedents. Moreover, it was the shock worker movement, often referred to as the 'brain child' of competition, that was spreading most rapidly in the years immediately prior to 1929, the year of 'the great breakthrough' (velikii perelom).

The concept of utilising competition among workers as a means of raising labour productivity was not in itself new. Such pioneers of industrial organisation as Robert Owen had tested the idea, but found it wanting.⁵ More importantly, it had been rejected as a viable component of modern industrial relations by such an advocate of scientific management as F.W. Taylor, whose theories influenced Lenin considerably.⁶

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5 Sidney Pollard, 'Factory Discipline in the Industrial Revolution', in The Economic History Review, vol. XVI, no.2, December 1963, p.267. Pollard makes the point that Owen's methods were not copied because they ran counter to the accepted beliefs and ideology of the employing class, which regarded the workers as poor due to their own inadequacies. loc. cit. Naturally, this was not the case in the USSR in the period under review.

6 F.W. Taylor, Scientific Management, New York, 1947, p.37. For detailed analyses of Lenin's views on Taylor see Robert Linhart, Lenine, Les Paysans, Taylor, Paris, 1976, especially Part Two 'Lenine et Taylor'; Charles S. Maier, 'Between Taylorism and Technocracy: European Ideologies and the Vision of Industrial Productivity in the 1920's', in Journal of Contemporary History, 1970, vol 5, no.2, pp.51-60; Kendall E. Bailes, 'Alexei Gastev and the Soviet Controversy over Taylorism, 1918-24', in Soviet Studies, vol. XXXIX, no.3, July 1977, pp.373-394; Zenovia A. Suchor, 'Soviet Taylorism Revisited', in Soviet Studies, vol. XXXIII, no.2, April 1981, pp.246-264.

This notwithstanding, in the very first months of Soviet power Lenin had perceived a potential application for competition in Soviet industry. As early as January 1918 he had written an article entitled "How to Organise Competition"⁷ in which he elaborated his views on the concept. The work was not published at the time however, probably due to the fact that it was never completed,⁸ but its subsequent publication in January 1929 was instrumental in the launching of the nationwide campaign for socialist competition (a term, it should be stressed, that Lenin did not use himself).

However, in an article that was printed at the time, "The Great Beginning" (Velikii pochin) published in July 1919,⁹ Lenin welcomed warmly the first manifestation of competition in Soviet Russia: the subbotnik (voluntary labour day) at the Moscow Sorting Station on the Moscow to Kazan' railway on 12 April 1919.¹⁰ Moreover, the 9th Party Congress in April 1920 passed a resolution, clearly bearing Lenin's influence, on the role of competition in raising labour productivity:¹¹

"Alongside agitational and ideological influence on the working masses and repressive measures directed at persistent idlers, parasites and disorganisers, a powerful force for raising labour productivity lies in competition."

Although Lenin's hopes for competition were not realised in his lifetime, his concept of competition as a force was utilised from 1929 by Stalin, not initially, as will be shown, for raising productivity, but as a means of establishing within the work force a level of labour discipline that would be commensurate to the raising of labour productivity. It will

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7 V.I. Lenin Polnoe sobranie sochinenii, 5th edn., vol.35, M. 1962, pp.195-205.

8 L.S. Rogachevskaya, Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v SSSR: istoricheskie ocherki, 1917-1970, M. 1977, p.6n. Another source indicates that the work was discontinued due to the Brest-Litovsk negotiations. See E.H. Carr and R.W. Davies Foundations of a Planned Economy, 1926-1929, vol.1, London, p.515.

9 V.I. Lenin, Polnoe Sobranie, vol.39, M. 1963, pp.1-29.

10 D. Ovcharov, 'V.I. Lenin o vseмирno-istoricheskom znachenii pervykh kommunisticheskikh subbotnikov' in Kommunisticheskaya partiya - vdokhnovitel' i organizator vsenarodnogo sotsialisticheskogo sorevnovaniya v SSSR, M. 1961, p.10.

11 Resolution dated 3 April 1920 'Ob ocherednykh zadachakh khozyaistvennogo stroitel'stva' in Resheniya partii i pravitel'stva po khozyaistvennym voprosam, vol.1, M. 1967, p.164.

be argued that in this political and economic task socialist competition proved as effective a weapon as either propoganda or labour legislation. Indeed, in some respects, socialist competition incorporated and displaced the role of both during the early years of the First Five-Year Plan.

THE SHOCK WORKER MOVEMENT IN THE SOCIALIST OFFENSIVE

The separate evolution of the shock worker movement and competition is most evident in the initial development of 1919 and 1920. As noted above, the point of departure in the development of competition was the subbotnik on the Moscow to Kazan' railway on 12 April 1919 in which 13 communist and two nonparty workers voluntarily worked a Saturday for no pay.¹ This velikii pochin spawned similar labour demonstrations the following year and eventually became an annual event. The most notable development of this movement in 1920 was the Labour Month (trudovoi mesyats) that was organised in the Urals from 28 March until 1 May.² This was supposed to incorporate Lenin's three basic principles of competition: repeatability (povtvorenie), publicity (glasnost') and the comparability of results.³ It is instructive to note that, from the beginning any 'voluntary' principle was breached: those that failed to turn up for the two to five hours daily overtime without pay were branded as deserters from the labour front, were expelled from the Party, suspended from their union, displayed on 'black' boards of disgrace or sent before Comrades' Courts,⁴ features of competition that were all to re-emerge when the movement became nationwide in 1929.

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1 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v SSSR, 1918-1964 - dokumenty i materialy profsoyuzov, M. 1965, pp.23-24.

2 A. Fadeev, 'Kommunisty - organizatory ural'skogo trudovogo mesyatsa' in Kommunisticheskaya partiya - vdokhnovitel', pp.60-71.

3 V.I. Lenin, Polnoe sobranie, vol.36, M. 1962, pp.60-71.

4 Kommunisticheskaya partiya - vdokhnovitel' (A. Fadeev), pp.67.68.

A particular stimulus to competition at this time was the celebration of Lenin's 50th birthday in April 1920.⁵ Significantly, the mass movement for socialist competition in 1929 coincided with Stalin's 50th birthday.⁶

Despite the resolution of the 9th Party Congress in April 1920, competition did not become a mass phenomenon at this time. The ravages of the Civil War, the militarisation of labour in 1920 and the fatigue through malnourishment of the urban labour force combined to make such initiatives inappropriate. The impetus for competition was finally lost with the adoption of the New Economic Policy in 1921 and, in the following year, the new Labour Code, in which trade unions and workers were not obliged to raise productivity, merely exhorted to do so.⁷

The important distinction between these early manifestations of competition and the simultaneous development of shock work was that the former tended to emanate from above in the form of campaign (albeit at a local level) and was aimed at an overall increase in labour productivity, whereas the latter was directed at tackling urgent problems in industry and represented a response from below to the situation pertaining in the country at the time.

Shock work had quite a distinct, military pedigree. The term 'shock' (udarnyi) appeared in the Revolutionary period when small units of volunteers would undertake particularly dangerous and important missions.⁸ The first 'shock' battalions were established as early as May 1917 in the armies of the Provisional Government

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5 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v SSSR, 1918-1964, p.26.
6 See Trud, 21 December 1929. The adulation surrounding the leader (vozhd') at this time is seen as the beginning of Stalin's 'personality cult' (kul't lichnosti). See, for example, T. Szamuely, 'The Elimination of Opposition between the Sixteenth and Seventeenth Congresses of the CPSU', Soviet Studies, vol. XVII, no.3, Jan. 1966, p.337; R. Medvedev, K sudu istorii, New York, 1974, p.302.
7 For an evaluation of shock work and competition at this time see E.H. Carr, The Bolshevik Revolution 1917-1923, vol. II, London, 1952, p.217; For the 1922 Labour Code see Mervyn Matthews, Soviet Government: A Selection of Official Documents on Internal Policies, London, 1974, pp.413-424.
8 A.P. Finarov, 'Kak nachalos' udarnichestvo v SSSR', in Voprosy istorii, 1966, no.10, p.198.

under the command of General Denikin.⁹ With the onset of the Civil War, military discipline was spread first to the railway workers, and subsequently to other key industries. Thus, at a time of great danger and need, groups of workers drawn mainly from the ranks of the Party or Komsomol, would volunteer for urgent industrial tasks. The first of these shock groups has been traced to the second half of 1919, and many were still functioning in the summer of 1920.¹⁰ As with the early experience of competition, the voluntary principle proved to be prescriptive rather than ascriptive. As the crisis of the Civil War receded, the urgency of such tasks was diminished and the prime motivation for the shock groups disappeared.¹¹

THE ORIGINS OF THE SHOCK BRIGADES

A variety of factors combined to facilitate the reemergence of shock work in the latter half of the 1920's, not initially among the working class as a whole, but predominantly among the urban youth of proletarian backgrounds.¹² By 1926 the first products of entirely

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9 Istoriya grazhdanskoi voiny v SSSR, vol. 1, M. 1935, pp.274-278.

10 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti SSSR, M. 1973, p.44; Voprosy istorii, 1966, no.10 (A.P. Finarov), p.201.

11 This despite an interesting instruction issued by the VTsSPS bureau of production propaganda on 18 December 1920 on the formation of 'Production cells' (proizvodstvennie yaicheiki) at enterprises to organise competitions, shock groups which "by their own example will demonstrate to the rest of the working masses how much it is possible to increase labour productivity" and lead the campaign against absenteeism and violation of labour discipline, in Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v SSSR, 1918-1964, p.30.

12 For an interesting article that argues this point see Hiroaki Kuromiya, 'The Crisis of Proletarian Identity in the Soviet Factory; 1928-1929' in Slavic Review, vol. 44, no.2, Summer 1985, pp.280-297. His findings are supported by the results of an investigation carried out by Moscow's regional trade union council and Komsomol, which stated "it was not fortuitous that socialist competition began amongst the Komsomol and spread from there to other groups of workers. The young leading workers, who had not inherited from the capitalist factory old habits (and the force of habit is the most terrible thing), naturally found it easier to master the new tasks and new forms of socialist labour." The authors add that the young, unskilled workers from the countryside were the least involved. Moskovskie udarniki za rabotoi: po materialam obsledovaniya MOSPS i MK VLKSM, M. 1930, p.6.

Soviet schooling were joining the work force, a group that shared neither the sense of alienation to the Soviet factory experienced by the peasant recruits to the working class, who were beginning to enter the work force in ever increasing numbers from 1926, nor the restrictive customs and practices of the mature proletarian workers. This latter group had enjoyed an unprecedented period of rights since the adoption of the 1922 Labour Code and the Party leadership was becoming increasingly worried at the failure of exhortations to increase labour productivity, cut production costs and tighten labour discipline. The first warning on alleged falling levels of discipline had been voiced in 1925¹³ and in the following year the Party had issued a decree on "The Struggle for the Regime of Economy".¹⁴ This was followed in March 1927 with a further Party decree "On Questions of Rationalising Production",¹⁵ a rallying call that was to generate a tangible response amongst the urban factory youth, many of whom had been frustrated by the slow pace and craft attitudes of their elders. This was to develop into an overt conflict between the old and the new in the workshop, a conflict exacerbated by the introduction at precisely this period of such modern production techniques as continuous flow processes and conveyor belts. This conflict was to come to a head in December 1928 at the 8th Congress of Soviet trade unions, when Komsomol delegates clashed with the union leadership over the role of shock work.¹⁶

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13 According to P. Levenstern, 'Zakonodatel'noe regulirovanie voprosov trudovoi distsipliny', in Voprosy truda, 1930, no.4, p.54 the term 'labour discipline' had been used first in legislation in the decree of Narkomtrud SSSR of 3 February 1925. The first Party decision to use the term during the reconstruction period would appear to be the resolution of the Central Committee plenum on 9 April 1926 'On the Economic Situation and Economic Policy', in Resheniya...vol.1 p.522.

14 Appeal of the Central Committee and Central Control Committee to all Party organisations, to all Party Control commissions, to all Members of the Party working in economic, cooperative, trade, banking and other institutions, in Resheniya...vol.1, pp.525-530.

15 Decree of TsK VKP(b) dated 24 March 1927, in ibid., pp.605-611.

16 There is a detailed account of this clash at the VIIIth VTsSPS Congress in E.H. Carr and R.W. Davies, Foundations of a Planned Economy, 1926-1929, vol.1, London, 1969, pp.552-563.

All these factors resulted in the urban industrial youth and its organisation, the Komsomol, setting the pace in reviving the concept of shock work in the period 1926 to 1928.¹⁷ Even the military link was reestablished when, on 2 June 1928, the Komsomol approved a new khakhi uniform (which was to become a commonplace feature on the construction sites and shock projects of the First Five-Year Plan.)¹⁸ However, even before the shock movement took off, there is strong evidence that the youngsters were generally displaying more idealism and vigour at work than their elders. The most graphic account of this is contained in the short novel "The Exuberant Sun" (P'yanoie solntse) written in 1927 by Fedor Gladkov (the work was soon to be banned and still does not appear in this celebrated author's collected works). In the passage quoted, Sofia Petrovna, an old Party worker with twenty years industrial experience, describes the condition of the working youth:¹⁹

These are hard years for our youngsters. They quickly burn out, overwork themselves, suffer nervous breakdowns and, by the time most of them are eighteen or twenty, they are either crippled or dried up, soulless old people. Take this sanatorium: at least a third of those here are Komsomol, and they all look like middle-aged, long-suffering folk who are quite worn out.

I can't bear to watch the way we torment horses: we heap 100 poods onto a cart and we're off. The horse strains in the shafts but can't budge an inch, and they torture it with a whip and sticks. It's the same with our youngsters. I can't agree with that, I just can't accept it.

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17 Stalin had given the Komsomol initiative a tremendous boost when he personally addressed its 5th Conference in March 1927 and called for 'temporary sacrifices' from the youngsters. "The history of our Revolution", he claimed, "states that not one major step has been taken without certain sacrifices on the part of an individual group of the working class in the interests of the entire working class of our country...There is no need to tell you that the present insignificant sacrifices will be recouped with interest in the nearest future. This is why I think that we must not hesitate at certain insignificant sacrifices in the interests of the working class as a whole." in I.V. Stalin, Sochineniya, vol.9, 1952, pp.197-198.

18 Komsomol'skaya pravda, 2 June 1928.

19 Fedor Gladkov, Sobranie sochinenii, M - L, 1929, vol.3, p.265.

Just when and where the first shock brigade was formed has been the subject of controversy (and not a little parochialism!) amongst Soviet historians of this period.²⁰ It is instructive, perhaps, to heed the advice of two contemporary observers of the subject who wrote in 1931:²¹

"Let future historians argue who was first. For us, living today, it is absolutely unimportant."

A relatively recent history of socialist competition,²² claims that the earliest shock brigade so far traced is that in the repair shops of the Moscow to Kazan' railway, formed by the Komsomol member, Nikolai Nekrasov, "at the beginning of 1926".²³ However, earlier references places the formation of this group more precisely as July 1926.²⁴ If this latter date is correct, then one might press the claims of the first youth brigade in the main machine shop of the Zlatoust Machine Works in the Urals that tried unsuccessfully to get the plant management to accept their form of shock work "at the beginning of 1926".²⁵ Another contender for the title 'first shock brigade' is the collective of girls (the number involved varies from eight to 120!!)²⁶ at the Krasnyi Treugol'nik factory in Leningrad. In September 1926 the factory management and Komsomol committee reorganised their working procedures
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20 The most favoured candidates are Komsomol groups at Leningrad's Krasnyi Treugol'nik (see note 26 below) and Ravenstvo (see note 42 below) works, on the Moscow-Kazan' railway (see notes 23 and 24 below) and at the Zlatoust Machine Works in the Urals (see notes 34-38 below).

21 V. Afanas'ev and A. Grishkevich, Fakty dva goda sotsialisticheskogo sorevnovaniya, 29.iv.1929-29.iv.1931, Leningrad, 1931, p.23.

22 L.S. Rogachevskaya, op. cit.

23 ibid. p.73; According to Yu. Kulyshhev, L.S. Rogachevskaya, Pervye udarnye, M. 1961, p.8, this occurred in April 1926.

24 F.P. Zimoglyadov, Kommunisticheskaya partiya sovetskogo soyuza vo glave trudovoi aktivnosti mass, 1928-1941, M. 1973, p.15; Politicheskii i trudovoi pod'em rabocheho klassa SSSR (1928-29gg): sbornik dokumentov, M. 1956, p.558.

25 Ocherki razvitiya sotsialisticheskogo sorevnovaniya na Urale (1917-1967), (Sverdlovskii institut narodnogo khozyaistva), vyp.7, Sverdlovsk, 1970, p.37.

26 R.P. Dadykin, Nachalo massovogo sotsialisticheskogo sorevnovaniya v promyshlennosti SSSR, M. 1954, p.70 notes eight; L.S. Rogachevskaya, op. cit. p.74, declares 120. It would appear that the original 'shock eight' (udarnaya vos'merka) commenced intensive methods of work which were then spread to the entire workshop.

At this point it is worth emphasising once more that the shock movement and competition were not directed at the same targets at this stage. The 'best worker' competitions were an attempt to increase productivity amongst all youngsters, whereas the first shock brigades were aimed at utilising new production processes, reducing costs and strengthening labour discipline, as well as increasing output. This becomes evident when one examines the factory most widely acknowledged as "the cradle of the shock worker movement"³³ the Zlatoust Machine Works. From July 1927, so called initiative groups had been organised at this plant, being a transitional form of shock production brigades.³⁴ However, it would appear that the first group to actually call itself a 'shock brigade' was that formed by Komsomol member, Dudarev, on 15 November 1927,³⁵ (although another account names the leader as Simonov and notes that there were ten Komsomol members in the brigade not nine as given elsewhere).³⁶

It would appear that the immediate stimulus to set up a shock brigade was the introduction of the conveyor belt to the foundry where the group all worked.³⁷ However, it was doubtless due also to the extremely low level of labour discipline existing in the foundry at that time: "low skills, careless attitudes to work, a high level of defective output, absenteeism, arbitrarily quitting work and hooliganism" all appeared to have been commonplace.³⁸ The charter of Dudarev's brigade

was printed on 22 April 1928 in the newspaper of the Zlatoust Komsomol, Na Smenu . A significant article in the same newspaper on 29 December 1928, at which time it was claimed that 50 shock brigades were operating

33 Izvestiya, 15 January 1930.

34 Politicheskii i trudovoi pod'em, pp.101-102.

35 Ocherki razvitiya, p.37.

36 S. Kolosnitsyn, 'Pervaya udarnaya' in Na putyakh k pobedam, Zlatoust, 1931, pp.5-6. Yet another account notes 9 Komsomol and 2 non-Party members, Politicheskii i trudovoi pod'em, p.102.

37 D. Reznikov, Udarnye brigady sotsializma, M-L, 1930, p.10.

38 Na putyakh, p.5.

in the Zlatoust region alone,³⁹ noted that "shock work arose, grew and spread in an intense struggle with hostile, bigoted and backward elements, in a struggle with old habits and views."

That Dudarev's brigade was not immune to this is demonstrated in the article "Shock Brigades" printed in Komsomolskaya Pravda on 11 May 1928. The same article notes the simultaneous formation of shock brigades at another Urals plant, the Lys'va metalworks. Despite the fact that Dudarev's brigade cut costs, increased productivity and had an excellent disciplinary record, within 7 or 8 months the factory management had dispersed all members of the group to different parts of the foundry.⁴⁰ This hostility from management, as well as from the mature workers, was to characterise the spread of the shock movement during the first years of the Five-Year Plan. However, it is recorded that adult workers first started joining shock brigades as early as the Autumn of 1928, by which time, of course, Dudarev's initiative at the Zlatoust Machine Works had floundered.⁴¹

Because this experiment in Zlatoust was so short lived, certain Soviet historians maintain that the first real shock brigade was the group of 49 girls at Leningrad's Ravenstvo cotton spinning mill, who formed on 16 July 1928 what they called a model-exemplary group (opytno-pokazatel'naya gruppa),⁴² utilising intensified work procedures to increase productivity. This group was still operational when the mass movement for socialist competition got under way in 1929. Indeed, the group had achieved so much publicity that, in May 1929, the factory management made the premature and ill-fated attempt to transfer all its workers on to this method of work and declare Ravenstvo to be the first 'shock' factory in the land.⁴³

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39 Ocherki razvitiya, p.38.

40 Na putyakh, p.12.

41 L.S. Rogachevskaya, op. cit. p.104.

42 E.G. Kozhevnikova, 'Udarniki' in Neizvedannymi putyami. Vospominaniya, uchastnikov sotsialisticheskogo stroitel'stva. (Institut istorii partii Lenobkoma KPSS), L. 1967, pp.126-136. Lebedeva and Shkaratan, op. cit. p.79 call the Ravenstvo youngsters the first complex (skvoznaya) shock brigade.

43 Kommunisticheskaya partiya - vdokhnovitel', p.108 (A. Dubin).

Nevertheless, by 1928, there was clearly widespread friction in workshops throughout the country between the old and new attitudes to work as the article in Komsomol'skaya Pravda on 30 March 1928 illustrates. As the Komsomol tended to support the new methods and the union leadership oppose them, matters were bound to come to a head at the 8th Congress of Soviet Trade Unions in December 1928. However as the leadership of the AUCCTU constituted a key element of the Right Opposition, which was opposed to Stalin's plan for rapid industrialisation, the dispute became subordinated to the wider argument over the pace of industrial development. On this, political, question the Party had the support of the Komsomol, a fact that was to have a decisive influence on the outcome of the debate on socialist forms of work.

In his report on the work of the AUCCTU at the 8th Congress in December, Mikhail Tomskii the Chairman, was taken to task by a young Komsomol delegate, Zhdanov, for not advocating the socialist organisation of youth work.⁴⁸ Tomskii returned to this question in his summing up:⁴⁹

What, in fact, is this socialist organisation of work by adolescents (podrostki)?... The socialist organisation of work: is it a blessing? If it is then why only for adolescents and not for all workers? You must say distinctly, clearly and simply what the socialist organisation of work is, and if it turns out to be indisputably a good thing, then why aren't you advocating it for all? And have you spoken anywhere of this distinctly? No. You simply pronounce that beautiful phrase. But beautiful phrases can sometimes be extremely beautiful in form, but completely lacking in substance.

At present, in the transitional period from capitalism to socialism, and we are living in precisely this period, we do not yet know what form the socialist organisation of work will take. We can only forecast.

The socialist organisation of work, according to our supposition, will mean that people from childhood will be fully and comprehensively educated, at the same time studying labour processes and the laws of mechanics. I suggest to you that a mature socialist society will be one that is mechanised to the highest degree. I suggest that the socialist organisation of work in the matured form of socialism will exclude all elements of work compulsion and will rest on the conscientious attitude towards socially necessary work operations of an individual with a social, collectivist psychology. People will then work not because they are obliged to do so by the factory rules or the collective agreement, but because, being members of society, they cannot but work, cannot but fulfil socially necessary functions.

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48 Vos'moi s'ezd professional'nykh soyuzov SSSR: stenograficheskii otchet, M. 1929, p.111.

49 ibid. p.191.

Despite the standing applause that Tomskii received at this Congress and the silence which greeted Zhdanov's contribution, it was the latter's line that was to prevail in the very near future.

THE BEGINNINGS OF MASS SHOCK WORK AND SOCIALIST COMPETITION

Several hitherto separate campaigns came together early in 1929 to produce the mass spread of shock work and socialist competition. Youth shock brigades were taking root all over the country, progressively more production competitions and checks were being initiated, the introduction of the seven-hour day and new production techniques provided an extra stimulus to the search for new methods of work, the campaigns for renewing collective agreements, for re-elections to the Soviets, as well as the publication of the control figures for the Five-Year Plan were an added source of enthusiasm, the Party had launched a major drive to improve labour discipline and the political struggle between Stalin's faction and the Right Opposition was reaching a decisive stage. In retrospect, Soviet historians tend to stress the mutual interdependence of all these factors. However, it wasn't until the 16th Party Conference, in April 1929 that this interdependence was first articulated.

It is important to stress that the control figures for the First Five-Year Plan, which had been approved by the Party plenum in November 1928, made no provision for competition or shock work. However, by 29 April 1929, in appealing to the workers of the USSR to join in socialist competition, the 16th Party Conference was unable to declare unambiguously the "competition and the five-year plan are indissolubly linked."⁵⁰ In this intervening period the key question of overriding importance became the pace (or tempo) of industrialisation. As all other matters became subordinated to this political question they tended to lose their individual significance.

A good example of this is the appearance of the term 'socialist competition'. The first recorded mention of this in the central press,

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50 Resheniya partii i pravitel'stva po khozyaistvennym voprosam (1917-1967), vol.2, M. 1967, p.45.

Pravda that first made the vital link between competition and shock work in ~~the~~ article on 26 January, in which "shock groups and youth shifts" are included in the Komsomol's arsenal along with forms of competition. In this article it was suggested that an All-Union competition for young workers commence on 15 March. Two days later the Bureau of the Komsomol Central Committee agreed this plan, forming on 9 February a committee to organise the competition.⁵⁵ On 20 February the commencement date was confirmed by a joint Vesenkha, VTsSPS and Komsomol decree.⁵⁶

On 31 January the miners of Gorlovka responded to the appeal by Rabochaya Gazeta by challenging, via the newspaper, the miners of Irminsk to raise productivity, cut costs, improve labour discipline and increase the mass cultural work of its union committee. The Irminsk miners agreed to accept the challenge on 8 February and they were joined on 10 February by the Kuzbas miners and on 16 February by the Moscow coal miners.⁵⁷ Also on 31 January the miners' union newspaper Kochevarka carried details of what many observers regard as the very first socialist competition pact, between the miners of the Northern and Shcherbinovka pits in the Donbas in coal getting and reduction of costs.⁵⁸ However, as this was only a 'verbal' challenge, the first written pact

is generally accepted to be that signed (somewhat confusingly!) also on 31 January between the miners of the Northern pit (Artemsk) and

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55 R.P. Dadykin, op. cit. pp.5-8.

56 On 20 February a joint meeting of the Presidia of Vesenkha SSSR and RSFSR, the Collegium of Narkomput and the bureau of the Komsomol passed a resolution 'On the Organisation of an All-Union Competition in Reducing Output Costs' to commence 15 March. Torgovo-promyshlennaya gazeta, 21 February 1929.

57 R.P. Dadykin, op. cit. p.89.

58 Politicheskii i trudovoi pod'em, p.193.

the Central Pit No.1. in Gorlovka.⁵⁹ I have come across, however, earlier challenges to competition amongst workers at the same enterprise.⁶⁰

On 11 February the Party's Central Committee officially endorsed the Komsomol's initiative in socialist competition.⁶¹ However, the Party seemed more concerned at this stage with its campaign for labour discipline. On 8 February Pravda printed a letter from the workers of Moscow's Krasnyi Bogatyr plant which called for tighter discipline and more competition. Nevertheless, the major Party document on labour discipline during this period, the letter of the Party's Central Committee to all Party organisations "On the Raising of Labour Discipline",⁶² dated 21 February, nowhere mentions competition or shock work. This omission is all the more surprising considering the fact that so many other organisations and groups of workers were linking the concept of raising competition and tightening discipline. Thus, for example, the workers at Leningrad's Krasnyi Vyborzhets plant challenged all other enterprises in the Soviet Union to compete with them in reducing costs by means of raising labour productivity, rationalising the use of manpower and machinery and fully utilising the working day. The appeal was printed in Pravda on 5 March and marked a step forward in the development of competition. Indeed, some observers take this date as being the start of the mass spread of socialist competition,⁶³ even though the authors of the appeal had not expressly called for anything more than a comparison of methods and results in reducing costs.

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59 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti SSSR. M. 1973, p.71.

60 At the Northern pit (Donbas) in December 1928 the face workers Dudkin and Ivanov were competing, see Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v SSSR, 1918-1964, p.7. On 21 January 1929 weaver Elizaveta Vakhtina spoke at the Lenin Memorial Meeting at Tevinskaya textile mill and said: "On this historic day I promise in the course of the year to overfulfil the plan and reduce wastage by 5 per cent. I promise to eliminate arbitrary absenteeism and to raise labour discipline. I challenge weaver Goltsova to competition". See Yu. Dubl', 'Sorevnovanie i udarnichestvo kak osnovnoi metod sotsialisticheskogo organizatsii truda', in Sovetskoe stroitel'stvo, 1933, no.12, p.37.

61 L.S. Rogachevskaya, op. cit. p.95.

62 Resheniya..., vol.2, pp.8-9.

63 Ya. Dakhiya, 'Nachalo massovogo sotsialisticheskogo sorevnovaniya na promyshlennykh predpriyatiyakh Leningrada (1929g)', in Kommunisticheskaya partiya - vdokhnovitel', p.93; L.S. Rogachevskaya, op. cit. p.97.

Eventually a pact was signed between Krasnyi Vyborzhets and Moscow's Metallolampa on 10 April and by the end of April the Leningrad factory was also competing with the Podolsk and Kol'chuginsk non-ferrous metalworks. Several other Leningrad factories followed suit: thus, by the end of April, the huge Krasnyi Putiloves^t works was competing with the Kolomenskoe and Kramatorsk plants.⁶⁴

The Government decree on labour discipline issued on 6 March 1929, failed to make explicit the link between socialist competition and an improvement of discipline at work. This led to conjecture that Rykov, Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars (Sovnarkom) was less than enthusiastic about competition and like Tomskii, his colleague in the Right Opposition, regarded it as "not a blessing" (eto ne ot khoroshei zhizni).⁶⁵

The main drawback of competition at this stage was the emphasis on inter-factory pacts being launched amidst great publicity with little attention being paid to implementation and results. The situation in Leningrad serves as a graphic example. For although by 15 April 1929 the city had 70 enterprises with 190,000 workers involved in inter-factory competition, the pacts were general rather than specific.⁶⁶

Indeed, Leningrad had already been setting the pace in shifting this emphasis. On 15 March the 2nd Leningrad Regional Party Conference adopted a resolution stressing the need to direct competition at raising productivity and cutting costs within the enterprise by encouraging shock brigades and Komsomol groups,⁶⁷ thus implicitly linking shock work with the movement for competition.

This link was further strengthened by attacks on the fixed-term, campaign nature of competition. The first, on 31 March, was an appeal

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64 Kommunisticheskaya partiya - vdokhnovitel', p.97 (Ya. Dakhiya).

65 The phrase was attributed to Tomskii by I. Il'inykh, 'Lenin o sotsialisticheskoi distsipliny i sotsialisticheskikh formakh truda' in Voprosy profdvizheniya, 1934, no.1, p.43. It was quoted by Shvernik at the IX VTsSPS Congress in April 1932, see Materialy k otchetu VTsSPS - IX s'ezdu profsoyuzov, M. 1932, p.23. See Tomskii's speech at the 8th VTsSPS Congress (p. 165).

66 Lebedeva and Shkaratan, op. cit., p.95.

67 Lebedeva and Shkaratan, op. cit., p.95.

by the Moscow Committees of the Party and Komsomol to workers in the capital urging them to organise competition between individual workers and brigades, as well as between enterprises in the same industry. In the swingeing attack on the 'campaign style' of competition the appeal stated:⁶⁸

"He who undertakes to enter competition and thinks that he will restrict himself to a parade-ground display, instead of organising everyday contests between individual workers, shops and factories, that person is not a builder of the revolution, but a windbag."

This was followed by a decree issued by the Leningrad Regional Party Committee on 2 April that urged workers to treat competition as a permanent method of work and specifically listed the strengthening of labour discipline and the struggle against absenteeism among the most important targets for competition.⁶⁹

If the Komsomol, local Party organs and workers collectives were quick to respond to the call for competition, then the trade unions displayed a noticeable lack of enthusiasm for this new development. It wasn't until 1 March that Trud, the central trade union newspaper belatedly publicised the successes of the youth shock brigades, neglecting to connect this movement in any way with competition. However, on 10 March, Trud published a decree by the Presidium of the AUCCTU "On Socialist Competition", approving the Komsomol's initiative in organising the All-Union production competition amongst working youth and appealed to trade union organisations to support "competitions, production roll calls, shock brigades, technical consultations etc." There is ample evidence, nonetheless, that both the trade union leadership and the union factory committees were dragging their feet over competition.⁷⁰ Indeed, the all round

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68 L.S. Rogachevskaya, op. cit., p.98.

69 Decree of Secretariat of Lenobkom VKP(b) "On the Organisation of Socialist Competition", dated 2 April 1929 (published on 3 April). See N.B. Lebedeva, Partiinoe rukovodstvo sotsialisticheskim sorevnovaniem, Leningrad, 1973, p.65; This trend was taken a step further when, on 29 May 1929, just one day after the Five-Year Plan had become law, Pravda published an open letter, addressed to the II Plenum of VTsSPS, from the 1st and 2nd Tula metalworks, which urged that competition become a system of work rather than a campaign, advocated that it be organised throughout the Plan and suggested that it be run by production conferences under the auspices of the trade unions.

70 See, for example, Ya. M. Bineman (ed.), Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti SSSR, M. 1930, pp.31, 104, 123, 149; F.M. Baganov, 'Razgrom pravogo uklona v VKP(b) (1928-1930gg)', in Voprosy istorii KPSS, 1960, no.4, p.71; Voprosy profsoyuznogo stroitel'stva: sbornik statei, Leningrad, 1930, p.7; Kratkaya istoriya SSSR, chast' II, M-L, 1964, p.232.

hostility from management, unions and workmates that had greeted the first shock brigades two years previously, appeared to accompany every new manifestation of competition.⁷¹

Nevertheless, ever new forms of socialist competition were emerging. For example, the first intra-factory pact containing specific personal obligations was signed by a brigade of pipe cutters at Krasnyi Vyborzhets on the suggestion of their brigade leader, Mikhail Putin.⁷² Although the main aim of the pact was to raise productivity by at least 5%, the feature of the pact that proved innovatory (and, incidentally, called forth the greatest hostility) was the decision to voluntarily cut their rates for the job by 10%. This form of competition soon caught the eye of Party leaders and factory management alike, who noted not only the 150% plan fulfilment by the brigade in their first month of operation, but also the good disciplinary record and low level of defective output. It is interesting to trace the future careers of these early pacemakers. Putin, a Party member since 1924 became a Hero of the Soviet Union, graduated from the Trade Union Higher School and became head of the All-Union Special Construction Committee. Of the other four who signed the first pact, Kruglov became a civil engineer, Oglobin became a mine boss, Goryunov graduated from the Leningrad

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71 D. Reznikov, op. cit. p.24; Metallist, 8 April 1929, p.26; The situation is succinctly portrayed in the following quote: "The organisers of shock brigades in the first years of the new movement met almost everywhere with opposition, hostility, mistrust and conservatism.", in V.M. Kulikov and S.S. Koz'min, 'Bor'ba kommunistov Urala za ukreplenie proizvodstvennoi distsipliny v protsesse sotsialisticheskogo sorevnovaniya v 1926-1932 godakh', Iz istorii partiinykh organizatsii Urala, Sbornik 2, Sverdlovsk, 1973, p.85. A similar conclusion is reached by another writer: "The development of socialist competition took place amidst a sharp struggle by the leading workers for the socialist organisation of labour, for a conscious discipline, for higher tempos of production against alien and conservative elements, who firmly hung on to the past. The history of the birth and development of socialist competition is the history of an endless battle of the advanced and progressive against routine attitudes and ossification in production.", in A.F. Rudenko, 'Bor'ba shakterov Donbassa pod rukovodstvom bol'shevistkoi partii za novye formy sotsialisticheskogo sorevnovaniya b 1931-1932 godakh.' (Kharkhovskii gos un-t im. A.M. Gor'kogo), Uchenye zapiski, vol.103, (Trudy kafedry istorii KPSS vol.7), Khar'k ov, 1959, p.121.

72 M.E. Putin in 'Dogovor truda' in Neizvedannyni putyami, p.173. Putin gives the date of this pact as 15 March, although other sources claim it was signed on 15 February 1929, see Leninskii komsomol: ocherki po istorii VLKSM, M. 1958, p.250. Lebedev and Shkaratan, op. cit. p.98 insist that the pact was signed much later, on 13 May 1929. Putin's initiative is certainly not mentioned in the Metallists' Union report on socialist competition, dated 30 April 1929, see Politicheskii i trudovoi pod'em, pp.232-236. This very detailed report notes the commencement of intra-factory competition on 5 March 1929 (against absenteeism) at the Taganrog metalworks, two days later at the Kiev Cable Works and from 1 April at Moscow's Elektroavod. ibid. p.233.

ship-building Institute and Mokin graduated from a technical institute before being killed in the Great Patriotic War.⁷³

Further proof of the awareness of the political significance of the new movement is provided by the signing on 7 April 1929 of the first "economic & political" (khozyaistvenno-politicheskii) pact between nine textile mills in Moscow, Tver and Ivanovo-Voznesensk.⁷⁴ Known as the "Pact of the 58,000", the textile workers gave their revolutionary word that they would meet the production plan targets set by their respective enterprises.

This brings into sharp relief one of the weakest features of competition at this stage. Despite the general enthusiasm and glare of publicity that greeted every new initiative, interest seemed everywhere to fall off very rapidly. Amongst the vast literature on socialist competition there is relatively little on the results of that competition. Much more attention was being paid at this stage to ensuring the full participation of Party and, especially, Komsomol members in the movement. This, on 31 March, the Komsomol's Central Committee appealed to all members of its organisation that had not already done so to take an active part in furthering socialist competition.⁷⁵

In spite of the increased general awareness of competition and shock work and variety of forms that it was taking, the decisive breakthrough in the development of the movement had still to take place. The groundwork for this was begun at the 16th Party Conference that convened at the end of April 1929.

SHOCK WORK AND COMPETITION IN THE FIRST MONTHS OF THE SOCIALIST OFFENSIVE

Just prior to the party conference the Right Opposition made what was effectively to be their last stand against Stalin's faction. At the Politburo meeting on 15 April Bukharin, Rykov and Tomskii had voted for amendments to the Five-Year Plan. At the joint plenum of the Party's Central Committee and Central Control Commission immediately preceding the conference, they had voted against the draft resolution on

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73 Neizvedannymi putyami, p.177 (M.E. Putin); Similar successful careers awaited members of Semen Zhukovskii's brigade at Ravenstvo, see Istoriya sovetskogo rabocheho klassa v shesti tomakh, vol.2 (1921-1937), M. 1984, p.253.

74 L.S. Rogachevskaya, op. cit., p.99. A contemporary account suggests that this pact was never checked, see Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti SSSR, (1930), p.195.

75 Appeal to Komsomol members and to working youth who are not members 'On the Organisation of Socialist Competition', in Politicheskii i trudovoi pod'em, pp.208-210.

intra-party matters.⁷⁶ As a result, Tomskii had been removed as Chairman of the AUCCTU and was replaced (for the time being) by Dogadov.⁷⁷

Not surprisingly, the concept of socialist competition figured more prominently in the speeches at this conference than it had at the 8th trade union congress just four months previously. One speaker, Larin, who had already made a name for himself by heading the anti-alcohol drive, claimed that the inadequate rise in labour productivity was due to the influx of hundreds of thousands of young workers from the countryside and that the way to solve this problem was through socialist competition.⁷⁸ He also accused Rykov of ignoring competition.⁷⁹ Shvetsov, a delegate from the Tver' Proletarka textile mill (one of the signatories of the "Pact of the 58,000") declared that "doubters and vacillators would not find support or sympathy in our midst, but will meet with a severe and resolute rebuff."⁸⁰

Among the greetings sent to the 16th conference were those from two Leningrad factories that were in the forefront of socialist competition. Krasnyi Putilovets announced that they now had 28 shock groups, 19 groups countering absenteeism, 18 countering defective output and others amongst its 12,000 workers.⁸¹ Krasnyi Vyborzhets, a plant with 4,500 workers, claimed that hundreds of factories had responded to its challenge of 5 March.⁸²

Of course, the main task of the Party conference had been to approve the Stalinist variant of the First Five-Year Plan. However, it is not
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76 Shestnadtsataya konferentsiya VKP(b)-aprel' 1929-stenograficheskie otchet, M. 1962, p.ix. The resolution was passed on 23 April and called upon the trade unions to play the decisive role in socialist competition and to "decisively eliminate all remnants of narrow craft exclusiveness and trade-unionism", see KPSS o profsoyuzakh, 3rd ed., M. 1957, p.333.

77 Voprosy istorii KPSS, 1960, no.4, p.75 (F.M. Baganov).

78 Shestnadtsataya konferentsiya, p.145. Larin was also the main proponent, at this time, of the continuous working week. (See below p.195).

79 ibid. p.146.

80 ibid. pp.571-572.

81 ibid. p.721.

82 ibid. p.725.

competition. The main objection that the average worker had against the shock brigades from the beginning, was that the increased norms and reduced rates achieved by the youngsters were being passed on by the management to all workers.⁸⁵ The literature abounds with derogatory epithets hurled at the shock workers by their older workmates: 'shrimps' (smorchki), 'fanatics' (bolel'shchiki), 'little snots' (soplyaki) and 'traitors' (izmenniki).⁸⁶ In this they were often joined by management, union and even party representatives who appeared to regard the shock brigades as a form of 'Komsomol folly' (komsomol'skiye zateya).⁸⁷

Thus, as the 'socialist offensive' got under way, those workers who knew, let alone understood the essence, of competition, might either have been carried along by the wave of enthusiasm and fanfares surrounding the launch, or remained indifferent or hostile. It was when the initial excitement died down and competition began to flag, during the summer of 1929, that pressure was put on the waverers.⁸⁸

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85 Characteristic of the times was the situation at Moscow's AMO motorworks where 'the atmosphere of hostility at times so thickened that the factory Party committee was obliged to pass a decision not to publicise the names of workers who had voluntarily cut their rates to avoid their being persecuted by irresponsible (nesoznatel'nye) workers.' in Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti (1930), p.181.

86 Smorchki at the Stalin metalworks (Donbas) in ibid. p.104; Bolel'shchiki Dnepropetrovsk, S. Bezborodov, Vrediteli u Stanka, Leningrad, 1930, p.73; Soplyaki and izmenniki in Komsomol report, Industrializatsiya SSSR, 1929-1932gg. Dokumenty i materialy, M. 1970, p.502; I have also come across the epithets 'condemned men' (smertniki) and 'plunders' (zakhvatniki) at the Kotloapparat works in Moscow, in Udarnye brigady (Moskovskii Komitet VLKSM), M. 1929, p.12, and 'upstarts' (vyskochki) at the Dnepr match factory in Belorussia, Kratkaya istoriya SSSR, p.232.

87 I. Povalyaev, 'Avtobiografiya udarnika' in Bor'ba klassov, 1931, nos.3-4, p.80; E.G. Kozhevnikova, 'Udarniki' in Neizvedannymi putyami, p.128. Other, similar terms used were 'Komsomol lottery' (komsomol'skaya lotereya) in A. Kapustin, 'Udarniki', M. 1930, p.62 and 'superfluous folly' (izlishnaya zateya) in Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti... (1930), p.164. An assistant foreman at the Krasnyi Profintern works claimed that 'Komsomol' was a hated word amongst old-timers, in N.S. Yarov, Udarnye brigady v Gus'-Khrustal'nom, M-L, 1930, p.5.

88 See below pp. 192-3 .

As a follow up to the initial impact of the Appeal, the Party issued a decree on 9 May "On the Socialist Competition of Factories and Plants", which incorporated many of the points made in the earlier document. Thus, it was decreed that the concrete tasks for competition should be "the fulfilment and overfulfilment of the promfinplan, the fulfilment and overfulfilment of established quotas for reducing costs and raising productivity, the improvement in quality of output, the struggle against absenteeism and defective output, the reduction of overhead costs, and the achievement of an exemplary production discipline ..."⁸⁹ Responsibility for running competition was handed over to the trade unions, a surprise move in view of the thinly disguised hostility of AUCCTU leaders to competition. True, a member of the AUCCTU Secretariat, Dogadov, had signed a Circular sent to all trade union organisations on 25 March supporting not only the Sovnarkom decree on labour discipline, but also the "Komsomol crusade for a reduction in costs".⁹⁰ Moreover, this Circular had preempted the Party Appeal by urging union organisations to involve adult workers as well as youngsters and to reward the most active and disciplined groups of workers."⁹¹

The Party directive on the role of the unions cleared up the confusion that had hitherto existed over who was responsible for running competition. Many plants had set up so-called "staffs" (shtaby), a form suggested by Pravda during the earlier check on production conferences.⁹²

Krasnyi Vyborzhets, for example, had a "general staff" of 25 persons drawn from representatives of workers, management, union, Komsomol and production conferences.⁹³ After the decree of 9 May, the Leningrad

Regional Committee of the Party scrapped the "staffs" and handed over control to the factory union committees.⁹⁴

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89 Resheniya..., vol.2, pp.53-55.

90 A. Sokol'skii, Profsoyuzy v bor'be za trudovuyu distsiplinu, M. 1929, p.112.

91 ibid. p.113.

92 V. Ol'khov, Za zhivoe rukovodstvo sotsialisticheskim sorevnovaniem. Opyt Vsesoyuznoi proverki sotssorevnovaniya brigadami VTsSPS, M. 1930, p.16.

93 Yu.K. Bibikov, 'U istokov massovogo sotsialisticheskogo sorevnovaniya' (VTsSPS. Vyshaya shkola), Uchenye zapiski, vyp.2, M. 1970, p.144.

94 ibid., p.149. However, the II VTSSPS plenum temporarily allowed some factories to keep their "staffs", which were not scrapped finally until the end of July 1929, I.P. Ostapenko, op. cit., p. 141.

basis of socialism."⁹⁹ He then draws a distinction between "the principle of capitalist competition" which is "the defeat and death of some, victory and supremacy to others" and "the principle of socialist competition", which is "the comradely help to those lagging behind from those in the forefront, in order to achieve an overall upsurge." "Socialist competition", he continues, "says that some work poorly, others well, still others better. Catch up with the best and achieve an overall upsurge."¹⁰⁰

Stalin's article indirectly points to a neglected feature of competition. The aim of competition was not just to determine the best workers, workshops and plants, but also to reveal the worst. By studying the successes and failures in production, discipline, organisation etc., it was hoped to achieve an overall improvement. Many of the first socialist competition pacts stress this element of competition.¹⁰¹ However, if rewards were to be given to 'those in the forefront' then repressive measures and sanctions could justifiably be applied to those 'lagging behind'. The battle over the setting of work norms: on the 'average' worker, or on the best, which had been raging within Soviet industry through the 1920's, was about to reach a climax.

All contemporary observers concur that the period from the end of April until early June witnessed a general upsurge in competition.¹⁰²

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99 I.V. Stalin, Sochineniya, M. 1952, vol.12, p.109.

100 ibid. p.110. Stalin's article was published in Pravda, 22 May 1929.

101 See for example, the challenge of the Kamenskii paperworks to the Syas'kii pulp-paper combine, published in Pravda, 21 March 1929; On 2 April 1929 the Central Committee of the Metallists' Union passed a resolution on production competition amongst all working metallists, declaring "we will isolate not only the best plants, but the worst.", Metallist, 30 April 1929, pp.6-7; "Socialist competition reveals the best and worst work collectives" declared R. Krivitskii in 'Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie', Ekonomicheskoe obozrenie, 1929, no.5, p.3.

102 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti..., (1930), p.31. Industrializatsiya SSSR, 1929-1932, p.516; Data from a Moscow trade union survey conducted in October 1929 illustrates the movement of competition in the capital during the summer of 1929:

	<u>Month in which entered inter-plant competition</u>						
	<u>April</u>	<u>May</u>	<u>June</u>	<u>July</u>	<u>Aug.</u>	<u>Sep.</u>	<u>Oct.</u>
No of enterprises	<u>22</u>	<u>54</u>	<u>42</u>	<u>24</u>	<u>25</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>14</u>
Workers (in '000s)	32.8	43.3	28.2	10	6.3	2.2	3.7
No. of workers per pact	14960	640	672	411	419	442	265

Source: Byulleten' statistiki truda (MOSPS), 1929, no.10, p.3.

warning bells were already sounding. The initiators of the shock work movement, the Komsomol at Zlatoust Machine Works were reported to be "worn out" by June,¹¹⁹ and throughout that month local Party committees were reporting an alarming falling off in competition.¹²⁰

July was probably the low point of the movement. By then the rate cuts and upped norms were getting through to most workers and the hitherto muted resistance became heard. Within a week of each other early in July, two experienced workers, E. Gozhev, a shipyard worker from Leningrad and S. Pup, a metalworker from Kherson, had letters printed in Trud and Metallist respectively, in which they expounded their opposition to socialist competition.¹²¹ Taken together, these letters represent the views of, if not the majority, then certainly a silent minority of workers.

The kind of worker, in fact, that Tomskii and the old AUCCTU leadership would have considered their natural constituent. It was Tomskii, after all, who at the 8th Congress had argued that:¹²²

"Trade unions unite all workers irrespective of their political and religious beliefs...a worker is a worker in spite of his prejudices."

The letters are worth quoting at length, for they represent rare examples of the kind of opinions that were not to be expressed again in the Soviet press: Gozhev's letter is printed in a column headed "Give Us Your Opinion Of Socialist Competition" and is prefaced by a disclaimer from the editors of Trud, who invite readers to judge Gozhev's views:

Comrade Editor,

Why is it that so much is written in your newspaper about enthusiastic workers, gripped by socialist competition, and yet nothing is said about the doubts that torment many workers? Why do you give space to descriptions of production successes, yet keep silent over the price that has to be paid for them? I would like to give my views on the matter.

At the Shagov factory, in Ivanovo-Voznesensk, 800 weavers refused to take part in competition. They justify this by

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119 Na putyakh k pobedam, p.14.

120 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti (1930), p.31.

121 Trud, 3 July 1929; Metallist, 10 July 1929.

122 Vos'moi s'ezd, p.186.

claiming that there is no way of increasing production as the working day is fully used as it is, and that norms have already been raised. The current working conditions are called 'sweating' as it is, and socialist competition just smells of capitalist exploitation.

As an experienced worker, I fully share this view, and therefore, do not participate in competition myself, and don't try to outstrip others in labour productivity.

These successes that all those shock workers brag about are idle boasts, comrade! Let's suppose that he increases his output and suggests that his norm be raised. It's effective, granted, but superficial. After all, who are these shock workers? Komsomol members, young folk full of strength and zeal with which, understandably, you can move mountains. And their example is followed by some of the hot-headed old-timers who, in their excitement, also produce record output. But how long can this zeal last? One month, two, let's say six months you can work like that before you run out of steam. Yet we workers have to stand on the shop floor for years on end.

I'll give you some facts. A month ago I went to see my wife in the Shchelkovo sanatorium and saw for myself these shock workers. There was this woman shock worker, Nyura, from the Shchel ovo mill: for two months she did 'shock' work, ended up with a nervous breakdown and landed in the sanatorium. There was a weaver there. An old fellow from the Lantsutskii mill. They got him to join the competition for the best weaver; he switched from three looms to four, worked for about two months and his hands started to shake, his nerves had shattered. "No brother", he says, "you can't work like that for long"...

...No comrade, socialist competition is a serious matter. This is something that should be pondered over by every worker who sees things as they are and who isn't carried away by twaddle in the newspapers and noisy agitation."

Riveter E. GOZHEV

As if to underline Gozhev's first point, the newspaper printed, in the column alongside Gozhev's letter, details of voluntary rate-cutting at the Pervomaiskii metalworks in Mariupol', including the feat of a worker in the machine shop there, Gorbachev, who cut his rates per 100 pieces by 20 per cent, while raising his output by 54 per cent.¹²³

Within days the replies to Gozhev's letter were being printed in Trud. The most strident was from a group of five workers at Moscow's Krasnyi Bogatyr plant, whose letter was prefaced by the slogan "You Won't Douse Our Creative Fire with Gozhev!" and was headlined "Try and Hold Us Back!"¹²⁴

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123 Trud, 3 July 1929.

124 Trud, 7 July 1929.

Socialist competition demands much strenuous effort from the working class. Surely Gozhev can see how the workers in factories and plants burn with a creative, Leninist fire and are surging forward at full steam.

Try and stop them taking part in socialist competition!

Try and hold them back! Socialist competition is gripping and gradually infecting the entire proletariat.

This is why we think that riveter Gozhev is wrong. He doesn't have a spark of revolutionary fire in him. But he won't succeed in infecting workers with his pernicious and rotten sentiments.

We have never spared ourselves in socialist competition.

And we won't spare ourselves in the future either.

Semyon Pup has little of Gozhev's articulation, but his letter is no less valuable an account of feelings on the shop floor at this time. Instead of a disclaimer the editors of Metallist preface Pup's letter with a short extract from a letter from another worker (the word is emphasised) from Pup's own factory, the Petrovskii metalworks in Kherson, which states:

...There can be few workers who have yet to grasp the importance of socialist competition, and if they haven't, then they are those who do not want to understand, who do not cherish production, who consciously stand aside from socialist construction..."

In case the reader is left in any doubt about the professed editorial attitude to the letter (one suspects that it was printed because it found support in the Metallist's union), the letter was headlined, in inverted commas, "A Toiling Individual" and sub-titled, in parentheses, "Interview with a 'conscientious' activist": The author apologises for being illiterate (the letter is taken down by one Yegor) explaining that he had not been to college but was:

...a hundred per cent real, hereditary proletariat, without any admixtures or intellectual blood...

...So they declare this competition. What is it? To me, illiterate as I am, its like a sort of football match. Who, as they say, can beat who. Krasnyi Vyborzhets, let's say beat the Kol'chuginsk plant or vice versa.

It's an entertaining affair whatever way you look at it, because nobody wants his factory to fall flat on its face.

I'm for it, too...Why not!..

Only this is what I don't understand. Competition, that's one thing, but me, now that's another. Why connect them? Let the directors and them in the office keep score and make decisions to produce more, that's what they are paid for, only leave me well alone.

I bash out my eight hours and then...my dear citizens and comrades, you can go take a ride...We didn't have the revolution

so that we could sit around at all kinds of production meetings after work...Let the engineers do the thinking...

Or look what it's come to at work now...You've only to light up a cigarette and some clown comes flying up all offended. "You remember, comrade, what you voted for at the meeting, don't waste time...work!"

Has he got a screw loose or something? Look, I'm on piece rates, the blockhead, and if I smoke then it's my loss, nobody else's...But I still fulfil the norm...

Or, listen to this: you're not allowed to go absent! Why I ask? Why shouldn't a toiling individual in a workers' state have a day off? Maybe that's the way I am?

There's only one consolation. You can find lads who sympathise, and realise that it's wrong to make fun out of a hereditary, working proletarian...

...I can understand it if you're on piecework and you need the money...then go for it...At our works., , Perepelkin, Vybornoi and Ostrovskii needed some money. They got down to it. And turned out 130 pieces instead of 90...

They wanted to put them on the Board of Honour, as the best competitors, but suddenly they said: "Comrades, you've got 30 per cent brak!"

Well, that's as maybe. Let the quality control look out for that. They let it through, so much the better for us. What do you want? You rush, like a son of a bitch, and you can't turn in brak?

But it's even worse when they pester you with remarks like "I challenge you to cut your rates." Voluntarily! You'd have to be crazy to agree. When the bosses lower your rates we raise a stink for two months, and now we're supposed to cut them voluntarily...

...We all welcome, you understand, competition. More than that...we're interested...who will wallop who? Who'll come out on top...

And from a political point of view, of course, it's not at all a bad thing. Let the former capitalists see how the working class is building up its economy...

But what has this got to do with my pocket? Why can't you smoke a cigarette? And what's it got to do, I ask you, with my rates?...Surely, this isn't what we fought for?

So pass on the message through your journal: competition is one thing, but a worker, a conscious one, that's another...

...Activist, member of the union, and also of Aviakhimos, Mopr,¹²⁵ the cooperative, a proletarian, Semyon Pup.

At least three crucial questions emerge from the letters of Gozhev and Pup:

- i. to what extent did they faithfully report the situation on the shop floor?;
- ii. how representative of the workers at large were the sentiments expressed?;
- iii. whom did the Party leadership regard as genuine workers?

Regarding the last question, as we have seen (Chapter Two, pp.41-2), an intrinsic component of the ideology of the victorious Stalinist faction
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125 MOPR - the Russian initials for the International Organisation for the Relief of Revolutionary Fighters.

can rest'.¹³² Kraval' concluded that 'the major task of socialist competition is the raising of labour discipline',¹³³ a sentiment that was becoming widespread amongst Party, management and union leaders at that time.

One might conclude, therefore, that the accounts given by Gozhev and Pup were a fair reflection of the situation. However, to what extent were their views typical? To begin with, it would appear that the very fact that they had openly voiced their opposition was atypical. A perceptive Western observer at the time described the situation thus:¹³⁴

There can be no doubt that most Communists and members of the organisation of Communist Youth, who together comprise 2 per cent of the total population, are sincerely working and enduring hardships today for the sake of future prosperity. The 98 per cent majority, however, who are not sustained by discipline or faith, and do not enjoy the sweets of power, are more concerned with the problems of subsistence...

...Workers grumble fiercely as individuals, but collectively they cooperate with the Government secure in the knowledge that they receive first consideration in times of actual shortage.

Although he clearly understates the percentage of Party and Komsomol members in production, his conclusion would still seem to hold good, i.e. that if few workers were actively against Party policy on the shop floor, then it was equally true that, initially, only a minority were actively for it.

This much was admitted at the Joint Meeting on 24-25 July by the chairman, Nikolai Shvernik, who noted that 'in a number of cases only insignificant groups of workers participate in competition, while the basic mass are not involved'.¹³⁵ Akulov was even more explicit: 'We still have a significant body of workers who know nothing about socialist competition, do not understand the significance of socialist competition.

To this day there is a significant stratum of workers who have not
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132 ibid. p.32.

133 ibid. p.34.

134 Bruce C. Hopper, 'The Soviet Touchstone - Industrialization', in Foreign Affairs, vol.8, no.3, April 1930, p.383. This last point is corroborated by a correspondent to an emigre journal who described the old pre-revolutionary workers as apolitical, passive and inert, noting that "they are the grumblers, usually about their daily bread", see Yu.L. 'Pyatiletka i rabochii klass' in Sotsialisticheskii vestnik, 2 June 1931.

135 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie na predpriyatii , p.4.

The situation described at Moscow's Elektrozavod, a factory in the forefront of competition, was probably typical: "many Komsomol members until recently regarded the shock brigades as a compulsory duty... I joined because the cell ordered me to",¹⁴³ and "One must speak the truth, initially the Komsomol organisation at the plant had to wage a battle on two fronts: against the old-timers and against their very own members".¹⁴⁴

Nevertheless, without wishing to diminish the trail-blazing role of the Komsomol in competition, it is difficult to disagree with a recent Soviet historian of the movement that stresses the decisive importance of Party support.¹⁴⁵ There are numerous accounts of the poor initial participation of Communists in competition. As late as October 1929, trade union surveys had revealed that in Leningrad (for nine unions) only 19 per cent of Party members were competing, compared to 28 per cent Komsomol and 49 per cent non-Party.¹⁴⁶ Figures at the same time for Moscow (for 192 factories) were 11.7 per cent Party, 17 per cent Komsomol and 12.5 per cent non-Party,¹⁴⁷ and for the Nizhnenovgorod region, 14.7 per cent Party and 20.8 per cent Komsomol.¹⁴⁸ These areas, it should be stressed, were in the vanguard of socialist competition.

In summarising the state of socialist competition and shock work in the summer of 1929, it could be said that the movement had established itself throughout the country, but was beginning to flag considerably. Nevertheless, despite the patchiness of the results, a significant rise in industrial productivity had been achieved and absenteeism, the main indicator of labour discipline, had fallen sharply. For the country as a whole industrial productivity rose in the 2nd kvartal (January-March

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143 Yulii Ber, Kommuna segodnya: opyt proizvodstvennykh i bytovykh kommun molodezhi, M.1930, p.7.

144 ibid. p.17.

145 N.B. Lebedeva, 'Partiinoe rukovodstvo...', op. cit. pp.58-59.

146 See Veinberg's speech to the Shock Workers' Congress on 6 December 1929, in Pervyi Vsesoyuznyi s"ezd udarnykh brigad: sbornik dokumentov i materialov, M. 1959, p.63.

147 loc. cit.; Moskovskie udarniki, p.9.

148 Politicheskii i trudovoi pod"em, p.373.

1929) by 8.1 per cent, in the 3rd (April-June) by 17.7 per cent and in the 4th (June-October) by 22.7 per cent.¹⁴⁹ Absenteeism had dropped by 25 per cent in 1928/29 compared to 1927/28 (from 6.0 to 4.5 days per worker) and by 20 per cent (2.5 days to 2.0 days) in the period April to October 1929, compared with October 1928-March 1929.¹⁵⁰

The same was true on a local level. Among Leningrad metalworkers, absenteeism fell by more than 30 per cent in 1928/29 compared to the previous year;¹⁵¹ at the Elektrozavod works in Moscow, the production plan was fulfilled for 1928/29 by 103.4 per cent, the reduction in costs was 27 per cent and labour discipline, despite the arrival of more than 2000 new workers, held steady;¹⁵² at the Kharkov locoworks in the Ukraine, costs were reduced by 5.71 per cent in the 1st kvartal of 1928/29, 10.56 per cent in the 2nd, 12.53 in the 3rd and 15.51 in the 4th. Absenteeism was reduced by 26 per cent.¹⁵³

Thus, despite the obvious shortcomings of socialist competition, the potential was clearly to be seen. What was required in the summer of 1929 was as effective re-launching of the campaign in which, unlike the first stage, workers would not be allowed to remain on the sidelines.

THE 'GREAT BREAKTHROUGH' IN SHOCK WORK AND COMPETITION

To offset the palpably unsatisfactory state of competition in the late summer of 1929, a number of factors facilitated the new campaign that was launched in August and September.

Most importantly, the political battle with the 'Right Opposition' had effectively been won and the 'shaking up' of the trade union apparatus was underway. The first, practical task of the new VTsSPS leadership was to check those competition pacts that had been concluded during the first stage.

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149 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti (1973), p.71.

150 Trud v SSSR: sbornik statei, M. 1930, p.110.

151 Politicheskii i trudovoi pod'em, p.336.

152 ibid. p.343.

153 ibid. p.344, p.346.

Within a week, on 31 August, Trud had hardened its line, declaring that 'there are no neutrals in the class struggle'.

The breakthrough as far as the press were concerned appears to have occurred at the two meetings of journalists organised in the summer of 1929 by the Agitation & Propaganda Section of the Party's Central Committee.¹⁶² By mid-August the press started to publicise socialist competition in an organised fashion. On 15 August Trud launched a twice-weekly supplement called 'Socialist Competition' and Pravda, on the same day, printed an article entitled 'We must Ensure the Growth of Shock Brigades', which called upon Communists and Komsomol members to play an avant-garde role in this.

Kraval', whose aforementioned article was also printed on this day commended shock brigades for providing examples of a communist attitude to work, stressing that:¹⁶³

The overall five-year plan for developing our national economy, and in particular the plan for the current, first year of the pyatiletka, and first and foremost, the plan for reducing costs, its most important component, can't be realised unless we are able to ensure the involvement of ever newer masses of workers in a decisive and pitiless struggle against labour indiscipline, absenteeism, drunkenness, theft from work and, in general, licentious attitudes to production.

The press, of course, had hitherto been in the forefront of socialist competition alongside the Komsomol. In the summer of 1929 both the national and local press were launching new initiatives and reviewing previous campaigns. Thus, on the 24 July, Luganskaya Pravda printed an appeal from workers in the locomotive and assembly sections of the local October Revolution plant, calling on all Lugansk workers to fulfil the Five-Year Plan ahead of schedule, in three years!¹⁶⁴ On 1 August, the paper toned down this challenge to 'the Five-Year Plan in four years',¹⁶⁵ which was to become one of the basic slogans of the new campaign.

On 9 June 1929 Leningradskaya Pravda had published a suggestion from a worker named Petr Slobodchikov from the local Proletarskii works,

162 Voprosy istorii, 1962, no.3, p.130 (V. I. Kuz'min)

163. Bol'shevik, 1929, no.15, pp.26-27 (I. Kraval').

164 Politicheskii i trudovoi pod'em, pp.285-286.

165 L.S. Rogachevskaya, op. cit. p.108 (True, the Lugansk workers did add the qualification "and maybe even three").

The Party-inspired press campaign, launched on the 15 August, was sharply critical of the state of competition then pertaining. In the very first supplement 'Socialist Competition' to Trud, published on that day, a rabkor revealed the following shortcomings at Moscow's Dinamo plant:

Despite the many challenges in the first stage of competition, almost eight months later nothing was being done. Speeches on socialist competition in the lunch break were attracting pitifully few workers and they were not interested in the report. The majority of workers knew nothing of competition. In reality at the plant there were only two shock brigades with four members each. Neither Komsomol, nor Party members were participating and the factory committee, management and technical personnel were indifferent.

And this at a factory in the forefront of Moscow competition! The situation in the capital was summed up on 21 August (in the third supplement to Trud) under the headline "Danger on the Front" (Na fronte trevozhno), in which a survey by the Moscow regional trade union council (MGSPS) noted that the numbers of workers involved in competition in various plants ranged from seven to 89 per cent.

The changes wrought in the VTsSPS leadership by the Party only gradually filtered down to the shop floor. Thus, on 25 August 1929, a Party declaration ruefully admitted that "in general, competition at the grass roots is still being led by Party organisations, the trade union organisations are still only beginning to get to grips with the actual running of competition."¹⁷⁰ Within days a central directive from VTsSPS called on all union organisations to do precisely that, noting, moreover, that since the Five-Year Plan had not taken into account socialist competition and the continuous production year (the introduction of which had been decreed by the Government on 26 August 1929)¹⁷¹ certain sections of that plan were to be fulfilled in 3 years.¹⁷²

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170 Voprosy istorii, 1962, no.3, p.131 (V.I. Kuz'min).

171 Sobranie zakonov 1929, no.54, p.499.

172 Trud, 31 August 1929.

The unions were turning their attention to production. On 1 September, in a report from the Nizhnyi Novgorod territorial union congress, Akulov was quoted as declaring that "socialist competition is the basic work of the unions".¹⁷³ This statement found reflection in the historic appeal by the new VTsSPS Presidium, dated 5 September 1929 and addressed to all trade union organisations and members and to all working men and women, urging them to develop socialist competition. Entitled 'Faces to Production' (Litsom k proizvodstvu)¹⁷⁴ it called upon union representatives to spend less time at meetings (men'she zasedat') and more on the shop floor, among the masses. This appeal effectively marks the point of departure by Soviet trade unions away from the defence of their members' interests as a first priority.

Indeed, the real purpose of the appeal was revealed by a member of the VTsSPS Presidium (and editor of Trud), Evreinov, in his report to the III Plenum of VTsSPS in November 1929.¹⁷⁵ "Socialist competition", he claimed, "is the tool with which to reorganise all trade union work. Socialist competition is directed, in fact, against craft attitudes, trade-unionism (tred-yunionizm) and the lack of attention to economic questions."

The political importance of this appeal was underlined when Evreinov's colleague, Veinberg, stressed that the forthcoming VTsSPS check on the progress of socialist competition represented "a political examination of the unions".¹⁷⁶ It was Veinberg who, on 12 September 1929, launched the campaign for the negotiations on collective agreements for 1929/1930, with the observation that this document should henceforth contain two-sided obligations (i.e. the union and worker were now obliged to help raise productivity etc.).¹⁷⁷

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173 ibid. 1 September 1929.
 174 ibid. 6 September 1929. A contributor to an emigré journal disparagingly referred to this policy as 'Backs to the proletariat' (spinoi k proletariaty), see A. Kefali, Sotsialisticheskii vestnik, 12 July 1930.
 175 N. Evreinov, 'Profsoyuzy v period rekonstruktsii', Bol'shevik, 1929, no.21, p.34. Although, within days (on 5 December), Evreinov was replaced as Editor of Trud by Bogdanov, see Trud, 5 December, 1929.
 176 Trud, 7 September 1929.
 177 ibid. 12 September 1929.

The appeal, the collective agreement campaign and the check on socialist competition combined to give the movement a much-needed boost in the autumn of 1929. Throughout September results were being published on the state of competition in various parts of the country. Although the overwhelming majority of plants were nominally competing (all 42 Urals metalworks, 92 per cent of Donbas enterprises and 70 per cent of Leningrad factories), the numbers of workers within those plants fluctuated considerably. Thus two enterprises that had won prizes in the Pravda production conference check, the New Ivanovo-Voznesensk textile mill and the Petrovskii works in Dnepropetrovsk had a mere three per cent and eight per cent respectively engaged in competition,¹⁷⁸ while at Krasnyi Vyborzhets in Leningrad 50 per cent were said to be competing. Nowhere is the fluctuation more graphically apparent than at Leningrad's Krasnyi Treugol'nik: in the main factory only 15 per cent were involved, while at the No.2 works (galoshes) all the workers were competing. Generally, the percentage throughout industry was somewhere between 25 and 35.¹⁷⁹

The results printed in Trud on 21 September confirmed the figure of 3 per cent at the New Ivanovo-Voznesensk mill and elsewhere painted a gloomy picture. Of 35 enterprises checked in Baku "socialist competition at the majority had virtually ceased". In Lugansk and Stalingrad "the pace was slackening". Moreover, there is evidence of inflated figures for competition in "reports of factory committees which glow with dreamed-up details of the workers' activity". The investigators conclude soberly that "one can still find enterprises at which significant strata of workers, albeit the backward ones, do not have the faintest idea what socialist competition is". Of even more concern was "the presence of significant groups of workers opposed to socialist competition."

Thus one might safely conclude that the first stage of competition, which commenced in the first months of 1929, had come to an end by the

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178 Izvestiya TsK VKP(b), 1929, nos.26-27, p.15.

179 loc. cit.

summer of that year. The new, second stage, initiated in the late summer and destined to run to the end of the calendar year, differed considerably from the first in both quantitative and qualitative terms. If the first stage was characterised by, first and foremost, socialist pacts between plants and, to a lesser extent, individual challenges issued by one worker to another, then the second stage witnessed the spread of intra-factory and intra-workshop competition.

The link between the two stages was the shock worker movement. Indeed, Veinberg, in presenting the VTsSPS report on the progress of socialist competition to the All-Union Congress of Shock Workers in December 1929, calls the shock brigades a separate, intermediary stage in the development of competition, stressing that they represented a spontaneous growth.¹⁸⁰ The main difference in the second stage was that shock brigades no longer remained predominantly the preserve of Komsomol members, but spread to involve cadre workers. A specific feature of the shock movement during this stage was the rapid growth of production communes and collectives (see below pp.240-261). However, although this period, effectively the first kvartal of 1929/1930, saw a further improvement in labour discipline (as measured by the absentee rate),¹⁸¹ the promfinplan by the end of 1929 was not being fulfilled.¹⁸²

However, it is important to maintain a sense of proportion as far as the shock brigades are concerned during this period. Numerically, the shock brigadiers represented only a small proportion of all workers competing during the first stage. This is illustrated by examining the figures for three regions in the forefront of competition (Donbas, Urals and Moscow) at the beginning of October i.e. as the new campaign was getting under way.

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180 Pervyi Vsesoyuznyi s"ezd, p.63.

181 Although the fall from 1.05 days per worker in the III kvartal (July-Sept.) to 0.91 days in the IVth (Oct.-Dec.) may be largely attributed to seasonal fluctuations. (See Chapter **Three**).

182 Kuibyshev drew attention to this at the Shock Workers' Congress, Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti (1930), p.34; This was confirmed in the XVI Party Congress decree 'On the Fulfilment of the Five-Year Plan in Industry', KPSS v rezolyutsiyakh i resheniyakh s"ezdov, konferentsii i plenumov TsK, 7th ed. Part III, M. 1954, p.37.

In the Donbas coal mines, of the 1214 competition pacts signed by 1 October 1929, 40 were inter-pit, 866 were between workers at the same pit and 308 were individual commitments. At the same time there were only 54 shock brigades with 543 workers, which represented a mere 0.5 per cent of all workers and 1.6 per cent of those competing.¹⁸³ By the end of the year these figures had risen to 5 and 15.6 per cent respectively, a significant improvement, but hardly overwhelming.¹⁸⁴

In the Urals the growth was more spectacular:¹⁸⁵

1. 5.1929	400	shock	brigades	with	12000	members
1. 6.1929	1200	"	"	"	20000	"
1. 8.1929	1500	"	"	"	25000	"
1.11.1929	3582	"	"	"	52200	"

In the Zlatoust area, in the Urals, it was estimated that on 15 November 1929, 29.3 per cent of the workers were in the shock movement.¹⁸⁶ However, judging by the figures for this month from the Zlatoust Machine Works, this percentage would include workers in communes and collectives. Out of the 3713 workers at this plant in November, 506 (13.6 per cent) were in shock brigades, 793 (21.4 per cent) in collectives and communes - giving a sub-total of 35 per cent in brigade competition - and a further 602 (16.2 per cent) in individual competition.¹⁸⁷

The Moscow trade union survey of competition and shock work, carried out at the beginning of October 1929, reveals that 13.1 per cent of all workers were in shock brigades (16.2 per cent if one counts only the plants that had shock brigades.¹⁸⁸ Of the 276 Moscow factories

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183 Uchenye zapiski (Khar'kovskii gos. un-t im. A.M. Gor'kogo), vol.88, (Trudy Kafedry istorii KPSS), vol.6, p.344.

184 M. Chuvyrin, Profsoyuzy Ukrainy na sotsialisticheskoi stroike, M. 1931, p.17.

185 Ocherki razvitiya, p.319.

186 Politicheskii i trudovoi pod'em, p.319.

187 Calculated from data given in ibid. p.310 and Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti (1930), pp.150-151. An indication of how unreliable data on shock work and competition during this period were is given by the fact that other sources claim that by November, 90 per cent of the workers at the Machine works were udarniks. Kommunisticheskaya partiya-vdokhnovitel', p.206 (V. Cheremnykh).

188 Moskovskie udarniki, p.9; Byulleten'statistiki truda, p.4.

studied, only eight had no competition at all, five were only competing with other factories and 86 only had internal competition. The remaining 177 had both inter-plant and intra-plant competition.¹⁸⁹ Altogether 192 plants (69.6 per cent) had shock brigades, with on average ten to eleven brigades per enterprise and eleven workers per brigade.¹⁹⁰

Although almost half (9922 out of 21898) of the shock workers were in metal and textile factories, the proportion of brigaders to all workers in these two industries was lower (at 11.9 and 12.7 per cent respectively) than in either leather works (26.4 per cent) or the food industry (21.2 per cent).¹⁹¹

Moreover, the survey revealed that although over one quarter (25.4 per cent) of the brigaders were aged under 22, less than one fifth of workers in this age-group (18.1 per cent) were involved in shock work. Nonetheless, this proportion was higher than that of Komsomol members (17.6 per cent), let alone non-Party workers (12.5 per cent) and Party members (11.7 per cent).

Two other indicative facts to emerge from the survey were that men (at 12.3 per cent) and women (12.5 per cent) were equally likely (or unlikely!) to join the shock brigades at this stage and that workers on piece-rates were nearly three times more likely (at 15.7 to 5.6 per cent) to join than those on time payments.¹⁹²

The data on individual Moscow plants are also revealing. At the AMO motorworks 33 per cent of the workers were in shock brigades and, in some shops, 80 or even 90 per cent¹⁹³ (strictly speaking, the entire 3000 plus workforce were shock workers as a general meeting of employees on 15 September had declared the factory 'shock', challenging Leningrad's Krasnyi Putilovets to competition from 1 October).¹⁹⁴ The situation at

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189 Byulleten' statistiki truda, p.3,

190 ibid. p.4.

191 ibid. p.6.

192 ibid. p.7.

193 Moskovskie udarniki, p.15.

194 Politicheskii i trudovoi pod'em, p.295.

the Trekhgornaya Manufaktura textile works was similar except that three quarters of the brigades were composed of adults (117 out of 155), who constituted 81.5 per cent of all brigaders (1086 out of 1333).¹⁹⁵ Somewhat surprisingly for a textile mill, two out of three (737 out of 1086) of the adult udarniks were men, whereas over half (135 out of 247) of the youngsters were women.¹⁹⁶ Of the adult workers only 51 (a mere 4.7 per cent) were Party members, whereas at Serp i Molot metalworks Party participation in shock work reached 15.9 per cent (58 out of 364).¹⁹⁷

The situation reported in another Moscow textile mill, Krasnye Tekstil'shchiki, illustrates graphically the relative weight of shock work at this time. Of the 90 per cent nominally competing, the eight adult shock brigades accounted for only 68 workers and the lone youth brigade for a further 30.¹⁹⁸ A similar situation apparently obtained at Leningrad's Krasnyi Vyborzhets plant, where according to a report by the local Komsomol committee on 25 October four whole shops with 2186 workers were competing while just five shock brigades uniting 45 members were operating.¹⁹⁹ At Leningrad's Krasnyi Putilovets in October only 3.7 per cent of the workers were in shock brigades.²⁰⁰ Yet another Leningrad enterprise in the forefront of competition, the Svetlana works, had just ten brigades with 140 members by 1 October 1929.²⁰¹ Leningrad, it would seem, experienced a particularly rapid growth in shock brigades in the period under review, rising from 649 (with 7609 members) on 1 October to 2668 (with 29054 workers) on 15 January 1930, the eve of the Leninist Appeal.²⁰²

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195 Moskovskie udarniki, pp.16-17.

196 ibid. p.17.

197 ibid. p.16-17.

198 ibid. p.15.

199 Politicheskii i trudovoi pod'em, p.304.

200 Partiinoe stroitel'stvo, 1930, no.5, p.36.

201 M. Eskin, 'Zakonomernosti udarnogo dvizheniya' in Problemy marksizma, 1931. Nos.8-9, p.28.

202 Leningradskie rabochie v bor'be za sotsializm, 1926-1937gg, Len, 1965, p.201.

A particular feature of competition in this second stage was the spread of 'shock' shifts, workshops and whole plants; AMO in September, a number of Leningrad shops and sections in October, railway depots and the main shops of one of the Urals biggest metalworks at Lys'va (also in October), Krasnyi Vyborzhets, Krasnyi Profintern and the Petrovskii metalworks in Dnepropetrovsk in November etc.²⁰³

In many ways this move represented a synthesis of competition from above (i.e. inter-factory) and from below (i.e. the shock brigades). Although this form of competition remained popular during the third stage of competition in early 1930, it was found to be largely to blame for the widespread phenomenon of 'sham shock work' (lzheudarnichestvo) and was dropped in favour of less collective forms of socialist work.

This helps to highlight some of the contradictions that were maturing in Soviet industry at this time. On the one hand a massive inflow of mainly peasant recruits into the work force diluted the cohesiveness of the working class and called into question the appropriateness of certain forms of socialist labour, while on the other the talents and energies of the most committed and public-spirited of the workers were required in areas other than the shop-floor. Secondly, the unquestionable gains in terms of labour productivity and labour discipline that shock work potentially held had to be weighed against the overwhelming priority of giving management maximum rights in order to fulfil planned targets. Thirdly, the collective, at times even syndicalist responses of the working class to the appeals of Party and Government, while serving as a useful tool in eliminating restrictive customs and practices on the shop floor, came to pose a political challenge to a system that was based on the individualisation of production responsibilities in a descending hierarchy from the director and, thus, an atomisation of the working class.

These contradictions were inherent in the series of decrees passed in the latter half of 1929 that sought, on the one hand to

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203 Kommunisticheskaya partiya-vdokhnovitel' pp.206-207; Ot udarnykh brigad k udarnym tsekham i zavodam: Udarnye brigady metallistov, M. 1929, p.55.

strengthen one-man management,²⁰⁴ and, on the other, encourage the development of shock work.²⁰⁵ From the beginning, however, it was clear that the interests of the former were sometimes being served at the expenses of those of the latter. Thus, as early as 25 July 1929, Akulov had complained that "under the guise of competition, the work day is being lengthened, work is being done on Sunday etc."²⁰⁶ This is corroborated by contemporary accounts.²⁰⁷

In his report to the Shock Workers' Congress on 6 December, Veinberg felt moved to criticise the management of certain plants for taking advantage of the shock movement, quoting as typical the remark of a manager at Krasnyi Profintern who said "you are shock workers and therefore must carry out any job and work under any conditions".²⁰⁸ However, Veinberg's objection seemed to be less to the principle involved than to the fact that such an attitude undermined the shock brigades.

The importance of the shock brigades during this period was not so much their quantitative growth (from an estimated 10 per cent on 1 October²⁰⁹ to 29 per cent on 1 January 1930)²¹⁰ as the increasingly prominent role this form of socialist competition came to play in the Party's struggle for labour discipline and, more specifically, the breaking down of resistance to the increased pace of industrialisation on the shop-floor.

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204 See Chapters Two and Four.

205 See Chapters Four and Seven.

206 Trud, 25 July 1929.

207 See for example, Bor'ba klassov, 1931, nos.3-4, p.81 (I. Povalyaev) which states that at AMO, in order to catch up on the plan "12 hours instead of 8 as well as Sundays were worked".

208 Pervyi Vsesoyuznyi s"ezd, p.66.

209 Industrializatsiya SSSR, 1929-1932gg, p.516.

210 Calculated from Trud v SSSR. Spravochnik 1926-1930gg. M. 1930, p.25. Note that my own calculations give the percentage as 28.4, though this largely excludes the Leningrad workers who, in general, had a slightly higher proportion of shock workers. (see Table 10). The figure of 29 per cent is confirmed by N. Shvernik in Materialy k otchetu VTsSPS, p.24.

This is recognised by modern historians of the movement as well as by contemporary observers. Thus, a recent history of socialist competition asserts: "the shock workers formed the leading detachment of the working class, and were the initiators in breaking down out-moded work practices, methods and standards."²¹¹

Of contemporary appraisals of the shock workers, the most complimentary was that of Kuibyshev, speaking at the Shock Workers' Congress in December. They represented, he said, "the highest expression of socialist competition" in which "as in a mirror is reflected that historic breakthrough in the psychology of a worker in the sense that he becomes the master of his country."²¹² "Where there are shock brigades", he continued, "one notes a reduction in absenteeism, less idle time and a rise in productivity. Socialist competition and the shock brigades constitute the best blow at the petty-bourgeois psychology which is still strong in certain cross-strata....it is a crushing blow to the old traditions of work, to old habits, to the old psychology that had been inculcated for decades under capitalism."²¹³

Kuibyshev was by no means alone in his assessment. "With the development of shock work, old workers began to work in new ways", wrote one author.²¹⁴ Another noted that whereas the brigade represented an old form of organisation at work, the 'shock' provided the new, socialist element.²¹⁵ The same writer further identified shock work as the "organised reflection of competition",²¹⁶ noting that in general "competition plays the role of a catalyst, accelerating the stratification

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211 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti...(1973), p.66.
212 Pervyi Vsesoyuznyi s"ezd, pp.46-47. Kuibyshev's keynote speech to this Congress, "Brigades of socialism", was later described as "not an ordinary report, but in its way a kind of poem in prose about the best people of the working class, who were creating a new, quite different attitude to production, to the enterprise, and were forging a communist discipline.", in Valerian Vladimirovich Kuibyshev: Biografiya, M. 1966, p.299.
213 Pervyi Vsesoyuznyi s"ezd, p.49.
214 D. Reznikov, op. cit., p.21.
215 Yu. Kalistratov, 'Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie i organizatsiya truda' in Na novom etape sotsialisticheskogo stroitel'stva: Sbornik statei, vol.1, M. 1930, p.175.
216 Na novom etape, loc. cit.

at absenteeism and violations of labour discipline and the latter against routine attitudes and inertia in production.²²¹

Stalin came out strongly for the shock brigades and was elected an honorary shock worker by the Moscow preparatory congress²²² and later called the 'leader' (vozhd'), ideologue and inspiration of shock work.²²³ It seems that Stalin saw in the shock brigades a manifestation of that attack on bureaucracy from below, that had been called for in the Party's campaign for 'self-criticism' (samokritika) in 1928.²²⁴ This link is evident in the Appeal of the 16th Party Conference of April 1929, which stated: "Socialist competition is a powerful means of awakening and organising the initiative of the masses in fulfilling the Five-Year Plan and, at the same time, is a powerful means of developing self-criticism from below."²²⁵

This control from below was designed to complement control from above exercised by Party and state organisations. In the sphere of forging a labour discipline more commensurate with the increased pace of industrialisation, shock work complemented the series of measures adopted from early 1929 (see Chapter Four, pp. 127-8), aimed at increasing the power of one-man management. Bettelheim rightly perceives socialist competition as "an attempt by the advanced elements of the working class to take in hand certain factors' in the production process, so as to speed up the growth of industrial production."²²⁶

However, it is clear that the movement gradually developed an "autonomous" approach to dealing with problems of production, an approach which increasingly became incompatible with the "managerial" approach

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221 I.V. Stalin, Sochineniya, vol.12, M. 1949, p.119.

222 XVI S"ezd vsesoyuznoi kommunisticheskoi partii (bol'shevikov) - stenograficheskii otchet, 2-e izd. M-L, 1931, p.528.

223 A. Kapustin, A. Milorud, Tri goda sotsialisticheskogo sorevnovaniya mass, M-L, 1932, pp.17-18.

224 Pravda, 3 June 1928.

225 Resheniya...vol.2, p.45 (emphasis in original).

226 Charles Bettelheim, Class Struggles in the USSR, 1923-1930, London, 1978, p.251 (emphasis in original).

advocated from above. These conflicts became apparent at the Shock Workers' Congress (see below pp. 208-212), and lay at the roots of disagreement over the production communes (see below pp. 240-290) At this early stage of the movement, however, both approaches had sufficient common enemies to aim at (bureaucracy, old customs and practices, conservatism etc.) as to ensure that such conflicts remained below the surface.

Moreover, the trade unions, effectively directed by Stalin's hand-picked lieutenants, Kaganovich and Shvernik, had now thrown their weight behind the movement. A check on socialist competition pacts, conducted by VTsSPS in the autumn of 1929, had revealed the potential of the shock worker movement, especially in the Urals, where Shvernik had previously been obkom secretary. The results of the check, published on 5 November, revealed more than 6000 shock workers at the Lys'va metalworks, nearly 4000 at the Alapaevskii metalworks and more than 1000 at the Nadezhdinsk plant.²²⁷

At the III plenum of VTsSPS later that month, Dogadov noted in his chairman's report that "the basic link of trade union work in their reorganisation to face production and get closer to the masses is socialist competition, which represents the development of new forms of communist labour..."²²⁸ However, his assertion that collective rewards for competition were better than individual²²⁹ would appear to run counter to the official Party line and favour, instead, the spontaneous movement in the factories to switch from shock brigades to production communes and collectives. This trend was to become a major source of contention between Party representatives and the shock workers themselves at the December Congress (see below pp. 208-212).

However, the preparations for the Congress were not being conducted everywhere with great zeal. A survey of 26 plants for whom places had

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227 Politicheskii i trudovoi pod'em, p.310.

228 Rezolyutsii II i III, pp.68-69.

229 ibid. p.72.

been reserved at the Congress revealed that 14 had made no preparations at all and that four had no shock workers anyway.²³⁰

This, perhaps, exemplifies the ambiguous situation with regard to shock work in the country at the end of 1929. On the one hand fulsome praise and support from the Party leadership (if not always from Party members in the localities) and the recognition that shock work and competition had enabled the plan for 1928/29 to be fulfilled²³¹ and on the other, widespread reports of attacks, some fatal, on shock workers.²³² If rate-cutting had sparked off the greatest opposition amongst shop-floor workers since its introduction in the summer of 1929, then as the year progressed it must have become more of an irritant. Thus in Leningrad, by the end of the year, 49 out of 96 enterprises studied had witnessed rate-cutting.²³³

Although divisions within the working class over attitudes to competition were evident at the Shock Workers' Congress, the opponents of the movement, by definition, were not represented at the event. In effect the clash was one between representatives of control of competition from below and control from above. Indeed, the composition of the 820 delegates who gathered in Moscow's Dom Soyuzov on 5 December indicated where, from the Party's point of view, the strengths and weaknesses of the shock worker movement lay.²³⁴ Thus, 73.5 per cent of all delegates were members of either the Party or Komsomol, the remaining 26.5 per cent being non-Party.²³⁵ However, more than twice

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230 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti...(1930), p.34.

231 See, for example, the Leningrad obkom decree of 26 December 1929 quoted in N. B. Lebedeva, 'Partiinoe...', op. cit. p.72.

232 See, for example, Kosarev's speech at the Congress, in Pervyi Vsesoyuznyi s"ezd, p.40; Ocherki razvitiya, p.51; Pravda 10 December 1929. I.P. Ostapenko op. cit., pp.144-145.

233 N.B. Lebedeva, 'Partiinoe...', op. cit., pp.71-72.

234 Of the 820 delegates no fewer than 690 were shock workers, I.P. Ostapenko, op. cit., p.146.

235 Pervyi Vsesoyuznyi s"ezd, p.180.

as high a proportion of the non-Party shock workers (69.2 per cent) had started work before the Revolution compared to the Party and Komsomol representatives (34.3 per cent).²³⁶ Moreover, 64.4 per cent of the non-Party delegates were 30 or more years old, compared to just 27.5 per cent of the Party and Komsomol contingents.²³⁷

Yet it was precisely amongst the younger delegates that Party saturation was at its highest. Thus, whereas almost one-third (30.2 per cent) of all delegates were under 22 years of age, only 6.7 per cent of these belonged to neither the Party, nor the Komsomol.²³⁸ This is also reflected in the fact that only 14.6 per cent of Party and Komsomol members had worked at their current place of employment for more than ten years while fully 56.1 had for less than five years; the corresponding figures for the non-Party delegates were 39.8 per cent and 37.6 per cent.²³⁹

However, there were attributes that united the delegates. Thus, a similar percentage of both groups originated from workers' families (59.5 of Party/Komsomol, 57.7 of non-Party).²⁴⁰ Moreover, virtually all the delegates were activist, an impressive 92.7 per cent holding elected posts, including nearly half (46.5 per cent) who worked in Party organisations, and over two-thirds (69.7 per cent) who were elected to union bodies.²⁴¹ Further proof of the avant-garde role of these delegates in the shock worker movement is provided by the fact that no fewer than 60 per cent (and among metalworkers 69 per cent) of the delegates were brigade leaders.²⁴²

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236 ibid. p.181.

237 ibid. p.180. Significantly, a contemporary observer noted that the gathering "was overwhelmingly a Congress of young workers", I. Reznikov, 'Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie i Narkomtrud' in Voprosy truda, 1930, no.2, p.10.

238 Pervyi Vsesoyuznyi s"ezd, p.180.

239 ibid. p.182.

240 loc. cit.

241 ibid. p.186.

242 loc. cit.

It is against this background that the discussion on the class struggle around socialist competition and shock work must be perceived. For these delegates were, in the words of Komsomol secretary, Kosarev, the "Bolsheviks of tempo",²⁴³ and it is no coincidence that the Appeal issued by the delegates at the end of the Congress called upon the best shock workers - the "Bolsheviks of socialist tempos" - to join the Party.²⁴⁴

Management and union representatives united to launch a two-pronged assault aimed at: a) encouraging the initiative of the shock workers by getting the rest of the workforce, management, union organisations etc. behind them; and b) advocating that repressive measures be taken against those opposed to the movement.

Veinberg, the VTsSPS Secretary, set the tone in the opening speech of the Congress:²⁴⁵

"But comrades, shock workers are those people who remake more than just things. In remaking things they simultaneously effect a remaking of consciousness, a remaking of people, a remaking of themselves. In fact, by means of socialist competition, by means of shock methods of work, we must remake the whole working class, the entire peasantry, we must raise up the creators of socialism not in words, not on paper, but in deed."

Kuibyshev, on behalf of VSNKh, was no less enthusiastic in his opening speech:²⁴⁶

"You are the representatives of the most conscious detachments of the working class who have set out on the road of creating communist labour, communist discipline, a communist attitude to the factory and the plant - by this you become the avant-garde of the working class whom the Central Committee of our Party greets with special fervour, seeing in you the earnest of success, seeing in you the guarantee that the million-fold mass of workers have already entered the final battle for socialism."

Later in this speech, Kuibyshev turned to the opponents of competition:²⁴⁷

"You know that there is a certain cross-strata of the working class that is not always willing to join in socialist competition. You know that, unfortunately, there have been

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243 ibid. p.39.

244 ibid. p.176.

245 ibid. p.38.

246 ibid. p.42

incidents, albeit isolated and rare, but incidents nonetheless of direct opposition; you know that in practice, this went as far as forwarding the slogan of breaking machines at some plants".

Kuibyshev summed up the Party's attitude to 'watchers' and 'deserters' thus:²⁴⁸

"He who refuses to assist and help socialist competition is not serving the cause of socialist construction. He who is against competition is an enemy of the working class."

Finally, in his concluding speech, Kuibyshev combines the twin lines of attack:²⁴⁹

"It seems that our glorious shock workers - the embodiment in production of the highest principles of communist work on the one hand are surrounded in some cases by elements that are hostile to them in their own midst and, on the other hand, often the labour of the shock workers is met by an inattentive, bureaucratic attitude from above, from the heads of management, trade union and other organisations. This makes the work of the shock brigaders especially complex and difficult and it makes the deeds and the achievements of the shock brigades all the more glorious and honourable. The shock worker must not be put off by these difficulties, the shock worker must be sure that the Communist Party, the trade union movement and all organisations directing economic life will come to the aid of the shock brigades that are performing miracles in production."

In his concluding speech, Veinberg was more specific about the role of both Party members and opponents of shock work:²⁵⁰

"We must attain a situation whereby every member of the Party and every member of the Komsomol participates in shock work, otherwise we will not be able to say that this is really a communist or a Komsomolite."

and:²⁵¹

"What happens if someone refuses to knuckle under to the brigade? Can they get rid of him? If the whole brigade sees that he is a wrecker, a shirker, that this worker doesn't want to work, then the whole brigade can get rid of him and supplement the brigade with someone who will work voluntarily and observe discipline."

I have dwelt on the Shock Workers' Congress because it did mark the decisive breakthrough in the struggle for new forms and tempos of work and, thus, in the establishment of a new kind of labour discipline. From
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248 Quoted in D. Reznikov, op. cit. pp.46-47.

249 Pervyi Vsesoyuznyi s"ezd, pp.158-159.

250 ibid. p.167.

251 ibid. p.166.

composed of youth) remaining on the shop floor over long periods of time, performance tended to peak and fall, just like competition as a whole. Thus the example of the youth brigade at the Stalin metalworks (Donbas) was not atypical, fulfilling its monthly output plan thus: July 1929 137 per cent, August 146 per cent, October 128.5 per cent, November 92.8 per cent, December 66.6 per cent, January 1930 44.5 per cent. In February, to the delight, it seems, of management and unions alike, the brigade folded up.²⁷² Note the similarity to the experience of Dudarev's brigade at Zlatoust (see above p. 163), whose members also burned out just as a new campaign was being launched.

Thus, as this second stage of competition drew to a close, a new initiative was required to consolidate the gains of the autumn of 1929. This took the form of a campaign to involve the majority of workers in shock brigades along with 100 per cent involvement of Party, Komsomol and union activists.

The opening shot in this campaign was the Appeal of the Shock Workers' Conference, followed by the Central Committee decree on the Komsomol of 23 December, which called for 100 per cent participation of Komsomol members and working youth in competition and shock brigades as a decisive, priority task for Komsomol organs.²⁷³ On 26 December the Leningrad obkom of the Party passed a decree demanding that 50 per cent of all Leningrad workers and all Party, Komsomol and union activists should join the shock brigades.²⁷⁴

The call for full participation by Party and Komsomol members was particularly pertinent, for by the beginning of 1930 they were still only marginally involved in shock work. Kaganovich, in his report to the 16th Party Congress, claimed that only 15-20 per cent of communists were engaged in all forms of competition by January 1930,²⁷⁵ although

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272 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti...(1930), p.104.

273 See note 268 above, loc. cit.

274 Kommunisticheskaya partiya-vdokhnovitel', p.114 (A. Dubin).

275 XVI S"ezd, p.65.

This figure is borne out by certain subsequent studies.²⁷⁷ Despite wide variations from industry to industry, it is significant that between one-quarter and one-third of all categories (Party, Komsomol, non-Party, adult men and women, young men and women) were engaged in shock work. Nonetheless, it is clear that, in general, the non-Party workers were beginning to lag behind.

A slightly different sample from the same survey provides an indication of the relative participation in competition and shock work:

TABLE 11

No. of workers participating in socialist competition and shock work on 1.1.1930

<u>Union</u>	No. of ents.	Workers	No. competing	% competing	No. shock workers	% in shock brigades
1 Metalworkers	140	255743	150888	59	84395	33
2 Miners	344	166134	91373	55	39872	24
3 Textile workers	140	209834	146884	70	39868	19
4 Chemical workers	48	21220	14005	66	6154	29
5 Woodworkers	127	36471	27718	76	7294	20
6 Paperworkers	36	17091	12818	75	4444	26
7 Builders	136	57546	29348	51	15537	27
8 Leatherworkers	157	71239	33482	47	17097	24
9 Printers	78	16239	11692	72	4709	29
10 Clothing workers	36	31196	18094	58	12790	41
11 Sugar industry	82	46293	37960	82	7870	17
12 Food industry	225	49557	36672	74	14867	30
13 Waterworkers	59	29089	18617	64	6109	21
14 Communications	51	16952	11866	70	4238	25
15 Public catering	46	3925	2983	76	903	23
Total	1705	1028529	628110	61.1	273441	26.6

- Notes
- i) this survey would appear to include even those plants which had no competition
 - ii) apart from categories 8,12,13,14 Leningrad workers are not included.

Calculated from material in Trud v SSSR, 1926-1930, p.24.

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277 A. Devyakovich, 'Sotssorevnovanie i udarnichestvo' in Voprosy profdvizheniya, 1934, no.5, pl83, gives a figure of 903,100 in competition. This same figure, referring to shock workers in competition is given in the International Labour Office's Industrial and Labour Information, vol.50, April-June 1934, no.11, p.370. If one accepts that 29 per cent of the industrial workers were in shock brigades (see above p.203), and that a total of 3,116,200 workers were engaged in Soviet industry on that date, see Trud v SSSR (1936) p.94, then a figure of 903,698 shock workers emerges, an insignificant statistical difference.

The high proportion of metalworkers in shock brigades is undoubtedly due to the number of workshops and whole factories in that industry that declared themselves 'shock'. Although various observers differ over the exact percentage of workers competing at this time, there is a general consensus that nearly two thirds of the industrial workforce was involved.²⁷⁸ This would provide a total of some two million participants in socialist competition (an intriguing figure, being the same given by Dogadov for May 1929 and, subsequently, by Veinberg in May 1930!).

It is also apparent that, at this time, less than half of all those competing were in shock brigades.²⁷⁹ Yet as this form of work organisation continued to produce generally favourable results at a time when shortcomings were becoming more and more commonplace in the overall performance of industry, it is not surprising that emphasis was placed on shock brigades during the next mass campaign for socialist competition that was launched early in 1930.

However, in discussing the Leninist Enrolment, it is worth bearing in mind the parallel trends that were emerging in competition towards the end of 1929. On the one hand the 'managerial' approach to competition had encouraged workshop rather than factory-wide competition and, as a result, the promfinplan, had now reached shop level.²⁸⁰ On the other hand, the 'autonomous' approach was manifesting itself in the rapid growth of such collective forms of work organisation as production communes which, in the perception of many Party, union and industrial executives, posed a potential threat to managerial authority. As both

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278 Some sources claim that the VTsSPS survey revealed 63 per cent of industrial workers competing, see Trud v SSSR: sbornik statei..., p.89. Kuibyshev quoted this figure at the 16th Party Congress, XVI S"ezd..., p.514. Shvernik, however, maintained at the 9th trade union congress that the survey showed that 65 per cent were competing, see Materialy k otchetu..., p.24.

279 I have calculated that Kuibyshev's figures reveal that 41.3 per cent of those competing were in shock brigades, whereas the figures in Table \ would suggest 43.5 per cent and those given by Shvernik, 44.6 per cent.

280 The 3rd plenum of VTsSPS in November 1929 specifically called for this, see A. Aluf, "Profsoyuzy - organizatory mass na zavershenue postroeni fundamenta sotsialisticheskoi ekonomii SSSR", in Voprosy truda, 1931, no.1, p.57.

trends were to intensify during the Leninist Enrolment, this inherent conflict became increasingly overt, particularly in the context of the wider conflicts that were beginning to characterise Soviet society during this period.

THE LENINIST ENROLMENT -

THE BEGINNING OF THE END FOR THE 'AUTONOMOUS' APPROACH

The year of 1930 has entered the Soviet history books as the 'year of the expanded socialist offensive along the entire front' (god razvernutogo nastupleniya sotsializma po vsemu frontu).²⁸¹ In practical terms this signified the rapid expansion of the socialist sector, in the countryside through the collectivisation of agriculture and, in the towns, through the intensification of the industrialisation drive. At the time both policies were explained within the context of the sharpening of the class struggle between socialist and capitalist elements. As socialist competition had been identified by the Party leadership as an important front of the class struggle within industry,²⁸² it was inevitable that the movement would reflect the fundamental contradictions that were afflicting the country as a whole.

As we have seen, the second stage of socialist competition (August-December 1929) marked the end of neutrality towards the movement. In the Leninist Enrolment, the third stage, even passive support was to be regarded as insufficient. A positive attitude towards and active participation in shock work and competition became a kind of acid test that every worker would be obliged to take in order to avoid being labelled a class enemy. Under such circumstances it is small wonder that cadre worker and new recruit alike would follow the example of the genuine pace-setters and join competition. As a consequence, however, the label of 'shock worker' would necessarily be devalued.

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281 See, for example, Ekonomicheskaya zhizn' SSSR: khronika sobytii i faktov, 1917-1959, M. 1961. P.227.

282 At the Shock Workers' Congress Kuibyshev made this point, Pravda, 12 December, 1929.

The idea for the Leninist Enrolment came from workers at the Lys'va metalworks and the Kolomenskoe locomotive works, two plants well in the forefront of the shock movement.²⁸⁶ The idea was taken up by the trade unions and the Komsomol. On 21 January 1930 the VTsSPS and the Komsomol's Central Committee issued an appeal "To all Proletarians of the Soviet Union",²⁸⁷ to mark the anniversary of Lenin's death with a second 'Leninist Enrolment' (the first had followed his death in 1924 when nearly quarter of a million cadre workers had joined the Party). This time workers were urged to enrol in shock brigades so that there might be at least half a million new shock workers.

Four days later, on 25 January, the Party Central Committee issued an appeal "On the Fulfilment of the Economic Plan",²⁸⁸ addressed to all Party, trade union and economic organisations, approving of the Leninist Enrolment and calling for the election of shock workers to union committees.

In purely quantitative terms the response to the Appeal was quite staggering. In total it was estimated that 1.3 million workers had joined shock brigades by 1 March 1930, although it was admitted that the figure was greatly inflated by the inclusion of all workshops and plants that had declared themselves 'shock'.²⁸⁹

VTsSPS carried out a selective survey of the state of shock work and competition on 1 March 1930, the results of which confirmed the rapid growth of shock workers during the Leninist Enrolment. Although the survey included railway and construction workers, these may be excluded to provide figures for industry:

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286 See Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti (1973), p.76. A leading article in the Party journal noted that both plants had declared themselves 'shock' during the Leninist Enrolment, Bol'shevik, 1930, nos.3-4, pp.4-5.

287 Trud, 21 January 1930.

288 Direktivy VKP(b) po khozyaistvennym voprosam, 1931, p.664.

289 See decree of TsK VKP(b) "On the results of the Leninist Enrolment of Shock Workers" in Partiinoe stroitel'stvo, 1930, no.9, pp.59-60; the VTsSPS report on 28 March 1930 put the total for 20 unions at 1,320,000 new shock workers, see Industrializatsiya SSSR, 1929-1932, p.510. Other sources put the figure as high as 1.5 million, Istoriya sovetskogo rabocheho klassa v shesti tomakh, vol.2, p.266.

TABLE 12

	No. of workers studied	No. shock on 20.1.30	%	No. shock during Lenin Enrolment	%	No. shock on 1.3.30	%
Metalworkers	597250	161258	27	197091	33	358350	60
Paperworkers	26842	7140	26.6	8482	31.6	15622	58.2
Textile workers	181281	32812	18.1	55653	30.7	88465	48.8
Chemical workers	29641	6402	21.6	7558	25.5	13961	47.1
Woodworkers	88516	12215	13.8	24976	27.2	36292	41.0
Total	923530	219827	23.8	292861	31.7	512690	55.5

Source: Materialy k otchetu VTsSPS - IX s"ezdu profsoyuzov, p.25.

Thus, in a little over a month the number of shock workers had grown by about 225 per cent to nominally over two million by 1 March.²⁹⁰

A smaller sample from the same survey (in which data for Moscow, Leningrad and the Ukraine are excluded) provides comparable results:

TABLE 13

	No. of ents.	No. of workers	No. shock 20.1.30	%	No. shock Lenin Enrolment	%	No. shock 1.3.30	%
Paperworkers	44	26842	7140	26.6	8482	31.6	15622	58.2
Woodworkers	86	50851	8238	16.2	23951	47.1	32189	63.3
Metalworkers	61	111592	27786	24.9	29683	26.6	57470	51.5
Chemical workers	51	29641	6402	21.6	7558	25.5	13961	47.1
Textile workers	93	181281	32812	18.1	55653	30.7	88465	48.8
Totals	335	400207	82378	20.6	125327	31.3	207707	51.9

Source: Trud v SSSR: sbornik statei (1930) p.91.

Although the increase of shock workers during the Leninist Enrolment is even greater (more than 250 per cent), the provinces can be seen to be lagging behind Moscow, Leningrad and the Ukraine. According to VTsSPS data, the Enrolment provided 237,000 new shock workers in the Ukraine, 202,000 in Leningrad and, by 9 February, 160,000 in Moscow. Of the

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290 A figure almost certainly inflated and one achieved by simply multiplying the number of shock workers before the Enrolment (903,100) by 225 per cent (the increase during the Enrolment). Obviously, an even higher figure is reached if one adds the 1,320,000 new shock workers to the 903,100. Alternatively, a lower figure of about 1.8 million shock workers is obtained by calculating 55.5 per cent of the industrial workforce at that time (3,230,200 in the first quarter of 1930), see Trud v SSSR (1932), p.61.

other established industrial regions the Urals provided 87,000 new shock workers and the Ivanovo region 101,000.²⁹¹

Other significant increases were recorded in the Nizhni Novgorod region, with 101,546 new shock workers,²⁹² and Western Siberia, with 54,230.²⁹³

The succession of decrees and appeals emphasising the need for Party and Komsomol involvement in shock brigades resulted in these groups leading the way in the Leninist Enrolment, as the following table (which excludes Moscow, Leningrad and the Ukraine) illustrates:

TABLE 14

% participation in shock brigades among:

	No. of ents.	No. of workers	<u>Members and cand. of Party</u>			<u>Members and cand. of Komsomol</u>			<u>Non-Party</u>		
			21.1	LE	1.3	21.1	LE	1.3	21.1	LE	1.3
Paperworkers	44	26842	21.3	38.5	59.8	27.3	42.1	69.4	27.7	28.5	56.2
Woodworkers	86	50851	21.7	51.2	72.9	25.5	38.7	64.2	14.8	47.4	62.2
Metalworkers	61	111592	39.4	36.6	76.0	31.5	32.1	63.6	21.3	23.9	45.2
Chemical workers	51	29641	34.4	37.9	72.3	31.5	31.4	62.9	18.0	22.6	40.6
Textile workers	93	181281	23.8	35.4	59.2	24.7	31.9	56.6	16.7	30.1	46.8
Totals	335	400207	31.5	39.9	71.4	28.5	35.7	64.2	14.6	26.6	41.2

Source: Trud v SSSR: sbornik statei (1930) p.92

Several other factors promoted this growing disparity in involvement in shock brigades between, on the one hand, non-Party workers and, on the other, members of the Komsomol and Party. Notably, the massive influx of cadre workers into the Party which outstripped even the unprecedented rate of expansion of the industrial workforce.²⁹⁴ The 'non-Party' contingent was thus diluted by a dual process by which it lost its most senior and active members and gained inexperienced recruits.

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291 Industrializatsiya SSSR, 1929-1932, p.511.
 292 Politicheskii i trudovoi pod'em, p.372
 293 A. Moskovskii, 'Formirovanie kadrov promyshlennykh rabochikh Zapadnoi Sibiri i razvitie ikh trudovoi aktivnosti v gody pervoi pyatiletki', in Kommunisticheskaya partiya - vdokhnovitel', p.150.
 294 At the 16th Party Congress it was reported that 220,000 workers had been accepted into the Party in the first three months of 1930, see XVI S"ezd, p.233; In that same period 178,600 workers had joined the industrial labour force, see Trud v SSSR (1932), p.61.

The situation is graphically illustrated by figures for this period in Leningrad where the intake of workers went up from 4122 (Oct-Dec 1929) to 14390 (Jan-Mar 1930),²⁹⁵ yet the percentage of Party members at the city's enterprises remained virtually stable, falling from 20.1 per cent on 1 January to 20 per cent on 1 April 1930.²⁹⁶ Moreover, the Party was not slow to realise that the wholesale and collective entry of shock workers into their ranks was a mixed blessing. Indeed, as early as 11 February 1930 the Party's Central Committee felt obliged to pass a decree expressly forbidding collective entry into its ranks,²⁹⁷ and, on 12 March, issued a further directive aimed at developing "political and educational work amongst newly-accepted candidate members".²⁹⁸

This served further to highlight the contradiction of the Party's policies regarding worker initiatives, for the responses to appeals to join the shock worker movement and the Party tended to undermine and devalue membership of both. In an effort to boost the ^{it} quantitative success of the campaign, qualitative considerations were neglected and the screening process became minimal. Thus, of the 27,000 Urals workers applying for Party membership in the first few days of the Enrolment, no less than 20,447 (75.7 per cent) were accepted.²⁹⁹ Entry into the Party appears to have been easiest of all for skilled, cadre workers, for 53.3 per cent of those accepted had worked in industry for more than ten years and 60.3 per cent were in the upper half of the grade scale.³⁰⁰

To appreciate the reason for this sudden rush of applications to join the Party, it is useful to reflect upon the changes that were

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295 Leningradskaya gorodskaya organizatsiya VKP(b) v tsifrakh, vyp.4, Leningrad. 1934, p.16.

296 Leningradskaya oblastnaya organizatsiya VKP(b) v tsifrakh, vyp.2. Leningrad. 1930, p.24.

297 Pravda, 11 February 1930. The decree emphasised that "the most important criterion for admission into the Party is the active participation of workers in shock brigades, in socialist competition and their genuinely leading role in production".

298 Quoted in N.F. Plotnikov, "Ulushchenie sotsial'nogo sostava ural'skoi partiinoi organizatsii v gody pervoi pyatiletki" in Voprosy partiinogo rukovodstva rabochim klassom Urala, Sverdlovsk, 1976, p.52.

299 ibid. p.48.

300 ibid. pp.48-49.

occurring at this time in Soviet society. Apart from the ubiquitous "sharpening of the class struggle", the collectivisation drive was in full swing, the continuous working week was striking at the roots of religion, the commune movement was growing apace and significant changes were occurring in the composition of the workforce.

An example of the way in which these simultaneous developments were reflected in the workers' response to the Leninist Enrolment is provided by the situation at one of the plants that suggested the idea in the first place, the Kolomenskoe locoworks. Here virtually all workers joined shock brigades and entire workshops became communes, applying en masse to join the Party.³⁰¹ Moreover, 70 per cent of the workers were connected with the land and, of these, fully 90 per cent had joined the collective farms. The attitude to Party membership amongst this group is best summed up by the reaction "well, now that we are in the kolkhoz, we ought to be in the Party too".³⁰² As a result, by 1 April 1930, 47.3 per cent of all workers at the plant were members or candidates of the Party.³⁰³ Another source puts the total number of communists at the plant at 4677, of which 3354 had recently joined (71.7 per cent).³⁰⁴ It would appear that more than 2600 of the latter joined during the Leninist Enrolment, of which a mere 127 (just under 5 per cent) were rejected.³⁰⁵

To further demonstrate the commitment of the plant to the socialist offensive the entire factory, and the region in which it was based (the home of an important Orthodox monastery) was declared "godless" (bezbozhnym).³⁰⁶

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301 Bol'shevik, 1930, nos.3-4, p.5.
302 ibid. p.8; Another source claims that, of the 1150 workers at this plant joining the Party and linked with the countryside, 979 (85.1 per cent) had joined collective farms, A. Karlik "Proletariat na pod"eme i nashi zadachi" in Partiinoe stroitel'stvo, 1930, nos.3-4, p.28.
303 F. Rizem', "Rost partii za dva goda" in Partiinoe stroitel'stvo, 1930, no.10, p.12; At the 16th Congress the figure for 1 April was given as 48 per cent, XVI S"ezd, p.84.
304 N.N. "Novoe v sisteme partrabotoi", in Partiinoe stroitel'stvo, 1930, no.10, p.43.
305 V. Ryabokon', "Partiya i ee rezervy", Partiinoe stroitel'stvo, 1930, nos.3-4, p.38.
306 Bol'shevik, nos.3-4, 1930, p.9.

Muromsk textile mill, which had declared itself 'shock' when only 25 of its 1200 workers (2 per cent) were udarniks.³¹² He also claimed that, during the Enrolment, the countrywide rise in shock work had been accompanied by increases in absenteeism, defective output and idle time at a number of enterprises, notably Krasnyi Treugol'nik.³¹³ Another Leningrad plant in the forefront of competition, Krasnyi Vyborzhets, also reported rising brak and absenteeism, falling productivity and underfulfilment of plans.³¹⁴ Similar reports were coming in from factories all over the USSR in the spring of 1930.

How can these apparently contradictory trends be explained?

Firstly, the radical changes in the work regime had had a dramatic effect on working conditions. As planning targets were raised, managements made the fulfilment of the promfinplan a priority that overrode such considerations as labour legislation. As a result norms were upped and rates were cut, working days lengthened and rest days waived, sometimes, although not always with the "approval" of the workforce.³¹⁵ More significantly entire workshops and even plants were mobilised until the plan was fulfilled, a trend that was to develop throughout the Five-Year Plan.³¹⁶ At the same time funds designated for labour protection were diverted elsewhere and, as a consequence, the accident

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312 Materialy k otchetu VTsSPS, p.26.

313 ibid. p.25. A contemporary report noted that this plant had declared itself 'shock' when only 2500 of its 22,000 workers (11.4 per cent) were udarniks. After this declaration lateness increased five-fold, absenteeism nine-fold, work would cease 30-40 minutes before the whistle and, prior to days off, 1-1½ hours early, Voprosy profsoyuznogo stroitel'stva, pp.21-22.

314 Metallist, 20 June 1930, p.30.

315 The above trade union report called for the stamping out of workers voting for longer working days, waiving days off etc, see Voprosy profsoyuznogo stroitel'stva, pp.22-23. Attention was drawn to this phenomenon by Trud on 18 February 1930 and, on the following day, it criticised managements and unions for 'imposing' this arbitrarily. For examples of this practice see Trud 25 February 1930; G. Unpelev, Rozhdenie Uralmasha, p.32; Govaryat stroiteli sotsializma, pp76, 151. On 27 February 1930 Narkomtrud outlawed this practice whether initiated by workers or management, see Izvestiya, 28 February 1930.

316 For examples in Zlatoust and Ivanovo-Voznesensk see Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti (1930), pp.155, 200.

rate rose sharply in many factories.³¹⁷ Finally, the overall improvement in absentee rates was offset by the introduction of a far less tolerant attitude to violations of labour discipline.³¹⁸ Small wonder, therefore, that the rank-and-file worker went along with decisions to declare workshops 'shock' and contributed to the spread of 'sham shock work'.

Discontent with working conditions was exacerbated by the wide differentiations in rates of pay within factories and between industries. This, combined with rapidly deteriorating living conditions, particularly accommodation and provisions, gave rise to unprecedented rates of labour turnover in 1930 (see Chapter Three). This fluidity of labour threatened to undermine the entire shock work movement.

Even before the Leninist Enrolment began, labour turnover was having a major effect on socialist competition, as the following survey, carried out by VTsSPS on 1 January 1930 in 2057 enterprises belonging to 17 unions, illustrates:

<u>Reasons for the collapse of shock brigades (in %)</u>	
1 Labour turnover, switching jobs, end of contract	29.1
2 Lack of guidance by Party and union organisations	15.5
3 Reorganisation due to continuous working week	13.3
4 Mobilisation to collective farm, study or promotion	10.6
5 Poor planning, poor materials etc.	9.1
6 No assistance from management or technical personnel	8.0
7 Non-fulfilment by workers of socialist obligations	8.0
8 Lack of plan or account of brigade's work	6.4

Source: Na novom etape sotsialisticheskogo stroitel'stva (Kalistratov), p.190.

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317 At the Stalin metalworks (Donbas) the rise in the accident rate during the first half-year 1929/1930 was blamed on "bad lighting, and a tired and rapidly changing workforce". In this period there were 8 fatal and 25 serious injuries, ibid p.114; At the Kolomenskoe works, in the first six months of 1930 there were, "due to the poor level of expenditure of labour protection funds", 1195 accidents, Na trudovom fronte, 1930, no.29, p.2. At the Sel'mashstroï works in Rostov-on-Don, "a massive rise in serious injuries occurred during the third quarter of 1929/30 rising to 1066, compared with 283 for the previous quarter, F. Kilyuzhnyi, 'Bor'ba s travmatismom na predpriyatiyakh Severno-Kavkazskogo draya', in Voprosy truda, 1931, no.2, p.91.

318 At Sosnevskaia Manufaktura, a textile mill in Ivanovo-Voznesensk, it was claimed that, although labour discipline was low, it had improved somewhat due to the sterner measures being adopted by management, Thus, if in the figures for the first half year of 1928/29 there had been 553 reprimands and 26 dismissals, the figures for the first half year of 1929/30 had risen to 1085 and 56 respectively, Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti (1930), pp.203-204.

Thus, even leaving aside turnover, nearly one-quarter of all the collapses were brought about by Government policies (categories 3 & 4) and a further third stemmed from failures of organisational back-up (2, 5 & 6).

The growing influence of turnover as the root cause for shock brigades folding up is illustrated by figures from Leningrad for May 1930, which show that this phenomenon was to blame for 63.1 per cent of all collapses, with lack of guidance from Party and union organs constant at 15.5 per cent and "due to the fault of management" likewise stable at 8 per cent.³¹⁹

Contemporary accounts confirm that, no sooner had the initial enthusiasm for the Leninist Enrolment subsided than a rapid falling-off occurred in shock work, labour discipline, working conditions and provisions.³²⁰ Apart from a brief resurgence for the 16th Party Congress in June-July the situation continued to deteriorate through to the autumn of 1930, when the Party and Government launched a fresh series of appeals and measures aimed at regulating the crises.

The Party was equivocal in its assessment of the Leninist Enrolment in a special decree of 28 April 1930. While praising the positive achievements of the campaign, including the beneficial influence on labour discipline, several shortcomings were indentified.

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319 Trud v SSSR: sbornik statei (1930), p.93.

320 A retrospective survey carried out by VTsSPS on 15 July 1930 concluded that "there was a clear ebb in socialist competition and shock work immediately the Leninist Enrolment of shock workers had finished", Industrializatsiya SSSR (1929-1932), p.518; in the Moscow region, arbitrary absenteeism, which had shown a drop in the second quarter of 1929/30 of 26.3 per cent compared with the corresponding period of 1928/29, rose by 45.5 per cent in the third quarter of 1929/30 compared with the period April-June 1928/29, A. Putyatin, 'Ispol'zovanie rabochei sily Moskovskoi oblasti v 1929/30 godu', in Voprosy truda, 1931, no.2, p.83; at the Sosnevskaya Manufaktura textile mill, by March 1930 the management had spent just 4.5 per cent of the allotted labour protection funds. As a result, accidents in the first half-year had risen to 333, compared with 326 for the entire year of 1929, Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti (1930), p.208; in April, "serious difficulties with provisions" were reported at the construction site of the Stalingrad tractor works, ibid, p.220.

Criticism was directed in general at "sham shock work" and, in particular at the "razamatazz" (paradnaya shumikha) accompanying the declaration of entire plants and workshops "shock", a trend which henceforward was to involve far greater selectivity. Instead, the Party sought to emphasise the need for bringing the promfinplan down to the brigade level, so that each group of shock workers would have concrete responsibilities, tasks and targets.³²¹

Although the decree did call for key enterprises in basic industries and industrial centres to be promoted as "genuinely shock and advanced", it nevertheless marked an important step away from collective to individual forms of competition at a time when the latter was in danger of being squeezed out by the former.³²²

Systematic bonuses were to be paid not only to the best enterprises and shock brigades in competition, but also to the best individual workers and technical personnel. A renewed call was made for 100% participation of Party and Komsomol members in the shock brigades.³²³

Perhaps the most significant part of this decree, however, was its definition of the goals of the shock workers: "the primary goal of the shock worker movement, in addition to intensifying labour, is to improve the entire production process by every means: better organisation of labour, streamlining of production and management, maximum development of invention and improvement of individual work skills by raising the workers' technical qualifications and teaching the workers to care for machinery and tools."³²⁴ Compare this essentially "managerial" view of shock work with the wider concept of the udarnik contained in a resolution

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321. Partiinoe stroitel'stvo, 1930, no.9, p.59.

322. A major Gosplan survey concluded that by 1 May 1930 "individual competition was dying out", accounting for just 28.3 per cent of all those competing, compared to 58.9 per cent in the shock brigades. In such key areas as the Ukrainian metals industry, only 8.8 per cent of all those competing did so on an individual basis, Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti (1930), pp.23-24.

323. Partiinoe stroitel'stvo, 1930, no.9, p.60.

324. Great Soviet Encyclopedia: A Translation of Third Edition, vol.26, New York, p.135. (Original Russian text, Partiinoe stroitel'stvo, 1930, no.9, p.59.)

had begun back in the summer of 1929 at Moscow's Elektrozavod, when 'five-year plans' were drawn up not only for the factory and each work shop, but also for every machine tool. The idea for reviving the concept was aired at Leningrad's Komintern leatherworks early in April, but it was not introduced on an organised basis until the Karl Marx works in Leningrad responded to the VTsSPS decree prior to the Party Congress and then, on 30 July 1930, called on other plants to follow its example.³³⁰

Two other forms of shock work that also drew praise from the Party Congress were the liaison brigades (skvoznye brigady) and the 'social tugboats' (obshchestvennye buksiry). The former (sometimes translated as 'chain', 'through' or 'mixed' brigades) originated at the Sel'mashstroi agricultural machine works in Rostov-on-Don in May 1930.³³¹ Members of the 2,000 strong brigade had published in Trud on 5 June 1930 a letter explaining how control was exercised over the entire production process to overcome "bottle-necks" and poor liaison works between shops at the plant.

On 14 June 1930, Trud published a report on the formation, in mid-May, of the first social tugboat at the Artem mine in the Northern Caucasus. A general meeting of Artem miners had despatched a team consisting of two of their best shock workers, an engineer, and representatives of management, union and Party organisations to the neighbouring October Revolution pit, which had fallen behind in its production schedule. By mid-July, a VTsSPS report on this innovation noted its successful implementation elsewhere,³³² although other reports point to the hostility such 'visits' engendered amongst the 'host' workers.³³³

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330 Leningradskie rabochie v bor'be za sotsializm, p.207.
 331 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v SSSR, 1918-1964, pp.88-90.
 332 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v SSSR, 1918-1964, p.93.
 333 Metallist, 10 July 1930 reports on an "unfriendly welcome" given by Moscow's Parastroi workers to the "tugboat" team from Taganrog's Krasnyi Kotel'shchik. Similar opposition was manifested when the AMO motorworks 'took in tow' the Moscow Brake Works, see Pravda, 4 September, 1930; the Artem miners were also met at first "with ill-will" (nedobrozhelatel'no) by the miners of the October Revolution pit, Na trudovom fronte, 1930, no.17, p.6, who called their visitors 'foreigners' (chuzhaki), 'Varangians' (varyagi) and 'upstarts' (vyskochki), A. Kapustin & A. Milorud, op. cit. p.53.

Amongst the proliferation of other types of brigades at this time were 'tempo brigades' (brigady tempov),³³⁴ 'storm brigades' (shturmovye brigady), brigades of exemplary output and rationalisation brigades, planning-operational brigades, etc.³³⁵ Although these were formed in a substantial proportion of factories over the next two years, none of them ever accounted for a significant percentage of workers, as the following tables illustrate:

TABLE 15

Type of brigade	Total no. of brigades	% ents. with these brigades	Average no. of brigades per ent.	No. of workers in these brigades	% of all workers
Liaison	2790	29.9	5	71548	3.8
Social Tugboats	346	8.0	2	9160	0.49
Quality study	4062	27.9	8	43458	2.34
Planning-operational	1415	10.6	7	10557	0.57
Rationalisation	1901	23.5	5	13889	0.75

Source: A survey of 1.4.1931, covering 1884 enterprises with 1,864,235 workers), Trud v SSSR: statisticheskii spravochnik, (1932), pp.126-127.

The last three types of brigade listed were all roughly the same size as the average shock brigade (7-11 workers per brigade), whereas the liaison brigades and social tugboats were considerably larger, averaging 25 members per brigade. However, there were wide differentiations from industry to industry. If one compares the auto and tractor with the cotton industry, the former had, on average, 6 members per liaison brigade and 3 per tugboat, while the latter had about 70 for each.³³⁶

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334 Metallist, 10 July 1930 (Stalinsk metalworks).
 335 Bol'shevik, 1931, no.4, pp.31-32, notes 'storm brigades' and 'brigades of exemplary output' (elsewhere called quality brigades) at Moscow's Serp i Molot works, and rationalisation brigades at Elektrozavod; 'Planning-operational brigades' are identified at Krasnyi Putilovets, in Industrializatsiya SSSR, 1929-1932, pp.126-127.
 336 Trud v SSSR (1932), pp.126-127.

The situation with these groups did not change significantly throughout the rest of the First Five-Year Plan as the following table illustrates:

TABLE 16

	1 April 1931	1 July 1931	1 January 1932	1 January 1933
All ents. studied	1884	2052	2692	2304
Total no. of workers (thousands)	1864.2	1863.6	*2068.5	2581.8
<u>Liaison brigades</u>				
% ents. with liaison br.	29.9	24.4	20.0	17.5
No. of brigades	2790	2871	3980	4434
No. of workers in them	71548	59334	72991	63981
% of all workers	3.8	3.2	3.5	2.5
<u>Social Tugboats</u>				
% ents. with tugboats	8.0	6.0	4.4	11.4
No. of brigades	346	413	614	1019
No. of workers in them	9160	10468	10320	25975
% of all workers	0.49	0.6	0.5	1.0
<u>Rationalisation brigades</u>				
% ents. with rat. brigades	23.5	22.4	24.9	37.4
No. of brigades	1901	1981	2957	3464
No. of workers in them	13889	13426	23524	37999
% of all workers	0.75	0.7	1.1	1.5
<u>Quality brigades</u>				
% ents. with quality br.	27.9	26.9	29.0	28.9
No. of brigades	4062	4222	5725	4285
No. of workers in them	43458	48572	52760	34658
% of all workers	2.34	2.6	2.55	1.34
<u>Plan-operational brigades</u>				
% ents. with p-o brigades	10.6	12.7	24.6	34.0
No. of brigades	1415	1638	7345	8369
No. of workers in them	10557	10545	41194	46726
% of all workers	0.57	0.57	1.99	1.81

Source: Trud v SSSR: statisticheskii spravochnik (1932), pp.126-127;
Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v SSSR, 1918-1964, pp.107-108.

* The figure given in the original is 1068.5 which, it must be assumed, is a misprint.

Significantly, in mid-July 1930, the trade unions and central press had convened a meeting of representatives of the above types of brigade in Moscow with a view to discussing how to spread the initiatives to the

47.8 per cent were in shock brigades.³⁴⁵ However, the full survey, of 491 plants and 1,051,000 workers, concludes that 72.3 per cent of workers were competing and just 42.6 per cent were in shock brigades.³⁴⁶ Moreover, the survey only covered plants with more than 1000 workers. The highest estimation that I have come across for May 1930 is that 52 per cent of workers were shock.³⁴⁷ The lowest was given by Veinberg at the IV plenum of VTsSPS in mid-May where he claimed that 2 million workers were competing (just under 60 per cent) and 1.4 million were in shock brigades (just over 40 per cent).³⁴⁸

Thus, if one accepts that by May 1930 there were between 2 and 2.5 million workers competing and between 1.4 and 1.8 million shock workers, it becomes clear that, at best, the movement had only stabilised since the end of the Leninist Enrolment on 1 March. However, several key factors had, since then, greatly influenced the situation in a negative way. Labour turnover in the second quarter (April-June) 1930 reached unprecedented levels,³⁴⁹ as did the influx into the working class of new recruits.³⁵⁰ Indices of labour discipline had taken a sharp turn for the worst³⁵¹ and living and working conditions were deteriorating rapidly. Most importantly, however, key industrial targets were not being met.

At the IV plenum of VTsSPS, it was reported that labour productivity in the period October 1929-March 1930 had risen by only 18.9 per cent against the 25 per cent planned, while costs had been reduced by only 5-6 per cent against 11 per cent planned.³⁵² Moreover, the rise of 12 per cent in real wages had not been fulfilled, due, it was stated,

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345 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti (1930), pp.22-23.

346 ibid. p.11.

347 This figure was twice reported by A. Aluf, in Voprosy truda, 1931, no.6, p.4 and Na trudovom fronte, 1931, no.31, p.6.

348 Quoted in ILO, Industrial and Labour Information, vol.34, April-June 1930, no.13, p.489.

349 See Chapter Three, p. .

350 Between 1 April and 1 July 1930 the workforce increased by 348,600, Trud v SSSR: statisticheskii spravochnik (1932), p.61.

351 Absentee rates rose by 17.5 per cent in the period April-June compared to January-March 1930, Narodnoe khozyaistvo SSSR (1931), p.446.

352 Rezolyutsii IV i V plenumov VTsSPS, M. 1932, p.5.

to a rise in the cost of living and bad provisions.³⁵³ The situation was due to deteriorate even further during the summer of 1930. It is against the background of this situation that we shall examine, in the next chapter, the rise and fall of a type of shock work that was not represented at the July meeting on new forms of competition and did not share in the praise lavished on these initiatives at the Party Congress.

Conclusion

The importance of socialist competition, and its major component - shock work, is best viewed from the perspective of the vital role it played in stimulating a general acceptance for the new industrial order, geared towards the interests of production, and simultaneously, the smashing of the old order, directed more towards the improvement of workers' living and working conditions and the defence of their interests. This political task took precedence over the largely economic task of ensuring the improvement in labour discipline that, objectively, continued through 1929 and the first quarter of 1930. However, as an essential feature of shock work was a high level of labour discipline, the latter came to be regarded more as a political, rather than an economic, question.

The decisive breakthrough in this respect occurred in 1930. Although this year was most notable for mass collectivisation and the deepening industrial crisis, it was also very much the year of the shock worker. During 1930 the absolute number of shock workers nearly tripled, and their proportion in the industrial workforce doubled from 29 per cent to 58 per cent.³⁵⁴ No fewer than 1½ million more shock workers were working in Soviet industry at the end of 1930 than at the beginning of the year. In comparison, both the preceding year of 1929 and the following year, 1931, produced less than 1 million new shock workers.

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353 ibid., p.6.

354 Sotsialisticheskoe stroitel'stvo SSSR, M, 1934, p.454. I have calculated that from zero on 1 January 1929, the absolute number of shock workers rose to 0.9 million by 1 January 1930 and to 2.4 million by 1 January 1931. By 1 January 1932 this figure had risen to 3.2 million. See Appendix E.

However, these figures only gain their true perspective if it is emphasised that by far and away the most intensive growth in numbers of shock workers was experienced during the first five weeks of the Leninist Enrolment in January-February 1930, when at least 1 million workers declared themselves to be new udarniks (i.e. more than in the whole of either 1929 or 1931). It is important to stress that these recruits joined for largely moral, rather than material considerations (unlike the influx in the last two months of 1930, in which a further $\frac{1}{2}$ million workers joined the movement largely to get the extra provisions that an udarnik's ticket ensured). The fact that much of the efforts of the shock workers were wasted as their industrial and living environment deteriorated rapidly in 1930, was less important than the fact that the will to work in the new way had been firmly established. After tackling the most serious problems facing them in 1930, the Party could set about channeling the energy generated by the shock movement in the desired direction, a task they began to get to grips with only in 1931.

CHAPTER SIX

THE RISE AND FALL OF THE PRODUCTION COMMUNES, 1929-1931

Introduction

The rise and fall of the production communes encapsulates the fate of the "autonomous" approach towards competition, and the changing attitudes to them by the central authorities marked the real watershed in the development of the movement at this time. The fate of the communes highlights, in particular, an important aspect of the struggle for labour discipline for, on the one hand, most contemporary accounts of the communes agree that they had an overall beneficial effect on discipline but, on the other, they were clearly incapable of coping with such effects of rapid industrialisation as labour turnover and a mass, raw new workforce. This, despite the fact that it was the communes that set the pace in combatting these problems, through self-contracting (samokreplenie)¹ and skill-raising within the brigade.² Their reliance on social, rather than material, incentives, on collective, rather than individual solutions and on "autonomous", rather than "managerial" approaches in an environment that was increasingly unfavourable to such factors, eventually proved to be their undoing.

Their brief existence of the production communes, from first making an impact in the latter months of 1929 until their effective proscription by the Vesenkha and VTSSPS decree of 11 September 1931,³ was the subject of intense debate in the USSR at the time,

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1 Markus notes, in his article 'Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie na pod"eme', Bol'shevik, 1931, no.4, p.31, that communes showed the way in self-contracting at Elektrozavod.

2 Many contemporary observers noted this fact. For example, S. Zarkhii, op.cit., p.34; Bol'shevik, 1930, nos.3-4, p.5; Na novom etape, p.183 (Kalistratov); ibid. p.262 (Rakhman), who notes that "as it happens it is the most advanced section of the workers who point out that the production collectives represent the best school for promotion and the training of new, skilled workers."

3 Pravda, 12 September 1931.

engendering a host of newspaper articles, journal contributions and monographs. Studies into the phenomenon were instituted by the Party, unions and state organisations,⁴ and conferences to discuss the communes were convened by the press and union bodies.⁵

Yet this debate has found little reflection in subsequent histories of the Soviet working class and socialist competition. If they are mentioned at all, the production communes tend to be dismissed as ephemeral, insignificant and experimental by-products of this turbulent period and, as such, not worthy of serious attention and analysis.

True, certain relatively recent works on socialist competition have been less than unequivocal in their criticism of the communes. Lebedeva and Shkaratan emphasise that "only the most conscientious (soznatel'nye) workers were accorded the honour of being accepted into the communes" and, after criticising them for wage-levelling (uravnilovka), state "However, the very fact of their creation is clear proof that the workers themselves were looking for ways to construct communism, were trying to educate members of society in a communist spirit and were trying to ignite in the working class the flame of competition. Certain features of the production communes of the 1930's make them kindred (ikh rodnyat) to the brigades of communist labour."⁶

This view is echoed by Rogachevskaya, who concludes:⁷

"Production communes had many good points: collectivism, organisation, tight labour discipline, responsibility, etc

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4 Most notably, the Gosplan study of April-May 1930, see Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti (1930), especially the article "Proizvodstvennyye kollektivy i kommuny" by G. Polyak, S. Batsofen and A. Semenina, pp.51-93.

5 VTsSPS organised a meeting to discuss communes in March 1930, although the favourable report on the meeting was not published at the time, see Industrializatsiya SSSR, 1929-1932, pp.506-508: The management journal Predpriyatie also convened a meeting of communards in early March, see ZA industrializatsiyu, 7 March 1930.

6 Lebedeva & Shkaratan, op. cit., p.104.

7 L.S. Rogachevskaya, op. cit., p.119.

ideals of competition",¹² and a writer on the movement in the Donbas concludes that "collectives and communes arose as a result of the hostile activity of Trotskyites, right-wing and bourgeois nationalists, who were attempting to discredit the concept of socialist competition".¹³

In fact, as I shall seek to demonstrate, the communards represented those workers who were in the forefront not only of competition, but also of the struggle for labour discipline. As such they constituted a response from below to policies formulated above and were a parallel development in industry to both the collectivisation of agriculture (which also produced communes until their proscription by the Party decree of 14 March 1930)¹⁴ and the communalisation of life (byt'), which was abandoned following the Party edict of 16 May 1930.¹⁵

Furthermore there is clear evidence that the communes were a logical extension of the shock worker movement, being a response by the most committed, active and experienced workers to the intensification of work procedures (the introduction of line production, the continuous working week, the three-shift system etc.). The semi-autonomous growth of the production communes in the latter half of 1929 and the first half of 1930, with their emphasis on collective solutions to the problems of industry, inevitably came into conflict with the Party's policy of maintaining centralised control over industry through one-man management and thus curtailing the possibilities of devolving control to worker organisations.

With the benefit of hindsight, it is easy to accuse the communards of naivety in attempting to create communist work relations in a society so manifestly lacking either the necessary material or human basis. However, such idealism was shared by significant sections of the creative and technical intelligentsia and reflected the mood of

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12 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti (1973), p.105.
13 A.F. Rudenko, Uchenye zapiski (Khar'kovskii gos. un-t im. .M. Gor'kogo), vol.103, "Trudy kafedry istorii KPSS, vol.7, Khar'kov, 1959, p.131.
14 KPSS v rezolyutsiyakh i resheniyakh, chast' 2, M. 1954, pp.668-671.
15 Spravochnik partiinogo rabotnika, vyp.8, M. 1934, pp.733-734.

undoubtedly have become as ubiquitous as both the shock and cost-accounting brigades.

As with the shock brigades, the generic term "production commune" covered a wide variety of organisational forms functioning under various names: communes, collectives, living and production communes (proizvodstvenno-bytovye), conveyors, communist brigades, communettes (kommunki) etc. There is no clear distinction to be drawn between the communes and collectives, although it is generally accepted that the former split wages and earnings equally, while the latter did so according to grade and hours worked.¹⁹ However, the Gosplan survey of May 1930 suggested that only those brigades which exercised equal distribution amongst different grades and skills were true communes, all the rest being collectives.²⁰

The point to emphasise is that it was not the form of wage distribution that linked these brigades (indeed, only in some of the living communes was the distribution truly communist i.e. according to need), but their communist attitude to work, expressed in cooperation under the slogan "all for one, one for all"²¹ (a slogan revived without quite the same conviction in the post-1958 movement for communist labour). To ban these prototype forms of communist work relations for incorrect wage distribution would appear to be a clear case of the means substituting for the ends.

The Rise of the Communes

The task of establishing the origins of the first production commune is as difficult and engaging as the search for the first shock brigade. An authoritative article on communes in Pravda claimed that the first commune was formed at the Oktyabr' textile mill in Leningrad in July 1929, but this would appear to have folded up

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19 See T. Tirzbanrut, "Za novye formy organizatsii truda" in Puti industrializatsii, 1930, nos.11-12, pp.33-34.

20 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti (1930), p.55. This classification is also used by I. Zaromskii in his article "Proizvodstvennye kollektivy - novaya forma organizatsii truda", in Voprosy truda, 1930, no.4, pp.20-21.

21 D. Reznikov, U darnye brigady sotsializma, p.31.

within two months.²² However, there are references to communes being formed as early as 1928 in large metal and engineering works in Kiev,²³ Leningrad,²⁴ and Moscow,²⁵ and by early 1929, several Moscow textile mills had so-called "conveyors".²⁶

The most widely-accepted birthplace of the commune movement, however, was the cradle of the shock brigade movement - the Zlatoust Machine Works in the Urals, where, by 15 June 1929, 178 workers (6.1 per cent of all) were in 39 production collectives.²⁷ The pioneer role of this plant in the development of the movement is confirmed by the first VTsSPS check on communes in March 1930,²⁸ and, later that year, by an article in the Party journal Bol'shevik.²⁹ The former notes the link with the introduction of the three-shift system and the latter with line production, thus emphasising the claim that communes arose, first and foremost, in response to the introduction of new technologies and management systems.

Other factors that facilitated the upsurge in the growth of communes in the latter half of 1929 were the check on socialist competition and economic pacts, the introduction of the continuous working week, the need to overcome breaks in production and the fresh wave of labour enthusiasm generated by the Party's call to fulfil the Five-Year Plan in four years.³⁰

As it was this second stage of competition that attracted older workers to join what had hitherto been a predominantly youth movement, the communes may be perceived as the mature workers' response to the call for mass socialist competition.

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22 Pravda, 25 February 1930; Trud, 13 September 1929.

23 S. Zarkhii, Kommuna v tsekhe, M-L, 1930, p.14.

24 Leningradskie rabochie v bor'be za sotsializm, 1926-1937, p.206.

25 Yulii Ber, Kommuna segodnya, p.76.

26 Udarnye brigady (MK VLKSM), p.9.

27 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti (1930), p.149.

28 Industrializatsiya SSSR, 1929-1932, p.506.

29 A. Pavlov, "Bor'ba za pyatiletku i sotsialisticheskuyu organizatsiyu truda" in Bol'shevik, 1930, n o.17, p.59.

30 Voprosy truda, 1930, no.4, pp.18-19 (I. Zaromskii); Ot udarnykh brigad, pp53-54.

This is not to suggest that only the longest-serving and most high-skilled workers were interested in the communes. Indeed, the Gosplan survey of April-May 1930 concludes that "experienced workers don't like the communes"³¹ and there seems to have been the same mixture of hostility, opposition and indifference that the shock brigades encountered. The typical organiser of a commune might well be a Party member acting on his or her own initiative, or that of the local Party or Komsomol cell, who had probably been in the forefront of the shock brigade movement.³²

Naturally, not all communards shared the idealism of the committed few, there is evidence that many were browbeaten or cajoled into joining, if they were consulted at all.³³ On the other hand, there are grounds for arguing that the communes represented a rational and practical means of coping with new technologies that provided both moral and material incentives, in the form of cooperative work and increased earnings, to attract many workers.

More ominously, the communes were perceived by certain groups of workers, in particular those with links with the countryside, as a means of resurrecting the work cooperative (artel'), in which the workers accepted the authority only of their elected charge-hand (starosta). More than one contemporary observer noted the link between weak management and lack of Party support for the communes and the growth of syndicalist tendencies amongst the workers. Thus "in certain Donetsk and Urals metalworks, the extremely favourable overall phenomenon - the growth of shock brigades into shock collectives and communes (where all earning of a given collective goes into a common kitty and is shared out equally), in the absence of Party guidance, and with the wrong arrangements, can lead to consumer attitudes and, as a

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31 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti (1930), p.54.
 32 See, for example, Povalyaev's brigade at the AMO motorworks, in Delo chesti, pp.48-51; N. S. Yarov, Udarnye brigady v Gus'-Khrustal'noi, M-L, 1930; Rabotnitsa na sotsialisticheskoi stroike, M. 1932, pp.67-75.
 33 Zaromskii gives examples of this in his article in Voprosy truda, 1930, no.4, p.25.

result, to a fall in production."³⁴ There were even isolated cases of communists being specifically banned from communes.³⁵

By the time of the Shock Workers' Congress in December 1929, the communes had already made an impact. Indeed, one-sixth of the delegates to the Congress were on some form of collective pay.³⁶ Not surprisingly, therefore, the communes figured prominently in the debate on future forms of work organisation. Significantly, Kuibyshev's caution was echoed at the Congress by union representatives, Shvernik and Veinberg, and by the Komsomol delegate, Segal, who all specifically attacked wage-levelling.³⁷ Delegates from production, however, were far more enthusiastic, none more so than one Aleksandrov, who urged:³⁸

"Make way for the communes! It is shameful that some of us fear the commune. I consider that it would be a crime to stifle the initiative in setting up the communes. Only there is no need to foist communes on the workers. We must wait until they come to them voluntarily - and they will come, undoubtedly they will come. There will be communes - with work in common for each and everyone, with wages in common and with a common way of life."

As the first checks on communes and collectives were not carried out until early in 1930, it is difficult to establish with any accuracy, the absolute number of such brigades existing at the time of the Shock Workers' Congress. At the plant in the forefront of the movement, the Zlatoust Machine Works, by November 1929, 21.35 per cent of all the workers were in communes and collectives.³⁹ At this time there were well over one hundred such brigades functioning,⁴⁰ a number that grew to more than two hundred by December, and to more than three hundred by January 1930.⁴¹

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34 D. Krymskii and K. N. "Profsoyuzy na novom etape", Partiinoe stroitel'stvo, 1929, no.2, p.19.

35 Metallist, 10 May 1930.

36 Politicheskii i trudovoi pod'em, p.360.

37 Pervyi Vsesoyuznyi s"ezd, pp.71, 84, 141.

38 S. Zarkhii, op. cit. p.44.

39 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti (1930), p.150.

40 At the Shock Workers' Congress, the figure given was 120 communes and collectives, Pervyi Vsesoyuznyi s"ezd, p.141; Pravda, 25 February 1930, retrospectively claimed that there were 169.

41 Pravda, 25 February 1930.

majority of delegates, 690 out of 820 (84.1 per cent).⁴⁷ Not surprisingly, therefore, positive appraisals of the communes outnumbered negative. Ryabov, for example, a delegated shock worker from the Nadezhdinsk metalworks, proudly catalogued the production successes of another Urals plant, the Zlatoust Machine Works, which was in the forefront of the communes movement and had fulfilled its annual production plan by 107 per cent, raised labour productivity by 26.8 per cent, cut costs by 6.7 per cent, and reduced absenteeism five-fold.⁴⁸ Moreover, a resolution was passed at the Congress approving the spread of collective forms of pay.⁴⁹

It was the commencement, however, of the Leninist Enrolment that gave the communes movement its greatest impetus. Significantly, the two plants that had first suggested this new initiative, the Lys'va metalworks and the Kolomenskoe locoworks, both had whole workshops operating on a communalised basis.⁵⁰ During the course of the Enrolment (from 21 January to 1 March 1930) workshops in many other plants were to follow suit,⁵¹ resulting, in some cases, in entire factories declaring themselves communes.⁵²

This trend had a particular poignancy, given the fact that the Enrolment was launched to mark the anniversary of Lenin's death, for he had used the term "commune", in writing about competition, to denote whole factories, rather than individual work collectives. The move

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47 Pravda, 6 December 1929; Of the shock worker delegates, no fewer than 120 addressed the Congress, Kulyshv & Rogachevskaya, op. cit., p.101.

48 Pervyi Vsesoyuznyi s"ezd, p.87; Ryabov's speech is printed in full in Istoriya industrializatsii Urala (1926-1932gg), Sverdlovsk, 1967, pp.450-453.

49 According to Kalistratov, in Na novom etape, pp.177-178, the resolution stated that it considered "possible the organisation of communes on conveyor-type work with similar skills, whilst decisively struggling against the artificial spreading of communes. The correct form of wage distribution within the communes is held to be according to the skills of the workers."

50 Bol'shevik, 1930, nos.3-4, pp.4-5.

51 Bol'shevik, 1930, nos.3-4, pp.4-5, notes communalised workshops at Krasnaya Etna (Nizhn'i Novgorod), Zlatoust Machine Works and Kolomenskoe locoworks.

52 A VTsSPS report in July 1930 noted that Monetnyi dvor, the Verkhne-Turinskii metalworks and the Kolomenskoe works had all been turned into communes, Industrializatsiya SSSR, 1929-1932, p.517.

day following the launch of the Leninist Enrolment, the plant had been declared "shock".⁶² So quickly did the commune movement spread within the factory that, by the end of the Enrolment, an estimated 36.1 per cent of all its workers were in communes, a figure that had risen to 42.5 per cent by early June.⁶³

By the end of the Enrolment the best communards from the Machine works were visiting other metal works in the Urals, advising on the establishment of communes. The leading role in the movement occupied by this plant is illustrated in the report by the Urals obkom of the Party to the Tenth Regional Party Conference in June 1930:

TABLE 17

Name of metalworks	No. of shock workers	No. of shock brigades	incl. collectives	No. of shock workers in collectives
1 Nadezhdinskii	4587	303	18	100
2 Kushvinskii	1061	77	23	146
3 Nizhne-Saldinskii	1473	51	16	308
4 Nizhne-Tagil'skii	2682	73	43	1504
5 Nizhne-Turinskii	743	80	46	420
6 Kaslinskii	2901	47	47	2901
7 Verkhne-Isetskii	3027	29	12	583
8 Asha-Balashhevskii	891	47	3	57
9 Zlatoust metalworks	2053	43	18	1497
10 Myasskii	1013	187	29	405
11 Kusinskii	219	14	11	176
12 Zlatoust Machine works	4300	515	359	1985
13 Satkinskii	643	14	3	52
14 Ust'-Katavskii	1673	28	22	1498
15 Katav-Ivanovskii	1238	59	16	161
Totals	*28504	1567	*666	*11343

Source: Istoriya industrializatsii Urala (1926-1932gg), Sverdlovsk, 1967, p.454.

Note: *these represent the totals of figures given and not those in the original which, evidently, contains errors.

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62 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti (1930), p.159.

63 Calculated from ibid. pp.150-151; Istoriya industrializatsii Urala, p.454; Trud, 9 July 1930.

"The collectives, for the most part, were organised on the initiative of non-Party workers from amongst the most active, conscientious and highly-skilled cadres, working in the majority of cases in the same section, being of the same grade and uniting in order to fulfil production tasks, raise labour productivity, streamline production and setting themselves the task of being examples of a communist attitude to work."

The strength of the communes at the Machine works inevitably led to a questioning of the concept of one-man management,⁷² culminating in an attempt to set up a council of communes to run production.⁷³ This was perceived by the Party leadership as precisely the kind of "leftist" leap into communism that was being explicitly condemned on the eve of the Party Congress.⁷⁴

Moreover, the communes threatened to undermine the spread of piece-work in Soviet industry, relying as they did on moral rather than material incentives. This was early recognised by such economic planners as Strumilin, who wrote at this time that, whereas the spread of individualism favoured the system of unlimited piece-work, the spread of collectivism favoured wage-levelling.⁷⁵ Similarly, the collectivisation of the way of life reduced the need for income differentials.⁷⁶ As wage-differentiation and unlimited piece-work were to form the corner-stones of Stalin's new policy of incentives in 1931, it is easy to understand the lack of enthusiasm for the communes amongst Stalin's followers in the leadership. Stalin himself appears to have reserved judgement on the movement for the time being, but there is no evidence that he ever abandoned his preference for greater emphasis on managerial control, individual responsibility and rewards in production. However, it should be emphasised that, in the period around the

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72 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti (1930), p.160.

73 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti (1973), p.108.

74 See, for example, the Central Committee decree "On Work on the Reconstruction of the Way of Life", issued 16 May 1930, which condemned attempts to "leap with one bound" (odnim pryzhkom pereskochit') into socialist forms, which had "discredited the idea of the socialist reconstruction of the way of life as a whole", Spravochnik partiinogo rabotnika, vyp.8, pp.733-734.

75 Na novom etape (Strumilin), p.45; on 7 April 1930, Leningradskaya Pravda had warned that "this form of work threatens the existence of individual piece-work."

76 Na novom etape (Strumilin) p.48.

Sixteenth Party Congress such other complex matters as the collectivisation of agriculture, the intra-Party struggles and the growing need to consolidate and even quicken the adopted pace of industrialisation, took precedence over the debate on communes, a fact which is certainly reflected in the proceedings at the Congress.⁷⁷

Yet herein lies a paradox. For one of the great successes, from Stalin's point of view, of the rapid rate of industrialisation, had been the spread of socialist competition and shock work, which had effectively smashed the old, restrictive customs and practices on the shop floor. Naturally, this featured prominently in Stalin's speech to the Congress, in which he reminded his audience that "not so long ago we could still hear talk about the 'far-fetched' (nadumannost') and 'untenable' (nesostoyatel'nost') nature of competition and shock work", continuing that "the most remarkable thing about competition is that it effects a radical change in people's attitude to work, for it transforms work from a despicable (zazornyi) and heavy burden, as it used to be regarded, into a matter of honour, a matter of glory, a matter of valour and heroism."⁷⁸ Yet the very embodiment of this radical change in attitudes, and the trail-blazers in what was to become the 'heroic age' of shock work (until the policy shift in mid-1931), were the shock workers in the much neglected production collectives.

This was indirectly acknowledged at the Congress by Kaganovich, who praised the productivity record of a brigade of young workers in the gearbox assembly shop at the AMO motorworks.⁷⁹ Other contemporary sources reveal that this brigade was a production commune.⁸⁰ Indeed, in the rare references to production communes at the Congress both Kaganovich and Shvernik praised certain positive features of the movement, but the former warned of the threat posed to one-man

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77 For Stalin's attitude to agricultural communes see R.W. Davies, The Soviet Collective Farm, 1929-1930, London, 1980. S. Zarkhii, op. cit., p.9 notes that Stalin called the communes "SR demagogy".

78 XVI S"ezd, p.39.

79 ibid., p.61.

80 Aleksandr Gambarov, 'Korobka skorostei', in Na trudovom fronte, 1930, no.17, pp.29-33. In fact, as the brigade divided wages according to grades, it should strictly be called a production collective.

management,⁸¹ and the latter repeated VTsSPS's call for a decisive struggle against wage-levelling.⁸²

On the basis of available evidence, both these threats were over-exaggerated. Attempts to take over management, or to include administrative personnel in the communes were isolated,⁸³ and, in those communes which had been voluntarily constituted, wage-levelling was not considered a problem.⁸⁴ With some justification, the communards and their supporters felt that the very real achievements of the movement were being neglected,⁸⁵ while detractors of the communes were mistakenly regarding the distribution of wages as a more reliable test of the 'communist-ness' (kommunistichnost') of the brigades than attitudes to work, levels of labour discipline etc.⁸⁶

For, at this stage, one would be hard put to criticise the communes on their record in labour discipline; indeed, there is near consensus that the movement made a marked improvement on absenteeism, punctuality, rational use of work time etc.⁸⁷ However, this only

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81 XVI S"ezd, p.62.

82 ibid. p.653.

83 Kaganovich referred to directors joining communes in the Urals in his speech to the Sixteenth Party Congress, see XVI S"ezd, p.62; Rabochaya Moskva reported on 18 February 1930, that the director of the January Works in Odessa had joined a commune at 100 roubles a month like everybody else, Partiinoe stroitel'stvo, 1930, no.6, p.48 (Tandit).

84 This view was expressed by communards at Moscow's Elektrozavod, see A. Klyushin, 'Proizvodstvennye kommuny kak opyt kollektivnogo truda', in Partiinoe stroitel'stvo, 1931, no.11, p.26.

85 As communards from the Baltiiskii works in Leningrad complained: "in all this time not one factory organisation, neither the Party committee, nor the union committee has taken the trouble to come and see our commune for themselves. Nobody has paid any real attention. We could have been a band of counter-revolutionaries, out to disorganise and undermine production", in Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti (1930), p.85.

86 This point is made in Na novom etape, p.182, notes the "extraordinarily great contribution of the collectives and communes in the strengthening of labour discipline" adding that absenteeism had been virtually eliminated in such brigades. Virtually all the charters (ustavy) and rules drawn up by communards place high emphasis on observance of labour discipline, see Pravda, 25 February 1930; Tandit, in Partiinoe stroitel'stvo, 1930, no.6, p.45 notes that "the basic principles of pacts and charters of production collectives and communes were precisely a high and firm labour discipline, class consciousness, strict and accurate organisation and the streamlining of production."

87 See, for example, Partiinoe stroitel'stvo, 1931, nos. 15-16, (Samueli).

applied to communes that were formed on a voluntary basis. For the second major paradox of the commune movement was that the negative influence of wage-levelling was exacerbated not so much by the workers themselves, as by the arbitrary and enforced creation of communes by the management. The literature of the time abounds in references to such cases, which were not only doomed to failure, but also discredited the commune movement as a whole and made easier its proscription in 1931.⁸⁸

Again, such attempts at 'communism by edict' can be understood only in relation to the other events at the time: for example, the practical embodiment of the 'new life' was to be the Stalingrad Tractor Works - a socialist plant in a socialist town in which production and living communes would become the norm - now being built at a 'shock' pace (it would be fully another year before the ideals of this project would be obliged to come to terms with hard reality). Similarly, the arbitrary communalisation of factories was a parallel and understandable extension of the collectivisation of agriculture, particularly as the influx of new workers were predominantly from the new collective farms. This link did not escape the attention of at least one contemporary author, who wrote:⁸⁹

"The creation of communes coincides exactly with the dizziness from success in the countryside. Thus, for example, the entire wisdom of the 'fully-collectivised' workshops at the Lenin Works in Zlatoust consisted of the indiscriminate transfer of all the workers to brigade piece-work within three days..."

Indeed, the dizziness from success seemed to work in two directions: on the one hand, this condition is blamed for the management decision at the Moscow Brake Works to transfer an entire shop to communal work, "with terrible results",⁹⁰ and on the other the director of the

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88 S. Zarkhii, op. cit. p.36 mentions this phenomenon at Kiev's Red Banner Works at the beginning of the movement; Zaromskii, Voprosy truda, 1930, no.4, pp.20-21 notes 'semi-administrative' (poluadministrativnye) means in setting up communes and, as late as 21 July 1931, Pravda came out against implementing communes from above.

89 Na novom etape, p.179 (Kalistratov).

90 A. Yuzhnyi, 'Proizvodstvennye kommuny kak opyt sotsialisticheskogo sorevnovaniya', in Partiinoe stroitel'stvo, 1931, no.8, p.11.

Dzerzhinskii works folded up all the factory communes after an article had appeared in Trud on 4 April 1930 entitled "For Production Collectives - Against Wage-Levelling".⁹¹

However, this link with collectivisation was manifested not only by the management, but also in the form of social pressure. Thus, at the Tsentrosoyuz confectionary factory in Moscow, workers joining the collectives began calling themselves kolkhozniki, while those "not organised" were termed kulaki.⁹² At the Krasnoe Sormovo metalworks in Nizhnĭi Novgorod, workers connected with the countryside were obliged to join the collective farms or be sacked. After Stalin's "Dizziness from Success" speech in March "they all quit".⁹³ Another report from the same plant observes that those who refused to join the communes were called 'right fractionalists'.⁹⁴ Finally, as if to demonstrate that the communards themselves were aware of the pitfalls of haste and arbitrariness in forming communes, a member of a commune from Krasnoe Sormovo remarked "it must be admitted that the best form of competition are the shock brigades. When they have become consolidated, the move can be made to production and then living communes. So as somehow to avoid with communes those mistakes that were made during collectivisation".⁹⁵

Indisputably, during this period of upsurge, the production communes represented a contradictory phenomenon. On the one hand, there is no doubt that the leading shock workers were in the forefront of the movement and were motivated by the most laudable motives. As a contemporary observer noted: "we consider it necessary to emphasise, however, that the movement for collectives and communes arose from the very best class impulses, from the desire to achieve at any

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91 Na novom etape, p.220 (Kalistratov).

92 ibid. p.179 (Kalistratov).

93 Metallist, 10 May 1930.

94 Na trudovom fronte, 1930, no.10, p.10.

95 Na novom etape, p.220, (Kalistratov).

communes and collectives (the percentage for the metal industry is considerably higher at 5.5 per cent).¹⁰¹ This would indicate that by May 1930 there were in excess of 150,000 communards in Soviet industry.¹⁰² Two points deserve special emphasis in this respect: the first is that these communards were largely concentrated in key industries in the major industrial regions. Thus, for example, other sources inform us that more than 11,000 communards were in the Urals metalworks alone (22 per cent of all workers),¹⁰³ and another 4,000 in the Leningrad metal industry (4 per cent of all workers).¹⁰⁴ Secondly, despite the lack of a central Party directive encouraging the formation of communes, the number of communards would appear to have roughly doubled over the following year to 300,000 by May 1931.¹⁰⁵

The Organisation and Composition of the Communes

The Gosplan survey of April-May 1930 concentrated on the two industries in which the communes were most widespread - metal and textiles. Six basic types of production communes and collectives were studied:

TABLE 18

Type	No.	No. of workers	% to total collectives	% to total workers in collectives
1 Workers of same grade	316	3213	61.7	60.7
2 Workers different grades but equal distribution of basic wages	114	942	22.3	17.8
3 Workers different grades but equal distribution of extra earnings	23	252	4.5	4.8
4 Workers different grades all earnings proportional	44	679	8.6	12.8
5 Distribution according to size of family	2	45	0.4	0.8
6 Mixed forms of distribution	13	163	2.5	3.1
Totals	512	5294	100	100

Source: Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti (1930), p.58.

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101 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti (1930), p.67.

102 Calculated at 156,562 (i.e. 4.5% of 3,479,146). Industrializatsiya SSSR, 1929-1932 gg. p.435.

103 See note 64, p. 254.

104 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v Leningrade, p.149. A report to the III Regional Party Conference on 1 June 1930 revealed that, in the region as a whole, there were 15,595 communards (6.25% of all workers), concentrated in metals, textiles, (6,608 or 12.1% of all workers) and leather (2,481 or 11.7%).

105 This may be seen to be true on a national (see p. 277) and on a local scale (for example see Leningrad figures on p. 285).

Significantly different patterns were found to exist, not only between the two industries, but also between types of collective. To begin with the average collective in the textile industry was nearly twice as big as that in the metal industry (14.1 and 7.3 members respectively).¹⁰⁶ Moreover, of the 160 collectives studied in the textile industry, only 10 (6.25 per cent) were true communes (i.e. composed of workers with different grades sharing wages equally), whereas 130 (81.25 per cent) were single-grade collectives. The corresponding figures for the metal industry's 256 collectives were 92 (35.9 per cent) and 112 (43.75 per cent). If one examines the absolute number of workers in the collectives, the difference becomes even more pronounced. Thus, 80.4 per cent of the textile communards were in single-grade collectives, against a mere 32.9 per cent of metallists. Whereas only one in every sixteen communard in the textile industry belonged to a true commune, the corresponding figure for the metal industry was one in three.¹⁰⁷

Substantially different forms of work organisation were also discovered. Thus fully 88 per cent of the textile communards and 91.9 per cent of textile collectives operated on multi-shift work, compared to just 56.5 and 56.25 per cent respectively in the metal industry. Whereas over half of the metal communards (51.7 per cent) worked in one-shift only collectives, this was true of less than one-third (32.2 per cent) of the textile communards. A further important difference was that 70 per cent of the textile collectives kept accounts of each individual member's output, the same was true for only 19.9 per cent of the metal collectives.¹⁰⁸

On the other hand, the metal collectives were nearly twice as likely (20.7 per cent against 11.25 per cent) to engage in rationalisation measures and almost eight times as likely (39 per cent against 5 per cent) to conduct work in raising the skills of their members. Only two

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106 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti (1930), p.90.

107 loc. cit.

108 ibid., p.91

textile collectives switched their members around in jobs requiring different skills and only four engaged in voluntary rate-cutting; the corresponding figures for the metal collectives were 41 and 63. Finally, the metal collectives were much more likely to impose their own penalties on members for breaches of discipline.¹⁰⁹

One of the reasons underlying this last differentiation is the existence of a far greater proportion of true communes in the metal industry. This may be confirmed by comparing the patterns of work organisation between, on the one hand, single-grade collectives and, on the other, communes uniting workers of different grades sharing wages equally. Thus, although a similar proportion (25 and 22.8 per cent respectively) engaged in rationalisation work, the true communes were nearly twice as likely (at 25.8 and 44.6 per cent respectively) to raise the skills of their members and more than six times as likely to switch members around on jobs (4.5 and 29.3 per cent). The true communes were also more likely to voluntarily cut rates and to impose fines on their own members.¹¹⁰

The survey also provides data on the sex, age, experience and party commitment of the communards. Apart from the obvious differences in female/male ratios between the industries (82.1 per cent of the metal communards were male, whereas 80.8 per cent of the textile workers in collectives were female), the most striking feature is the high proportion in all types of collectives of mature, cadre Party workers. Thus, 70 per cent of all communards were 25 years old or more and nearly half (48.2 per cent) were thirty or more, and fully 18.9 per cent were 40 years old or more. In both industries the proportion of over-40s was significantly higher in those collectives which split only extra earnings equally (24.8 per cent in metals and 33.4 per cent in textiles) and lower in true communes (13.7 and 17 per cent respectively).¹¹¹

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109 ibid., p.92.
110 ibid., p.91.
111 ibid., p.92.

Nearly three-fifths of all communards (58.2 per cent) were cadre workers (i.e. with at least five years work experience) and less than one in seven (14.9 per cent) was a new worker (with less than two years experience). This was even more pronounced in the textile industry where over two-thirds (68.6 per cent) were cadre and a mere 7.3 per cent new (the corresponding figures for metal were 56 and 14 per cent). Moreover, more than one-quarter of the textile communards had more than twenty years work experience! (15 per cent for metal workers). In the metal industry most experienced workers appeared to favour the collectives splitting only extra earnings equally, although this group constituted 15.9 per cent of all true communards in that industry. In textiles, the favoured type of collective was either one which split only extra earnings equally, or one-grade collectives. This latter apparent anomaly is explained by the high percentage of women workers (85.3 per cent) in this category.¹¹²

The exceptionally high Party saturation in the collectives (30.4 per cent in metals compared with 15.9 per cent for that industry as a whole, and 16 per cent in textiles as against 9.8 per cent for the industry)¹¹³ is sometimes attributed to the mass application of communards to join the Party during the Leninist Enrolment. However, the survey refutes this, for three-quarters of all communards with Party affiliation (74.8 per cent) appear to have joined the Party prior to the formation of their collective. The same applies to membership of the Komsomol, who constituted a small minority of communards in both industries (13.3 per cent in metals and 13.1 per cent in textiles), 89.7 per cent of whom had joined prior to communes in the textile industry, which at 30.4 per cent, had the highest Party saturation in that industry of any form of collective. Of these 94.1 per cent (and all Komsomols) had joined prior to the formation of the commune. In the

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112 ibid., pp.92-93.

113 ibid., p.93; figures for Party membership in these industries as a whole are for 1 January 1930, in Partiinoe stroitel'stvo, 1931, no.17, p.40.

metal industry Party saturation was roughly the same in the collectives sharing only extra earnings (36.3 per cent), the true communes (33.9 per cent) and one-grade collectives 33.5 per cent).¹¹⁴ However only one in every 15 communists in the metal industry (6.6 per cent) was a member of a commune or collective, and only one in every twenty (4.8 per cent) in textiles.¹¹⁵

The different orientations in commune work in the two industries are reflected in the grade distributions of the communards. In textiles only 1.2 per cent were unskilled, whereas 71 per cent were skilled and highly-skilled. In metals the picture was somewhat different, only 19 per cent being skilled or highly-skilled, 49.9 per cent semi-skilled and 31.1 per cent unskilled.¹¹⁶

An investigation into the true communes of the metal industry revealed that 81.9 per cent of the communards were in adjacent, medium-skill grades (2-4).¹¹⁷ This preponderance of semi-skilled workers underlines the communes suitability for conveyor work. Although at this time (April 1930), only about 150 enterprises had switched to continuous flow production,¹¹⁸ it was widely assumed that the wider application of such technologies would lead to the disappearance of individualistic work.¹¹⁹

Given the emphasis on the harmful effects of wage levelling in the communes, it is worth analysing what the survey reveals in this area.

In the true communes of the metal industry it would appear that the unskilled prospered most, as their earnings rose on average by 26.2 per

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114 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti (1930), p.93.

115 ibid., p.67.

116 loc. cit.

117 ibid., p.58.

118 Rabochie o nepreryvnom potoke: vtoraya moskovskaya konferentsiya rabochikh s predpriyatii, vvedshikh nepreryvnyi potok, M-L, 1931, p.29.

119 This was the opinion of Aleksei Gastev, head of the Central Institute of Labour (TsIT) see Za industrializatsiyu, 17 January 1930.

per cent, at the expense of the skilled, whose income dropped by 1.4 per cent; younger workers up to 24 years of age also gained 13.6 per cent, while the most senior group, over forty years of age, saw their earnings unchanged. Those with one child or no children also did better in the communes than those with large families.¹²⁰

As the skilled workers tended to be those older workers with larger families, such wage distribution put three-fold pressure on the idealism of this group, pressure which intensified as the growing shortage of skilled cadres raised the selling price of their labour. At the other end of the scale, the young, unskilled workers with few family commitments could expect significantly-increased earnings in the communes. Such a situation was bound to attract many who had not a jot of idealism and was eventually to prove the Achilles heel of the movement.

This potentially negative feature was commented on by the compilers of the survey, but ironically for a major investigation launched at the request of such stalwart supporters of the 'managerial' approach to competition as Kuibyshev, Krzhizhanovskii and Veinberg,¹²¹ just about every other aspect of this collective form of work won praise. Indeed, even the 'general kitty' (obshchii kotel) was regarded as a good thing insofar as it cemented the material dependence of workers and thus stimulated a rise in labour productivity and tighter labour discipline.¹²²

Yet it was the 'managerial' view of the communes that won out at the Sixteenth Party Congress, a forum which failed signally to reflect the furious debate being carried on in the country on this new form of work organisation. Thus, Shvernik, ostensibly the trade union's chief spokesman at the congress, was taken to task in the union daily, Trud, for ignoring the communes in his speech.¹²³ Inevitably, however, by failing to receive Party endorsement in the form of a mass campaign, interest in the commune movement eventually cooled and the growth of this form

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120 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti (1930), pp.70-71.

121 ibid., p.5. It was also commissioned by the department of mass campaigns of the Party's Central Committee.

122 ibid., p.87.

123 Trud, 11 July 1930.

of shock work checked. Attention was switched instead to the burgeoning problems of labour turnover and absenteeism, as well as to the 'heroic' side of shock work. As the industrial crisis deepened in the summer of 1930 and breaks in production became more frequent, it was such heroic deeds of labour as working for days upon end without rest in the most discomfoting conditions that caught the imagination rather than the solid, rational production successes of the communes. Yet successful they were. A survey of communes, conducted mainly in Moscow in late 1930 and published in the Party journal in February 1931, concluded that "at nearly all the enterprises studied the production communes and collectives formed last year or at the beginning of 1930 have proved viable and, according to the investigators, have won the deserved respect of the other workers".¹²⁴

Not least among the factors that won the communes respect was the force of example, particularly in the sphere of production self-discipline. This is graphically illustrated in the charters and rules adopted by the communes, and a particularly instructive insight is provided by the communes' charter at the Zlatoust Machine Works:¹²⁵

1. A member of the collective not fully utilising the working day (aimlessly wandering about the workshop, conversation that is not directly related to production, arbitrarily leaving the lathe untended etc.) is to be placed on the board of disgrace (chernaya doska) as a loafer (lodyr'), with details written on the wall newspaper.
2. A member of the collective who neglects to look after his lathe (poor wipe-down, failure to lubricate moving and revolving parts, that lead to a rapid breakdown of the machine and a fall in productivity) shall be regarded as a wrecker of production and placed on the board of disgrace and the wall newspaper.
3. For systematically producing a high proportion of brak (actual figure shown) for which he is to be blamed, the member shall be warned on the first occasion, and expelled from the collective on the second.

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124 Bol'shevik, 1931, no.4, p.31 (B Markus).

125 Partiinoe stroitel'stvo, 1930, no.6, p.45 (L Tandt).

4. For absenteeism (without good reason) on one occasion in a month the member will receive a severe reprimand and a warning. For two absences in a month, or one in each consecutive month, the member shall be expelled from the collective.

Order within the collective was coordinated by a 'triangle' (treugol'nik) consisting of Party organiser, trade union representative and elected starosta.

The "Iskra" commune at the construction site of the Stalingrad Tractor Works had a 'Central Executive Committee' (TsIK) of five, including a 'people's commissar of labour' etc.¹²⁶ The following excerpts from the commune's rules illustrate the role accorded to self-discipline and example:¹²⁷

1a) In production the commune struggles for the raising of labour productivity, for the full utilisation of the working day, for the strengthening of labour discipline, for the streamlining of production, for a communist attitude to work, for the precise fulfilment of the promfinplan...

5 The commune as a whole and the communards individually must set an example of conscious labour discipline.

The oldest production commune at Moscow's Elektrozavod, bearing the name of Max Gelts, differed from the above two examples by explicitly subordinating itself to management, to the extent that the latter had the right to appoint the commune's brigadier. This helped resolve one of the trickiest problems thrown up by the communes: how to establish lines of authority between elected commune leaders and the lowest rung of management, the foreman. The commune adopted the following charter:¹²⁸

"The shock production commune, being the best form of participation in socialist construction, sets itself the fundamental task of actively assisting the fulfilment of the Five-Year Plan in four years, setting an example of a communist attitude to work, based on high class consciousness, by means of the maximum and most rational

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126 Yu. Kokorev, op. cit., p.28.

127 ibid., pp.51.52.

128 Partiinoe stroitel'stvo, 1931, no.11, p.24 (A Klyushin).

use of individual abilities and the systematic raising of social and political and cultural levels as well as the managing and technical know-how of each member of the shock production commune..."

The socio-political and educative roles of communes were stressed also in the communes' charter at Leningrad's Krasnaya Zarya, which calls upon communards to up work norms, cut costs, eliminate absenteeism, refrain from drinking, smoking and swearing at work and to ensure that "the commune will be in the first ranks in carrying out all measures of Government and Party aimed at industrialisation and the earliest victory of socialism."¹²⁹

The Fall of the Communes

Although the communes themselves, rather than their alleged wage-levelling, were not the subject of widespread criticism at this time, the first attacks on their supporters began to be published in the summer of 1930.¹³⁰ It is difficult to establish the extent to which membership of the communes had fluctuated during that summer, as there are few figures for socialist competition as a whole, let alone this specialised form of shock work. Two things are clear, however. First, the gains in productivity, cost-cutting, labour discipline and rationalisation which the communes had played a great part in achieving, were in danger of being cancelled out by the industrial crisis of 1930. Secondly, the next nationwide campaign for an upsurge in competition, initiated by the Party appeal of 3 September 1930,¹³¹ made no special mention of the communes.

Nevertheless, the workers responded to the Party's appeal, in many cases, by forming new communes.¹³² This was quite logical, for not

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129 Dubner & Kozyrev, op. cit., p.16.

130 Bol'shevik, 1930, no.17, p.55 (A Pavlov); Voprosy truda, 1930, nos.7-8, pp.25-29, (A Aluf).

131 Spravochnik partiinogo rabotnika, vyp. 8, p.389; Pravda, 3 September 1930.

132 For example, at the Moscow Brake Factory, Partiinoe stroitel'stvo, 1931, n o.8 p.9 (Yuzhnyi); at the Svet shaktera plant in Kharkhov, Promyshlennost' i rabochii klass Ukrainskoi SSSR v period postroeniya fundamenta sotsialisticheskoi ekonomiki, (1926-1932 gg. Kiev, 1966, p.325; the Kommunar works in Minsk, Razvitie sotsialisticheskogo sorevnovaniya, p.113.

only had the Party called for the development of socialist competition and shock work "in all its forms", but also had emphasised the need for workers to pledge to stay at their place of work, develop counter-planning and conduct a real campaign against slack discipline (raskhlyabannost') and absenteeism, elements which all featured prominently in the commune movement. Moreover, the other main points of the appeal, the campaign against 'flitters' (letuny), the purging of the unemployment registers and the call for rewards to the workers with long experience at given plants, might well be construed by the communard to be an implicit Party endorsement of the movement.

An example of the workers' perceived interrelationship between communes and the Party appeal is provided by the Kommunar engineering works in Minsk, which won third place in the competition for the best enterprise in Belorussia during the "special quarter (Oct-Dec 1930) immediately following the appeal. During the "special quarter" 94.5 per cent of the workers indentured to stay at the plant until the end of the Five-Year Plan and 4 shock brigades, 3 liaison, 1 storm brigade, 6 production collectives and 9 production communes were formed.¹³³

The period that elapsed between the Party appeal of September 1930 and the proscription of communes in September 1931 witnessed more than satisfactory production results from the leading communes yet, paradoxically, increasingly bitter attacks on the movement from Party, government and union spokesmen. This can only be understood by bearing in mind the following factors that influenced the debate over socialist forms of work organisation: i) the final major battle within the Party over rates of industrialisation, which might be characterised for simplification as the 'heroic' approach of the Stalinists versus the 'rational' approach of the so-called right-'leftist' bloc; ii) the spiralling turnover rates which Stalin was to counter eventually with wage differentiation;

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133 Razvitie sotsialisticheskogo sorevnovaniya, p.113.

iii) the unprecedented influx of new recruits into the workforce during this period and iv) the perceived priorities of both tightening managerial control over production and mastering the technology that was being introduced into industry and thus defining the individual responsibility of the worker.

Studied in isolation, the leading communes were clearly a viable means of coping with the above factors. As a movement to be spread to the whole working class within industry, however, the communes were just as clearly unsuitable. The raw peasant recruit shared neither the ideals nor the motivations of the leading communards although, ironically, it was the peasant intake of precisely this period that was to provide Soviet industry with its quintessential 'heroes' - the Stakhanovites.¹³⁴ Their forerunners were already performing heroic deeds in the winter of 1930/31,¹³⁵ but it was the leading communards that were being selected for the highest Government awards.¹³⁶

There is little doubt that the deteriorating working and living conditions sapped the enthusiasm and ardour for socialist competition. Nonetheless, when Syrtsov and Lominadze, leaders of the right-'leftist' bloc, were taken to task for suggesting this they were accused of inordinate 'worker worship' (rabocheliubie).¹³⁷ However, it is significant that the Party appeal was directed not at the working masses directly but at Party, management, union and Komsomol organisations. As such it represented a watershed in the Party's approach to socialist competition. Henceforth less faith would be placed on the efficacy of moral exhortations to the working class and recourse would be taken more frequently to material incentives and management-imposed sanctions. Evidence of this was provided by the

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134 A G Stakhanov, Rasskaz o moei zhizni, M, 1936,

135 see p.275 below.

136 Lyudi bol'shevistskikh tempov: sbornik M, 1931, pp.34-37; Istoriya Moskovskogo avtozavod im. IA Ligacheva, M. 1966, p.167; Istoriya rabochikh Moskvy, p.214.

137 B Markus, 'K voprosu o traktovke problem ekonomiki truda', in Voprosy truda, 1930, nos. 10-11, p.30.

Another form of moral pressure exerted under the "sharpening of the class struggle" theory was the erosion of the legal norms, enshrined in the 1922 Labour Code, by so-called "public and political" norms (obshchestvenno-politicheskie) such as waiving days off, working shifts on end, foregoing safety measures etc. which became features of the "heroic" period of socialist competition. Ostensibly voluntary, participation in socialist competition had become such a political litmus test that opposition was dangerous. An attempt was made in November 1930 to reconcile competition with legal norms by incorporating the former into a new "Labour Code of Socialist Reconstruction". The Draft Code, which was subsequently published but never became law, made no mention of communes.¹⁴⁴

Again, this omission failed to reflect the intensity of debate over the fate of the communes during the first four months of 1931. Certainly, new communes were still being formed and such figures as are available suggest that they were achieving excellent production results in the special quarter and in early 1931. The situation was encouraging, for example, at Moscow's Elektrozavod, an enterprise that not only had won a first prize in the VSNKh and VTsSPS competition for plan fulfilment in 1930,¹⁴⁵ but also had completed its five-year plan in just two-and-a-half years by the end of March 1931.¹⁴⁶

Figures for the last six months of 1930 reveal that in the stamping shop of the plant's transformer section, productivity was 9.3 per cent higher in production communes compared to ordinary shock brigades and 5.7 per cent higher than in collectives. Moreover, the communes were utilising the workday more fully, carrying out more rationalising work, were higher-skilled, produced less waste, had lower absentee rates and wasted less time on smoking.¹⁴⁷

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144 For text of Draft Code, see Zin. Grishin, 'O novom trudovom kodekse' in Sovetskoe trudovoe pravo na novom etape, pp.80-103.

145 Na trudovom fronte, 1931, nos.4-5, p.25.

146 Na trudovom fronte, 1931, no.12, p.5.

147 N Vol'khov 'Uchet sotssorevnovaniya na Elektrozavode' in Voprosy truda, 1931, no.12, p.166.

A detailed analysis of socialist competition in the same workshop during the first four months of 1931 shows that the communes retained this superiority. The average productivity of communes studied was 9.9 per cent higher than that of ordinary shock brigades and the hourly rate of pay 27.9 per cent higher. Absentee rates, on the other hand, were one-sixth of those in the shock brigades and 25 per cent less defective output was produced.¹⁴⁸ The shop's outstanding commune, led by Zhukov, had a productivity 25 per cent higher than in the shock brigades and hourly earnings of nearly 60 per cent more. Throughout the four months of the survey, none of Zhukov's communards was absent, nor was any defective output produced.¹⁴⁹

Of the 713 shock brigades in the plant (with a total of 14,000 workers), 115 (16.1 per cent) were production communes or collectives.¹⁵⁰ Thus, at one of the country's foremost plants it is not improbable that over 2000 workers belonged to either collectives or communes (one of which, appropriately, bore the name "The Five-Year Plan in Two-and-a-Half-Years"). One of their number, Anton Ol'shevskii, who was credited with forming three communes, was one of fifteen Soviet workers to be given a top Government award in March 1931.¹⁵¹

Notwithstanding this successful development of communes at Elektrozavod, in early April the plant's Party committee resolved to switch all brigades to khozraschet by 1 July 1931.¹⁵² Even earlier, on 2 February, the management newspaper Za industrializatsiyu had published a letter from the Party cell, union committee and production conference of the works' lamp section advocating the individual costing of each worker's product. However, the immediate incentive to be seen to be toeing the Party line would appear to be the criticism levelled at the plant's welding shop, in the Party decree on mass work in the

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148 Partiinoe stroitel'stvo, 1931, nos.15-16, p.14 (Samueli)

149 ibid., p.15.

150 Na trudovom fronte, 1931, no.12, p.5.

151 Lyudi bol'shevistskikh tempov, pp.34-37.

152 G L'vov, 'Partorganizatsiya Elektrozavoda v bor'be za khozraschet', in Partiinoe stroitel'stvo, 1931, no.14, p.37.

Enrolment, more than 300,000 workers were still in communes or collectives, concentrated as previously in the metal and textile industries.¹⁵⁵ This represents a remarkably high figure in view of the fact that there had been no Party decree advocating the spread of this form of competition.

The overall number of workers in communes and collectives would appear to have dipped slightly by the end of April 1931, occasioned largely by a fall in the proportion of shock workers united in communes from 3.9 per cent to 3.1 per cent (the proportion in collectives actually rose from 7.3 per cent to 7.4 per cent.¹⁵⁶ Nonetheless, it may be seen that there were still almost twice as many workers in these forms of work organisation on the second anniversary of the start of mass socialist competition (29 April 1931) as there had been on the first (29 April 1930). Moreover, by virtually doubling their membership in a year, the communes were expanding at a faster rate than the shock movement as a whole, which had grown by only 58.8 per cent (from 1.8 to 2.8 million) in the same period.¹⁵⁷

A survey of 121 major plants in 1931 confirmed that the movement had peaked in the first half of 1931 and had then gradually given ground to both individual competition and the cost-accounting brigades:

TABLE 20

% shock workers	% in prod comm and coll	% workers in com/col to all wkrs	% in shock brigades	% ind comp	% in cost-a/c brigades
60.2	8.1	(4.9)	80.2	11.7	0.1
66.3	8.5	(5.6)	80.4	11.1	0.6
68.0	7.8	(5.3)	79.9	12.3	3.0
67.0	5.9	(4.0)	79.5	14.6	17.0

Source: Byulleten' po uchetu truda. Itogi 1931 goda, Moscow, 1932, p.99.

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155 I calculate that there were 304,590 workers in communes and collectives on 1 April 1931 (based on 7.19 per cent of the total no. of workers, 4,236,300) see Industrializatsiya SSSR, 1921-1932gg., p.435. Lewis Siegelbaum arrives at a slightly higher figure of 306,035 in his article 'Production Collectives and Communes and the "Imperatives" of Soviet Industrialization, 1929-1931', in Slavic Review, vol.45, no.1, Spring, 1986, p.70.

156 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v SSSR, 1918-1964, p.60.

157 See Appendix E.

Industrial Managers in Moscow, in which he forwarded the new slogans "Bolsheviks must master technology" and "technology in the period of reconstruction is decisive".¹⁶² The latter effectively replaced "tempo are decisive" as the watchword, implying that the battle for the rates of industrialisation had been won with the demise of the right-"leftist" bloc. That Stalin chose this particular forum (at which shock workers constituted a mere 10 per cent of those attending) to launch his new industrial strategy gave clear indication of where he thought the decisive cadres were occupied.¹⁶³

Paradoxically, it was at enterprises in the forefront of the communes movement that Stalin's new slogans found organisational form. Within a fortnight of the leader's speech the first "mastering of technology" brigades had been formed at Moscow's Serp i Molot works,¹⁶⁴ and in March 1931, the AMO automobile works had concluded a pact "on the mastering of technology" with Krasnyi Putilovets.¹⁶⁵ Similarly, the parallel drive for better quality of output had been initiated, in January 1931, by Leningrad's Elektroapparat works (a plant at which communes had attracted much favourable attention) by calling for an All-Union crusade for quality, a movement which greatly facilitated the spread, later in that year, of the cost-accounting brigades.¹⁶⁶

However, it was at another giant factory that the contradictory nature of the communes was most graphically illustrated. The Stalingrad Tractor Works, the showpiece of Soviet industrialisation, had been commissioned ahead of schedule in June 1930, at the very height of the movement. Indeed, on the very day of the triumphant launch Daesh' traktor, the factory's newspaper, identified wage differentiation as

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162 I V Stalin, Sochineniya, vol.13, M. 1952, p.29.
 163 Ya A Livshits, 'Rabochie-metallisty Moskvy v bor'be za zavershenie pervoi pyatiletki, 1931-1932gg.', in Moskovskii gosudarstvennyi istoriko-arkhivnyi institut. Trudy, vol.14, M. 1960, p.246.
 164 ibid., p.250.
 165 Pravda 14 February 1931.
 166 V Afanas'ev and A Grishkevich, op. cit., p.21; N B Lebedeva, O I Shkaratan, op. cit., p.109.

Indeed, the Stalingrad communes appear to have been defended by the plant's Komsomol committee, which was duly removed for 'left-opportunism'.¹⁸⁰ This was confirmed in early June when the Komsomol secretary, Kosarev, led a delegation to the plant. He, too, condemned the "kitty" used to pool earnings amongst the communards and urged a switch to cost-accounting brigades, which were first formed at the plant in that month and spread rapidly in the autumn of 1931.¹⁸¹ However, Kosarev directed his main attack at the insanitary living conditions of workers at the plant, which was described by a contemporary as 'the kingdom of bedbugs'.¹⁸²

The shake-up instituted by these delegations had a positive effect and by June 1931 the situation at the Tractor Works was beginning to improve. This can only have confirmed the opinion of the Party leadership that communes were an obstacle to the implementation on a wide scale of its new industrial policies. It was in June 1931, of course, that Stalin delivered his keynote address "New Situation, New Tasks" to a meeting of industrial managers convened by the Party's Central Committee.¹⁸³ Although not specifically mentioning communes, Stalin criticised 'wage-levelling' in general and called for the implementation and spread of cost-accounting.¹⁸⁴ The full implication of Stalin's message was not immediately understood by writers on the communes. It appears that the speech was not printed until 5 July and at major plants such as Krasnyi Putilovets was not discussed until 19 August.¹⁸⁵ Equivocal appraisals of the communes appeared in the press even after Stalin's speech.

Thus, on 16 July 1931, Trud maintained that "it is necessary to abolish the kitty in communes and collectives while preserving the latter as a form of labour organisation". On 21 July Pravda criticised

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180 Lyudi stalingradskogo traktornogo, pp.210-211.
 181 N I Pershin, op. cit., p. 119.
 182 Lyudi stalingradskogo traktornogo, p.412.
 183 I V Stalin, Sochineniya, vol.13, M. 1952, pp.53-61.
 184 ibid., p.61.
 185 Pravda, 5 July 1931; Lili Korber, Life in a Soviet Factory, London, 1933, p.220.

There appears to have been some opposition to the scrapping of collectivist forms of pay, not least by the Komsomol and leading groups of workers. Thus, as late as the beginning of 1932 there were still 14,400 industrial workers in the Leningrad region united in communes and collectives, most notably 8,600 in the metal industry (representing 4 per cent of all workers and 5.3 per cent of all shock workers in that industry).¹⁹⁴ Indeed, in the Commissar of Labour's report to the IX Trade Union Congress in April 1932 it was admitted that a campaign had been launched aimed at "eliminating wage-levelling and collective forms of pay" to be completed by 1 July 1932.¹⁹⁵ Even the workers on piece-rates were resisting, for the Commissar criticised collective piece-work in construction (in which 80 per cent of the work done was on piece-rates) and "opportunistic forms of collective pay" which accounted for 60-70 per cent of workers on piece-rates at certain factories, such as the Kolemenskoe works.¹⁹⁶

This tenacity notwithstanding, the remaining communards were fighting a losing battle. Early in 1932 the XVII Party Conference had passed a resolution "On the Development of Industry in 1931 and the Tasks for 1932" which demanded that "a worker be put in charge of each lathe, each machine, each set of machinery, and each place of work, who shall work there on a regular basis and be responsible for the job in hand". The resolution goes on to explicitly ban wage-levelling "which obliterates the dividing line between good and bad work" and instructed that "foremen and brigadiers advance to the forefront as the immediate organisers of labour processes".¹⁹⁷

The same Party forum provided what amounted to an epitaph for the commune movement in the long speech by a delegate named Stetskii who complained that:¹⁹⁸

"certain comrades have formed the opinion that once we have a classless society, the problem of the avant-garde

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194 Trud i profdvizhenie v leningradskoi oblasti 1932g, Leningrad, 1932, p.63.

195 Trud v SSSR: materialy (1932), p.54.

196 ibid., p.50

197 S Orjonikidze, Industrial Development in 1931 and the Tasks for 1932, M, 1932, p.78.

198 XVII konferentsiya VKP (b): stenograficheskiy otchet, M, 1932, p.192.

will disappear - all will be communards, all will be equally conscious. This is a schematic, abstract conception. In reality each will remain a person who had behind him his own personal history and differences in experience, and participation in the class struggle and in socialist construction will have no little significance in completing the Second Five-Year Plan also.

A worker, a skilled worker who has passed through the long school of revolution, civil war and large-scale production is one thing, and the collective farmer who has retained petty-bourgeois prejudices is another"

Yet, later in his speech, Stetskii hinted at the paradox that stemmed from the shift to material incentives: they were more suited to the former peasant than the hereditary worker. As he put it "today in the furnaces of Magnitogorsk and the new workshops of Uralmash yesterday's agricultural labourers, from the national minorities, are already breaking world records and setting an example of heroic labour and qualitative achievements which Europe has never seen the like of".¹⁹⁹

How ironic that as Lenin's beloved avant-garde of the Soviet working class - the Leningrad metalworkers - were striving to cling on to the last form of "autonomous" work organisation in the communes, the young peasant lads who were to become the real heroes of Stalin's 'classless' society - Stakhanov, Busygin, Gudov and Mazai - were just entering the Soviet workforce.²⁰⁰

How ironic, too, it was the trade unions that put the final nail in the coffin of the communes. On the 11 and 12 March 1932, the VTsSPS convened a special meeting to discuss the work of production communes and collectives. Addressing the meeting Shvernik said:²⁰¹

"If the people who are now coming to the factory from the countryside, right now don't just want to raise their skills (and they do want to do this too) but first of

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199 ibid., p.202.

200 See, for example, A I Vdovin, 'Sotsialisticheskaya rekonstruktsiya narodnogo khozyaistva SSSR i sotsial'naya psikhologiya novykh popolnenii rabocheho klassa' in Rabochii klass i industrial'noe razvitiye SSSR, M, 1975, p.107.

201 A I Vdovin, V Z Drobizhev, Rost rabocheho klassa SSSR, 1917-1940gg., M. 1976, p.170.

all to get equal wages with those workers who have been working over a whole number of years and get higher rates of pay, then this very equalisation becomes disastrous and we must proceed against it decisively, because it doesn't raise labour productivity. Insofar as you create equal division of wages, you reduce the incentive to raise skills."

And thus, as one author put it, the baby was thrown out with the bathwater.²⁰²

Conclusion

Thus, it could be said, that the doubts expressed by Kuibyshev at the Shock Workers' Congress in 1929 on the viability of the communes given the heterogeneity of the Soviet working class, by mid-1931 had proved to be well-founded. On the other hand, the evidence available suggests that this form of work organisation amongst the most advanced sections of the working class had proved its viability. Kuibyshev and his colleagues might have done well to have heeded the advice proffered by Lenin some ten years earlier and, as a result, adopted a much more solicitous and selective approach to the communes. Admittedly Lenin was using the term "commune" to describe whole enterprises, but his warning in "The Great Beginning" might be held to apply equally to the production communes of the socialist offensive:²⁰³

"It would be a good thing to eliminate the word "commune" from common use, to prevent every Tom, Dick or Harry from grabbing it, or to allow the title to be borne only by genuine communes, which have really demonstrated in practice (and have proved by the unanimous recognition of the whole of the surrounding population) that they are capable of working in a communist manner...

...We must see to it and make sure that in future anyone who calls his enterprise, institution or undertaking a commune without having proved this by hard work and practical success in prolonged effort by exemplary and truly communist organisation, is mercilessly ridiculed and pilloried as a charlatan or a windbag."

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202 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti (1930), p.187.

203 V I Lenin Polnoe sobranie vol.39, pp.26-27, Moscow 1963.

that the standards set by both were utilised to smash, once and for all, the concept that norms should be set on the 'average' worker. Not surprisingly, this could and did engender the hostility of the ordinary worker.

Insofar as labour discipline is concerned the shift of emphasis from moral to material incentive represented a victory for the management approach to industrial relations. It would be said that it was the worker with the psychology of the manager that reaped most benefit from socialist competition in this period. As many of them were to subsequently become managers this was to have a profound influence on the way the state viewed worker behaviour and labour discipline.

THE HEROIC PHASE OF SHOCK WORK, 1930-1931

By its very nature, shock work contained a 'heroic' element from its earliest days during the Civil War. In the do-or-die atmosphere of those years there were many examples of selfless and intensive labour, usually to counter some emergency, meet a deadline or make good some deficiency.⁷ In such situations individuals and groups of workers would work "according to their ability" and might thus be perceived to be displaying a socialist attitude to work. Lenin, in particular, saw in these feats of labour the shoots of a new, socialist attitude to work based on a high degree of conscious discipline and class consciousness. In this, he reasoned, they represented the avant-garde, the forerunners that would one day be typical products of Soviet industrial relations. Thus he saw in their work, the force of example (sila primera) which was to be held up for the mass of workers to emulate.

Lenin, and subsequent Soviet commentators, never questioned the basic premise that socialist industrial relations were qualitatively different from those under capitalism and that a psychological breakthrough in the way that a worker regarded his work could and would be made. While difficult to prove or disprove this assertion to any degree of certainty, it is worth making some initial observations.

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7 See, for example, N.B. Lebedeva and O.I. Shkaratan, op. cit., pp.35-39.

To begin with, there are examples of selfless and intensive work in capitalist societies, particularly in times of war or emergency. These tend to be manifestations of commitment (to a profession, cause or social group) and are clearly not the exclusive preserve of socialism. Moreover, they invariably are task-orientated, i.e. with specific time-limits, aims and results and are more difficult to sustain over long periods, let alone become the normal working practice. Finally, such crises and emergencies in the short term constitute a unity of interest between the demands of production and the demands of the workers. As and when the crisis is overcome, fundamental conflicts of interest will tend to reappear.

A corollary of this last point is that workers' interests tend to be expressed collectively, whereas the interests of production will be formulated first and foremost by management for the individual attention of each worker. This leads to a natural tendency to emphasise the individual, rather than collective force of example. Even when heroic labouring feats were achieved by groups of workers, emphasis will be placed, consequently, on the role of the team leader, brigadir or foreman. This was evident during the period under review when a definite shift was effected from the collective to the individual evaluation of work and reached its logical conclusion with the emergence of the 'super-heroes' - the leading individuals in the Stakhanovite movement.

As we have seen, once the Civil War ended, the fundamental necessity for shock work disappeared and 'cadre' workers reverted to a more consistent and tolerable working relationship. It is important to emphasise that the new phase of shock work was initiated by the Komsomol members of the work force, who had been too young to participate in either the Revolution or Civil War and were impatient with the lack of revolutionary ardour in Soviet industry during the years of NEP. Insofar as the socialist offensive was perceived by many youngsters as a resumption of the Revolution, the 'sharpening of the class struggle' and the spate of crises (many of them artificially created) recreated the emergency atmosphere of civil war, particularly in view of the war hysteria evoked by 'capitalist encirclement'.

The problem facing the supporters of shock work was that the few would join because, for one reason or another, they believed in it, whereas the majority would join for less laudable reasons, be it the opportunity to earn more or to avoid being branded as a 'class enemy'. This was evident in the very beginning of mass competition. In his report to the 2nd Leningrad Regional Trade Union Congress in April 1929, Kirov posed the problem thus:¹⁴

"There are plants where shock work is outwardly in good shape - 90 per cent shock workers - what could be better. But one has to say from the outset that we do not yet have a plant where there are 90 per cent real shock workers...So what is this 90 per cent? It means that the most backward workers, not wishing to be left behind by the leaders, sign up as shock workers and carry on working as before."

Underlying this contradiction was the fact that the initiators of shock work were almost exclusively young, supported occasionally by stalwarts from the 'cadre' workers. The enthusiasm, impatience and dynamism of the new generation of Soviet-educated youngsters is understandable. Their zealous approach to shock work approximated the desired image being propagated by the Party and Government apparatus. This mental picture of the ideal worker was well expressed by an experienced metalworker from Leningrad in 1929:¹⁵

"There are many Party members who picture workers as muscular, strapping chaps in blue overalls with rolled-up sleeves and in their hands huge sledgehammers (the like of which, in reality, the world has never seen), or robust lads, stripped bare to the waist, shifting great hunks of rock."

This crudely distorted image of the worker seriously hampered an effective evaluation of shock work during the period under review, overemphasising the 'gung-ho', heroic style of work at the expense of consistent and proficient performances obtained through less sensational means. It was this approach that Syrtsov, leader of the right-'leftist' bloc within the Party, complained of so vehemently in 1930.

At the same time, the 'heroes' were portrayed as being motivated only by enthusiasm, thus diminishing the role of material incentives. In fact,

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14 N.B. Lebedeva and O.I. Shkaratan, op. cit., p.127.

15 I. Zhiga, Novye rabochie, M-L, 1929, pp.59-60.

the latter were always of great consequence, as Grigorii Dubinin, a veteran worker at Krasnyi Vyborzhets, reminisces:¹⁶

"Nowadays I often come across people who claim that everything in the first five-year plans was built only on enthusiasm, slogans and appeals. This was not so. I remember that there were many different material incentives for all those who participated actively in competition and achieved success in those difficult years. And each, upon receiving a bonus or piece of cloth for a suit would regard it as deserved. And this, in turn, raised the enthusiasm of people".

Thus if the popular image of the shock worker was of a giant young man, a member of the Party or Komsomol and fired by pure enthusiasm, then an analysis of the actual composition of the shock brigades at the end of the socialist offensive presents a different picture. Of the estimated 2.7 million shock workers on 1 April 1931, for example, over 1 million (i.e. approximately two in every five) were women. Nearly two million (73.2 per cent) were mature workers aged 23 or over. On the other hand, less than one in every eight shock workers was a member of the Komsomol (11.9 per cent) and less than half a million 17.1 per cent) were Party members. The remainder (i.e. nearly two million or 71 per cent) were non-Party workers.¹⁷

To give the Soviet authorities their due, at this stage production successes rather than image were the first criteria in determining who was to receive a Government award for shock work and be held up to the rest of the workforce for emulation. Nonetheless, the logical outcome of the triumph of the bureaucratic image of the hero-worker was the appearance, in the Second Five-Year Plan, of the Stakhanovites, men whose physiques tended to match their prodigious labouring feats (not to mention earnings!) It was this man that found permanent representation in Mukhina's celebrated monument to the Worker and Collective Farm Girl. In truth, some of the heroes of the First Five-Year Plan would have made quite unsuitable models for this statue.

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16 N.B. Lebedeva and O.I. Shkaratan, op. cit., p.115.

17 Figures calculated from Trud v SSSR (1932), p.124.

In order to fulfil its planned undertakings, Povalyaev's brigade was obliged to work a twelve-hour day during the summer of 1929 and, in July, waived their days off.²¹ Not surprisingly, not all could stand the pace for long and "three of the best workers quit".²² On the other hand, the brigade was on piece-work, so that earnings rose considerably. In Povalyaev's words this sometimes led to "chasing the ruble" (pogon'ya za rublem), which in turn fostered a devil-may-care (naplevatel'skoe) attitude to tools and an increase in defective output.²³

As we have seen, other workers objected not so much to shock workers trying to earn a little more as to the rate cuts proposed by the shock brigades and spread, subsequently, to the remainder. The situation at Povalyaev's factory - AMO - was particularly tense with, on the one hand, the plant's union committee keeping the names of rate-cutters secret in order to save them from attack by other workers,²⁴ and, on the other, leading shock workers such as Aleksandr Salov openly challenging his workshop's worst six 'truants' to cut their rates by 30 per cent!²⁵

So the workers that were being proclaimed by the authorities as heroes were often the object of scorn and abuse from their workmates. In such an atmosphere the moral and legislative support given to the early shock brigades by the Party and Soviet Government was of crucial importance, as was the favourable publicity for shock work generated by such initiatives as the Shock Workers' Congress and the Leninist Enrolment.

Another important factor was the flood of youngsters now entering the workforce which provided a new and dynamic source of support for the shock movement. Thus it was that, during the course of 1930 as the older workers quit, Povalyaev's brigade was transformed into one offering on-the-job training for youngsters. Typical of the youths who passed through such instruction at this time was the eighteen-year old Ivan Starshinov. Within

21 Bor'ba klassov 1931, nos.3-4, p.80 (I. Povalyaev)

22 ibid., p.81

23 ibid., p.82.

24 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti (1930), p.181.

25 Lyudi bol'shevistskikh tempov, sbornik 1, Moscow, 1931, p.48.

for shock work, although other contemporary accounts would appear to be closer to the mark in attributing this to poor provisions, atrocious housing conditions and inadequate transport facilities.³² Indeed, the turnover rate at AMO was significantly lower than the national average in Soviet industry.³³ This may have been partly due to the fact that the plant was in the forefront of the self-contracting movement, which encouraged workers to pledge to stay at the factory until the end of the Five-Year Plan. By 1 November 1930, 68 per cent of AMO workers had signed such an undertaking.³⁴

This fact serves as a reminder that AMO remained in the avant-garde of socialist competition throughout this period. The plant had been awarded the very first VTsSPS Challenge Red Banner late in 1930 for its excellent production results in 1929/1930.³⁵ Early in 1931 the factory was among the first prize winners of the competition for best fulfilment of the promfinplan in the special quarter.³⁶ This despite the fact that a contemporary source claims that AMO fulfilled this plan by only 99.8 per cent and only achieved this by taking on an extra 878 (17 per cent) workers.³⁷

Povalyaev himself reached the zenith of his personal fame when he was awarded the Order of the Toiling Red Banner (again alongside his fellow AMO shock worker, Salov). Thanks to the publication of a series of articles and pamphlets, all fifteen of these first recipients of Government awards for shock work became virtual household names in the Soviet Union.

However, as the pace of industrial innovation and expansion quickened in the course of 1931, with the reconstruction of AMO and the construction of such industrial giants as the Magnitogorsk and Kuznetsk metallurgical

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32 Delo chesti, pp.143-145; I. Troitskii, 'Tekuchest' rabochei sily i bor'ba s nei' in Voprosy truda, 1931, no.2, p.77, states that "1000 AMO workers had nowhere to sleep"; M. Rodin, 'V bor'be za novyi Donbass' in Puti industrializatsii, 1931, no.8, p.26.

33 I have estimated that the turnover rate at AMO in the three months from September to November 1930 was 16.6 per cent (giving an annual rate of 66.4 per cent), see G. Datsuk, 'Za luchshee ispol'zovanie rabochei sily na proizvodstve' in Voprosy truda, 1931, nos.3-4, p.90. The comparable rate for all Soviet industry over these three months was 38.7 per cent (annual rate 154.8 per cent), Sotsialisticheskoe stroitel'stvo SSSR (1934), p.342.

34 Istoriya moskovskogo avtozavoda, p.166.

35 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v SSSR, 1918-1964, pp.71-73.

36 Na trudovom fronte, 1931, nos.4-5, p.25.

37 Voprosy truda, 1931, nos.3-4, p.83 (G. Datsuk).

There was a simple reason for this In the absence of building machinery enthusiasm and muscle power were eminently suitable for meeting the extremely tight deadlines set for completing construction, deadlines that had to be met for technical or climatic reasons. Thus, if work dropped behind schedule, heroic shock work became necessary in order to save the situation. Under such conditions hesitation or refusal to participate might well be portrayed as political opposition.

Given the appalling living and working conditions on the major construction sites, and the resulting high rates of turnover and absenteeism, the heroic example of the shock workers was necessary not only to make up for the low productivity of their less conscientious fellow-workers, but also to justify the application of moral, material and legislative sanctions against the latter. Thus, paradoxically, it was the construction sites and mines where labour discipline and conditions were worst that provided the greatest feats of labour heroism.

In the factories the situation was quite different, for heavy manual labour was being replaced by sophisticated machinery. Individual feats of heroism could not compensate for the shortcomings of the average workers. What was required was a general level of technical competence that would improve quality of output as well as quantity. As many Western observers at the time noted, the Soviet workforce was much better able to build enterprises than to operate them.⁴³

After all, the experience of the Stalingrad Tractor Works, which was built ahead of schedule (and was awarded in consequence the Order of the Toiling Red Banner)⁴⁴ but then took two years to reach its projected capacity of 144 tractors per day,⁴⁵ served as a warning which did not go unheeded. As an observer at that plant ruefully concluded:⁴⁶

"Technology will not be taken by storm. No amount of jerking will make the conveyor work properly. You cannot launch a

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43 See, for example, Bruce Hopper, 'Soviet Economy in a New Phase', Foreign Affairs, vol.10, no.3. (April 1932), p.455; Maurice Hindus, The Great Offensive, London, 1933, p.28; Edgar G. Furniss, 'Results of the Five-Year-Plan', Current History, vol.37, February 1933, p.631.

44 Metallist 10 July 1930.

45 This was achieved on 20 April 1932, see Ekonomicheskaya zhizn' SSSR, p.272.

46 Lyudi stalingradskogo traktornogo, pp.476-477.

Kuznetsk was regularly achieving 410 and more. The national press also gave great prominence to the record-breaking feats of Arduanov's brigade at Berezniki, and those led by Monakhov and Semerov at Cheliabinsk.⁶⁸

It was the competition at Magnitogorsk, however, that really gripped the nation's imagination. The duel between the Komsomol brigades led by Sagadeev and Galiullin became so celebrated that it served as the real-life model for the competition described by Valentin Kataev in his novel "Forward, Time!" (Vremya vpered!). At the beginning of July Sagadeev's brigade had laid 525 loads and subsequently alternated with Galiullin's men in raising the total until, by the end of July, the latter brigade broke the world record for concrete-laying with 1196 loads (or more than two per minute). In one eight-hour shift his twenty-one men had done the work of 127!⁶⁹

Even after Sagadeev was called into the Red Army, the competition continued. In the next round of the challenge, his successor - Egor Smertin - led his men to victory.⁷⁰ Eventually both brigades were bettered by that led by Movlev at the Kramatorsk construction site, which laid 1400 loads in a shift (or ten times the original norm).⁷¹

To put this work in context it must be remembered that it was done against a background of soaring turnover and absentee rates and appalling living conditions. Indeed, on all construction sites the priority given to production was such that the most fundamental needs of the workers (such as housing, communal facilities, provisions, etc.) tended to be overlooked. Site authorities were berated for attempting

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68 Kommunisticheskaya partiya - vdokhnovitel', pp.194-195 (M. Shkol'nik); Govoryat stroiteli, p.127 (M. Arduanov).

69 Govoryat stroiteli, p.78 (E. Smertin); Kommunisticheskaya partiya-vdokhnovitel', p.195 (M. Shkol'nik).

70 Govoryat stroiteli, p.79 (E. Smertin).

71 S. Milochkin, 'Zavod zavodov', in Govoryat stroiteli, p.206.

"to take a long leap into socialism off a short run".⁷²

The personal pressure on Smertin is best exemplified by two anecdotal incidents drawn from his memoirs: once, when dreaming of his work, Smertin shouted at his wife in his sleep to pour out the concrete more quickly; on another occasion, instead of cement, his brigade was sent a waggon-load of oats, a hint perhaps that his men were working like horses⁷³ (precursors to Boxer in Orwell's "Animal Farm")!

Of course, work was by no means restricted to eight-hour shifts. The normal working day on most construction sites was ten hours and it was not unusual to work two, three or even four hours on top of this. In emergencies workers might be required to work two or more shifts on end and there are cases of brigades continuing their work for days on end.⁷⁴

Moreover, the youngsters in the battalions of enthusiasts would 'voluntarily' declare themselves prepared "to work at any time for any amount

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72 A.I. Vdovin & V.Z. Drobizhev, op. cit., p.221. An article in April 1931 blamed the massive labour turnover at Magnitostroi on the appalling living conditions, claiming that only 65 per cent of workers had mattresses and blankets and that they had to stand in line for up to two hours to get a meal of poor quality, Na trudovom fronte, 1931, no.10, p.9; On 14 April 1931, the Party's Central Committee decreed that the work of management on the site was unsatisfactory and held it to blame for the high rates of absenteeism and turnover, V.N. Eliseeva, 'Bor'ba za kadry na stroitel'stve Magnitogorskogo metallurgicheskogo kombinata v gody pervoi pyatiletki' in Chelyabinskii gosudarstvennyi ped. institut Uchenye zapiski, vol.1, vyp.1, 1956, pp.208-209; in 1930 there were just 175 hospital beds in Magnitogorsk for a population of 72,000, ibid., p.204, I. Baevskii, Fondy kollektivnogo potrobleniya, M-L, 1932, p.81; Of course, Magnitogorsk was one of the so-called 'socialist towns' (sotsialisticheskie goroda) built from 1929 to facilitate production and, ostensibly, to ensure the welfare of the workers. For a critique of these settlements, see G. Mequet, 'Socialist Towns: a New Development of Housing Policy in the USSR' in International Labour Review, vol.25, no.5, May 1932 pp.621-645; Finally, a Government and Party decree on 17 March 1932 "On Housing and Communal Facilities for Workers at Magnitostroi" handed Gugel' and his administration a strong reprimand for the "intolerably insanitary conditions" which were causing epidemics amongst workers and their families, Spravochnik partiinogo rabotnika, vyp.8, p.474.

73 Govoryat stroiteli, p.79 (E. Smertin).

74 See for example, A. Fillipov, 'Ya nashel svoyu "Zolotinu"', in Govoryat stroiteli, p.114; Shvarts, 'Poeziya "sumashedshego truda"', in Sotsialisticheskii vestnik, 28 November 1931; E. Dzhaparadze, 'Etikh let nel'zya zabyt'', in Govoryat stroiteli, p.87; Trud, 7 November 1931; In addition many thousands of youngsters studied after work and on days off, see Govoryat stroiteli, pp.195-196 (Starshinov).

On the other hand, as many contemporary observers pointed out,⁸⁷ the unprecedented turnover rates and frequent complaints from Western engineers working in Soviet industry about 'democratic meetingitis'⁸⁸ would tend to indicate that labour in the USSR was "too darn free".⁸⁹ Certainly, even the harshest critics of the labour scene could not deny the existence of examples of genuine enthusiasm, no matter how misguided they might perceive them to be.⁹⁰

As we have seen, material incentives held a particularly strong attraction for the peasants who had originally joined the workforce 'just for the money' (za dlinnym rublem).⁹¹ With the spread of piece rates and the introduction of progressive bonuses and preferential provisions for the top shock workers (particularly during times of great shortages) the incentive to work harder was undoubtedly enhanced.

Nonetheless, it was the combination of these incentives with the capacity and will of the newcomers to work more productively that produced the record-breakers during the First Five-Year Plan. But there are far too many tales of genuine heroism to doubt that enthusiasm born of commitment was an important factor in establishing such examples of shock work. Young and old alike, on occasions, seemed prepared risk their lives for the sake of production, from the seventeen-year old brigade leader, Stroganov at Kuznetsk⁹² to the retired foreman, Rummyantsev, who was recalled to work at Leningrad's Lzhorskii metalworks.⁹³ Others were to risk life and limb even to get to work, as in the case of the detachment of youngsters that marched 400 kilometres over fourteen days in temperatures of minus 40C in order to reach Komsomolsk-on-Amur.⁹⁴

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87 Sidney Webb, 'Freedom under Soviet Rule', in Current History, vol.37, January 1933, pp.399-401; Walter Duranty, Russia Reported, London, 1934, pp.200-201.

88 See, for example, Lyudi stalingradskogo traktornogo, p.315; Edgar Furniss, 'New Curbs on Soviet Labour', in Current History, vol.36, June 1932, p.365.

89 Walter Duranty, op. cit., p.201.

90 A. Jugow, 'The Results of the Five-Year Plan', in The American Socialist Quarterly vol.2, no.1, New York, 1933, p.46. See also his article 'Dneproges' in Sotsialisticheskii vestnik, 29 October 1932.

91 A.I. Vdovin and V.Z. Drobizhev, op. cit., pp.216-218.

92 Izvestiya, 7 November 1931.

93 N.B. Lebedeva and O.I. Shkaratan, op. cit., p.115.

94 S. Trapeznikov, 'Gorod molodosti', in Govoryat stroiteli, p.220.

work norms on the average shock worker rather than the average worker.¹⁰¹

The rewards for heroic work were great. Even the older, barely-literate ex-peasants such as Arduanov and Berezniki and Filippov at Kuznetsk were promoted to foremen, given top Government awards and were eventually retired on special pensions.¹⁰²

Many more transferred from construction to the factories that they helped build, some to become the shock workers of the Second Five-Year Plan.¹⁰³

At a time of unprecedented social mobility yet others were promoted to management positions or joined the technical intelligentsia.¹⁰⁴ In this way the influence of these early heroes reverberated for many decades not only in industry, but throughout Soviet society.

THE COST-ACCOUNTING BRIGADES, 1931-1934

The importance of the cost-accounting brigades is that they represented a synthesis of what the Party leadership considered most valuable in Socialist competition and the optimum form of worker organisation within the desired heirarchy of industrial management.

Thus, on the horizontal level, the brigades united workers engaged on similar work processes and, as such, were the heirs to the shock brigades and communes in providing examples of the desired attitude to work. Moreover, they were logical extensions of the campaigns for counter planning, rationalisation and improved quality. In this respect they were particularly appropriate for the greater technical literacy and higher skills of the workforce that characterised the period during which they flourished.

On the vertical level, the cost-accounting brigades slotted neatly into the schema of strict one-man management at the very lowest level, the brigadir being at one and the same time the leader of the brigade and

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101 See leader 'Boevye zadachi promyshlennosti' in Bol'shevik, 1931, no.9, p.9. Na trudovom fronte, 1931, nos.8-9, p.3; at the IX Trade Union Congress it was stated that output norms should be set on shock workers, but not on supermen and record-breakers, Materialy k otchetu, p.52.

102 Govoryat stroiteli, p.109 (A. Filippov), pl24 (M. Arduanov).

103 At Uralmashstroii, for example, 30 per cent of construction workers switched to skilled work in the completed factory, V.D. Fedorov, 'Podgotovka rabochikh dlya novikh zavodov v pervoi pyatiletke' in Iz istorii rabocheho klassa SSSR, Ivanovno, 1964, p.179.

104 Pod'em kul'turno-tekhnicheskogo urovnya sovetskogo rabocheho klassa, M. 1961,

the representative of management. Moreover, unlike the shock brigades and the communes, the cost-accounting brigades collective action was restricted decisively to the brigade (effectively to improving on the targets set them by management). This not only prevented any threat to the principle of one-man management in the shape of syndicalism, but also allowed the introduction of strict accounting of each individual brigade member's work performance as well as the exact definition of his or her responsibilities. This was particularly important in the context of the switch from moral to material incentives, based on the spread of piece rates and individual bonuses and benefits for shock workers.

In this way, it was hoped that the enthusiasm, initiative and collective accumulation of experience that had featured so strongly in the shock brigades and communes, would be combined within a strictly managerial approach to production. Despite a concerted campaign and the fact that, on paper, about one-third of the Soviet industrial workers joined these brigades, they never really achieved this synthesis. As the worker input into target setting was channelled more and more into the heroic, record-breaking direction, the need for collective counter-planning at the brigade level faded and actually became a hindrance to radical norm revision.

With the virtual disappearance of the cost-accounting brigades by the end of 1934, a chapter in the development of shock work and socialist competition was brought to a close. Like their predecessors, the communes, they were deemed ahead of their time. Unlike the communes, however, the cost-accounting brigades were destined to make a come-back.

The Origins of the Cost-Accounting Brigades

Khozraschet (sometimes translated as economic or business accounting) has a distinctive Leninist pedigree. Indeed, there are some remarkable parallels between Lenin's initial drive to introduce it into Soviet industry in 1921 and the spread of the cost-accounting brigades exactly ten years later. One of the key elements of the New Economic Policy, khozraschet was aimed first and foremost at raising productivity and reducing costs, thus embodying Lenin's demand for uchet (accounting) and kontrol' (control

and checking).¹⁰⁵ From the beginning it represented a management approach to industry and was linked to both piece-rates and bonuses for increased productivity and aimed at wage-leveling and communal forms of pay.¹⁰⁶

In a revealing article entitled "Towards the Fourth Anniversary of the October Revolution", written in 1921, Lenin discussed the desired relationship between moral and material incentives:¹⁰⁷

"We counted, raised upon a wave of enthusiasm and having awakened a popular enthusiasm that was at first generally political and, subsequently, military, we counted upon realising, directly upon that enthusiasm, economic tasks that were just as important (as generally political and military)... Life has shown us our mistake... Not directly upon enthusiasm, but with the help of enthusiasm..., on personal interest, on personal incentive, on cost-accounting try to construct at first firm bridges that, in a small-scale peasant country, lead through state capitalism to socialism."

However, in the conditions of the New Economic Policy, cost-accounting proved hard to implement on a wide scale, and it was not until the Party decree of 5 December 1929 "On the Reorganisation of the Management of Industry"¹⁰⁸ that it began to be introduced in all enterprises down to the workshop level. As we have seen, the wave of enthusiasm generated by the spread of mass socialist competition was accompanied by a growth of collective forms of work and pay, a trend which had been explicit VTsSPS policy since the VIII Congress in December 1928.¹⁰⁹ It was precisely when the enthusiasm began to wane, in the spring of 1930, that personal incentive re-emerged as the main lever for raising productivity.

However, the period between the end of the Leninist Appeal and the emergence of the first cost-accounting brigades in January 1931 was characterised by a deepening industrial crisis. Only by studying the successive switches in policy that were adopted to try and remedy this crisis can the qualitative changes in industry that turned an environment that in May 1930 was favourable to production communes into one that,

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105 V.I.Lenin, Polnoe sobranie, vol.35, pp.199-200.
106 See E.H. Carr, The Bolshevik Revolution, 1917-1923, vol.II, London, 1952, especially pp.110-114.
107 V. Lenin, Polnoe sobranie, vol.44, p.151.
108 Torgovo-promyshlennaya gazeta, 14 December 1929.
109 Trud, 13 January 1929.

upon the authorities to "combine the enthusiasm of the masses with an iron labour discipline".¹²⁴

The abolition of unemployment in October 1930, not only took away one of the major areas of Narkomtrud's work, but also provided the justification for both the state regulation of the labour market and the demand for new levels of discipline. However, as we have seen, Narkomtrud's attempt to incorporate socialist competition into a new legislative framework by means of a new Labour Code and the introduction of work books foundered early in 1931 at precisely the period that changes in industrial policy were being made that would render the need for a 'declaration of rights' for workers redundant. Instead, material incentives backed up by legislative sanctions would be the main instruments for encouraging competition. Rights were to become unambiguously the concern of management.

One has only to compare the Party endorsement of the Leninist Enrolment with its appeal of 3 September to see the shift of emphasis from mass enthusiasm to more defensive moral ground. Thus the latter document concentrated on plugging gaps in production, self-indentures to counter turnover and counter-planning to reduce imports and rebuff wreckers. At the same time it advocated benefits for the most productive workers and sanctions against the least disciplined.

Perhaps the most telling indicator of the fall off in enthusiasm was the relative formality that accompanied Industrialisation Day on 6 August 1930 when compared to the one a year earlier.¹²⁵ Such enthusiasm as was generated during the latter half of 1930 was largely confined to those engaged in heroic shock work. Some interest was generated by the battle to win the VTsSPS Challenge Red Banner, proposed in June by Leningrad workers and run by Trud from 1 August to 7 November 1930.¹²⁶ Particularly well supported by enterprises in Moscow and Leningrad, the competition resulted in a victory for the AMO motorworks, ahead of Elektrozavod, the Karpov pharmaceutical works and Serp i Molot (Moscow), and the Karl

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124 Metallist, 30 May 1930.

125 The Times, 7 August 1930.

126 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v SSSR, 1918-1964, pp.71-73.

Marx works (Leningrad).¹²⁷

The competition was for the best record in raising labour productivity, cutting costs and improving quality of output, the very targets that counter-planning was aimed at. This facilitated the growth of the movement, as did the subsequent All-Union competition for the best plant during the 'shock' quarter (October-December 1930) in fulfilling counter-plans.¹²⁸

The impetus for counter-planning was carried over into the New Year (the beginning of the economic year). On the anniversary of Lenin's death, on 21 January 1931, Leningradskaya Pravda printed a letter from the workers of the local Elektroapparat plant which called upon Soviet workers to "immediately struggle for qualitative indices".¹²⁹ It was this 'quality crusade' that led directly to the formation of the first cost-accounting brigade in the iron foundry of the Lenin Engineering Works (Leningrad).

Petr Kapkov, leader of a brigade of iron casters in the foundry, introduced this new form of competition through the pages of Leningradskaya Pravda on 31 January 1931.¹³⁰ He gave a more detailed account of his brigade's work to a meeting of Leningrad foundry workers, convened by Trud and the Leningrad regional metallists' union, on 9 March 1931, a report of which was printed in Trud on 21 March.

Kapkov stressed the natural but gradual transition to cost-accounting once they had engaged in the battle to raise qualitative indices. Apart from improving the quality of output this involved increasing labour productivity and reducing costs. In other words, precisely those criteria used in the competitions of late 1930:¹³¹

"When we foundry workers at the Leninworks took up the challenge of Elektroapparat, we undertook to commence the struggle for the fulfilment of qualitative indices, we started to carefully check our own brigade to see how work was carried on, how much material was required and what we used it for, and here we came across some scandalous facts...And then the

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127 ibid., p.73.

128 Pravda, 1 October 1930.

129 N.B. Lebedeva and O.I. Shkaratan, op. cit., p.109.

130 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie na predpriyatiyakh Leningrada v gody peervoi pyatiletki (1928-1932gg), Leningrad, 1961, pp.177-180.

131 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v SSSR, 1918-1964, pp.94-95.

idea occurred to us: 'Couldn't we estimate how much material is needed for each component and establish strict limits on the expenditure of material?'

We implemented this idea. We drew up estimates on the expenditure of material and undertook the socialist obligation to fulfil these estimates and, if at all possible, to economise more on these estimates.

Thus the brigade switched to cost-accounting, i.e. it receives all materials and tools per estimate and promises in return a given quantity of completed moulds. As a result we can struggle for qualitative indices not just in words, but in deed, and can check ourselves every day."

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Kapov's example in switching his brigade onto cost-accounting was quickly followed by A.N. Nikolaev at the Baltic Shipyards and S.I. Davaines at the Sevkabel' works.¹³² Initially, however, the movement was restricted to Leningrad. By the time of the aforementioned meeting of foundrymen there were just 10 such brigades with 120 members in the city,¹³³ totals that had risen only to 52 brigades with 380 workers by 1 April.¹³⁴ Nonetheless, certain parallel developments at this time would facilitate the subsequent spread of cost-accounting brigades.

For example, the drive to implement new technical standards in Soviet industry, which had commenced in late 1930, gathered pace in 1931. As the head of the Central Institute of Labour (TsIT), Gastev, told the 1st All-Union Conference of Industrial Managers: "for ten years there has been argument over whom to set norms by. The TsIT has always said 'set them on the very best'. That person now is the shock worker".¹³⁵ On 4 February 1931, Stalin had delivered his keynote address "On the Tasks of Managers" to that same Conference, calling upon Bolsheviks and leading workers to master technology. During this Conference, the management newspaper Za industrializatsiyu had published a letter from the workers of Elektrozavod lamp section suggesting that the cost of goods manufactured be calculated for each workshop, unit and worker.¹³⁶ Shortly afterwards, workers at the Proletarskaya Pobeda works in Moscow called for the

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132 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie na predpriyatiyakh, pp.181-182, 184-185.

133 Na trudovom fronte, 1932, no.11, p.4.

134 Leningradskie rabochie, p.220.

135 Na trudovom fronte, 1931, nos.8-9, p.3.

136 Za industrializatsiyu, 2 February 1931.

cost-accounting brigades there ends a given period of searching for the organisational form of shock work that most closely conforms to the current tasks of socialist society". This principle having been established, the Authorities moved swiftly to implement wide-ranging reforms of wage-scales, the system of provisions and other benefits and labour relations.

What was perceived by many, including significant sections of the Komsomol and trade union movement, as a shift to the right in labour policy aroused much resentment. To some extent overt opposition was deflected by the exchange of Komsomol membership cards and the re-election of factory union committees in the autumn of 1931.¹⁶⁶ At the same time the Komsomol leadership was encouraging at this time the 'Stalin Relay' (Stalinskaya estafeta) to ensure implementation of the six conditions laid down in the leader's speech of 23 June,¹⁶⁷ while the trade unions were actively advocating the spread of cost-accounting brigades. Thus, in October 1931 a competition to find the best cost-accounting brigades in the Leningrad region was initiated by the local unions and facilitated the formation of 4000 new brigades.¹⁶⁸ Despite these measures both the XVII Party Conference in February and the IX Trade Union Congress in April 1932 were obliged to call for further drives against wage-levelling and lack of responsibility.

As we have noted cost-accounting brigades grew as part of the counter-planning movement, which was also expanding in 1931. In June of that year VTsSPS and Trud had convened a nationwide meeting to discuss shift counter-planning. On the basis of this meeting the VTsSPS issued a letter to all union organisations on 2 September 1931 advocating the spread of this form of competition. The growing influence of the cost-accounting brigades led, by the end of 1931, to a significant shift in the emphasis of planning.

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166 The exchange of Komsomol membership cards commenced on 10 October 1931 and ran until April 1932, Marsh udarnykh brigad, p.266; for a critical review of the union elections, see A. Kefali, 'Shverniki vybiraet' in Sotsialisticheskii vestnik, 14 November 1931.

167 A. Aluf, The Development of Socialist Methods and Forms of Labour, M. 1932, p.54. Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie na predpriyatiyakh, p.322. On 9 February 1932 it was declared that the winners were the brigades of Kapkov, Nikolaev and Davaines, loc. cit.

168 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v SSSR, 1918-1964, pp.81-82.

leading detachment of the shock workers' army",¹⁸¹ "the shoots of communism"¹⁸² and a form that "successfully combines genuine socialist competition of the working masses with the personal interests of every worker".¹⁸³

However, there remained clouds on the horizon. There were still cases of arbitrary formation of brigades by management and the fining of brigade members for not fulfilling plans. An article published at the time of the Congress gives examples of both: an order at the Dnepropetrovskii railway depots declared that "brigades from the following locomotives must appear without fail in the main office to effect their transfer to cost-accounting within three days. Engine drivers who do not appear will be transferred to cost-accounting in their absence and will have administrative fines applied to them"; while at the Verkhne-Isetskii works it was made known that "should the brigade not fulfil the cost reductions plan, the members of the brigade will carry material responsibility".¹⁸⁴

Moreover a resolution of the Congress on the Report of VTsSPS pointed out that "it is necessary to conduct a decisive struggle against blown-up figures, eye-wash and sham shock work in socialist competition".¹⁸⁵ It might be wise, therefore, to treat with some scepticism the figures for cost-accounting brigades which had risen, allegedly, from 155,000 with one-and-a-half million members (about thirty per cent of the workforce) on 1 April 1932¹⁸⁶ to 20,000 with about two million members (forty per cent of workers) by the end of the year.¹⁸⁷

However, it was another point in the same resolution that was to have a decisive effect on the further development of socialist competition: it was stressed that "the slogan 'faces to production' remains the fundamental slogan of the trade union movement. The most important link in the

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181 A. Frolov, 'K tretei godovshchine sotsialisticheskogo sorevnovaniya' in Voprosy truda, 1931, nos.5-6, p.8.

182 'O khozraschetnykh brigadakh', in ibid., p.19.

183 Na trudovom fronte, 1932, no.11, p.4.

184 loc cit.,

185 Materialy IX Vsesoyuznogo s"ezda profsoyuzov - Rezolyutsii, M. 1932, p.8.

186 Materialy k otchetu VTsSPS, p.32.

187 I.P. Ostapenko, op cit., p.161.

THE MATERIAL BENEFITS OF SHOCK WORK

The period under review may be characterised as a struggle between two contending views of the worker: as first and foremost a 'producer', or as a 'producer-consumer'. The eventual victory of the principle that the interests of production were paramount necessarily helped ensure that the former view should prevail. Indeed, Stalin's forced pace of industrialisation implied rigid restraints on consumption, not least by the working class.

However, the struggle should not be portrayed as a clear-cut conflict between the interests of production and the interests of the worker as a consumer. Rather, the trend during the New Economic Policy had been towards more consideration for the workers in what was, nonetheless, very much a 'producer'-orientated industrial system. The organisational platform for this trend, naturally enough, was the trade union movement. Thus the VII VTsSPS Congress in 1926 had called for the introduction of new wage and grade scales aimed at reducing differentials¹⁹⁹ and the VIII Congress, in December 1928, resolved to replace individual piece-rates with collective bonuses.²⁰⁰ This trend was also reflected in such Government decrees as that of 27 June 1928 which established Funds for the Improvement of the Conditions of Workers made up from 10 per cent of a state enterprises profit which was to be diverted directly to workers' needs, specifically housing.²⁰¹

On the other hand, the primacy of production interests was forcefully defended by Stalin and his supporters in the Party leadership, the management organs and the Komsomol. In organisational terms the conflict came to a head at the VIII VTsSPS Congress and continued until Stalin's victory over the last of the 'deviations' within the Party by the end of 1930. The chosen vehicle of Stalin's faction to achieve this breakthrough in industrial relations - socialist competition and shock work - failed signally to shift sufficiently by moral exhortations alone the worker's attention to the primacy of production. Nevertheless, in the process it

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199 A good account is contained in Rabochii class v upravlenii gosudarstvom (1926-1937gg), M. 1968, pp.225-228.

200 Trud, 13 January 1929.

201 Izvestiya Narkomtruda, 1928, no.33, pp.504-508.

did destroy the trade unions as the organisation which could articulate and defend the workers' interests.

In this respect, the year which elapsed between the XVI Party Congress in 1930 to Stalin's change of tack in his "New Situation - New tasks" speech of June 1931 may be perceived as a period of searching for the most effective blend of moral and material incentives, backed up by legislative sanctions.

The subsequent period provides graphic evidence that, at a time of acute shortages, material incentives were to become the dominating ingredient in this blend. Not surprisingly, socialist competition and shock work reflected these shifts of emphasis.

From the very outset of the movement, early in 1929, there had been calls for material rewards in socialist competition. The trail-blazing article in Komsomol'skaya Pravda on 26 January 1929 had advocated that the best enterprise be awarded the Red Labour Banner, but also that the best shock brigades should be rewarded with trips abroad to improve skills, better housing etc. On 31 March 1929, Pravda added its voice to the call for material benefits in competition.

The document generally accepted as launching the mass movement for socialist competition - the Appeal of the XVI Party Conference on 29 April 1929, quoted with approval Lenin's proposal that outstanding results in competition should be rewarded with "wage rises and cultural or aesthetic benefits",²⁰² while the subsequent Party decree of 9 May 1929 called for material incentives and the establishment of bonus funds.²⁰³

These suggestions first found legislative form in the order issued by VSNKh RSFSR on 14 May 1929,²⁰⁴ which called upon management organs to pay money prizes to victors in competition. Further support was forthcoming by the end of the month when the II VTsSPS plenum declared in favour of collective rewards,²⁰⁵ a proposal echoed by the union newspaper, Trud, on

2 July 1929. A cartoon in the same newspaper, on 10 August 1929, suggests

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202 KPSS v resolyutsiyakh, chast' II, p.618.

203 Pravda, 10 May 1929.

204 Torgovo-promyshlennaya gazeta, 15 May 1929.

205 Rezolyutsii II i III plenumov, pp.46-47.

that management was dragging its feet on introducing such rewards. A manager tells a group of workers, which has cut costs and wastage and raised productivity "why talk about bonuses, comrades?! More enthus-s-s-iasm!!"

A further step in this direction was taken by the Government decree of 11 September 1929 "On Rewards for Improvements Achieved in the Course of Socialist Competition amongst Workers and Employees".²⁰⁶ This called for the establishment of Funds for Assisting Socialist Competition to be created from forty per cent of the economy made through competition in the previous financial year. Rewards were to be paid to whole enterprises, workshops, shifts, brigades, groups or individuals. Given the poor state of accounting and organisation of competition at this initial stage, the efficacy of this decree was strictly limited. A contemporary account suggests that it was not known about in the workshop.²⁰⁷ However, it remained the basis for material rewards in competition until 1931.

As the shock brigades forged to the front of competition in the latter half of 1929, the trade unions continued to stress their preference for collective, rather than individual bonuses. This was reflected in Dogadov's report to the III VTsSPS plenum in November 1929.²⁰⁸ Nonetheless, by the end of the year, complaints were being aired about the danger of shock workers becoming an 'aristocracy',²⁰⁹ and one author was moved to declare that "under no circumstances must the shock worker stand in a privileged position vis-a-vis other workers".²¹⁰

Of course, from the beginning a form of material incentive for shock work existed in the form of substantially increased earnings on piece rates (in 1927/28 61.6 per cent of all work done in industry was on piece rates²¹¹ and, despite the policy endorsed by the VIII VTsSPS Congress, this proportion dropped only marginally to 56.7 per cent in 1930 before the

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206 Sobranie zakonov, 1929, no.58, art.541.

207 Na novom etape, p.253 (D. Rakhman).

208 Rezolyutsii II i IIIplenumov VTsSPS, p.72.

209 Trud, 16 November 1929.

210 A. Kapustin, Udarniki!, M. 1930, p.60.

211 ILO Studies & Reports. Series D, no.19, Semyon Zagorsky 'Wages and Regulation of Conditions of Labour in the USSR', Geneva, 1930, p.107.

trend was reversed in the following year).²¹² Many contemporary observers noted that the opportunity for raising earnings often gave rise to 'money grubbing' (rvachestvo) amongst workers who joined competition solely for the financial rewards.

Such additional prizes as were given for shock work were sometimes of dubious value. Early in 1930, for example, an udarnitsa (woman shock worker) at the Suslinskii Works near Rostov-on-Don was awarded a pair of stockings worth one rouble five kopeks and a set of books containing such titles as "How to Avoid Pregnancy", "Venereal Diseases" and "How to Feed a Baby" - she was seventeen years old!²¹³ There are cases, too, of workers 'voluntarily' foregoing their prizes: at the Stalino Metalworks in late 1929 the first prize of 150 rubles was donated to the industrialisation fund, the second of 100 rubles was given to the workshop library and only the third (a holiday trip) and the fourth (a delegate to the Shock Workers' Congress) were taken up.²¹⁴

A miner-delegate to that Congress no doubt spoke for many when he declared that "shock work is not for prizes, but for the fulfilment of the plan, not in five, not in four, but in three years."²¹⁵ There was to be an ironic sequel to this statement for, during the Leninist Enrolment, significant moral pressure was applied to donate monetary rewards for shock work to the newly-issued State Loan "The Five-Year Plan in Four Years".²¹⁶

However, there is little doubt that it was the Party's sceptical assessment of the value of moral incentives following the Leninist Enrolment
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212 Lewis L. Lorwin and A. Abramson, 'The Present Phase of Economic and Social Development in the USSR', in International Labour Review, vol.33, no.1, January 1936, p.18. This figure is confirmed in Sotsialisticheskoe stroitel'stvo SSSR, Moscow, 1936, p.526. This source gives the percentage of piecework for 1928 as 57.5 of all man hours worked in industry (the figures for 1929 are 58.8 per cent, for 1931 58.7 per cent, 1932 63.7 per cent and 1935 69.8 per cent).

213 Na trudovom fronte, 1930, no.22, p.11.

214 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti (1930), p.105.

215 Pervyi Vsesoyuznyi s"ezd, p.127.

216 Trud, 26 March 1930. This was not a new phenomenon for it had already become customary in some plants, for example, the Rykov metalworks, to donate prizes to the Third Industrial Loan in the latter half of 1929, see Ot udarnykh brigad, p.30.

in which he advanced the slogan 'technology is decisive', the forum also marked the final victory for the principle that strict one-man management and shock work were the main levers with which to improve production.²³³

The organisation that had initially resisted the encroachment of this principle, VTsSPS, by ironic coincidence was holding its V plenum in Moscow at the same time as the Conference. The plenum marked the end of the road for the unions as a platform for opposition and carried through reforms (such as breaking up the existing 22 unions into 45 new ones) that would render them better able to assist the implementation of the Party's industrial policies.

Following the instructions of the TsK and TsKK joint plenum of December 1930, the VTsSPS resolved that unions must "expand the idea that has justified itself at a number of enterprises of the advantageous and priority supply of deficit produce and industrial goods to shock worker union members" Closed distribution shops (ZRK) were established in all plants employing two thousand or more workers.²³⁴

Steps were taken to ensure the introduction of this policy in an instruction published on 7 April 1931 by VTsSPS, the People's Commissariat of Supplies and the central cooperative organisation, Tsentrosoyuz. The instruction "On the Preferential Provision of Shock Workers" explicitly set out to link provisions with the fulfilment of the promfinplan, the raising of labour productivity, the campaign against labour turnover and the encouragement of socialist forms of work. The management (in the person of the assistant to the director, who was also the chairman of the production conference) was obliged to keep records of shock work and issue monthly 'shock worker cards' which would entitle the employee to receive provisions and goods from a variety of closed distribution points (from shops and kiosks to buffets and canteens). Management could withdraw these cards for failure to fulfil planned targets or for breaches of labour discipline. Moreover, the goods in shortest supply, notably coats, suits and shoes, were to be distributed amongst the shock workers in descending order of merit.²³⁵

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233 Trud, 3 February 1931.

234 Rezolyutsii IV i V plenumov VTsSPS, p.97.

'sharpening of the class struggle'. For example, the factory committee at the Ravenstvo works in Leningrad - the very first factory to declare itself 'shock' in 1929 - was attacked for giving an 'apolitical' report to the workers.²⁴² Elsewhere there are reports of bread riots,²⁴³ strikes over lack of provisions or rate-cuts²⁴⁴ and epidemics of typhus and scurvy.²⁴⁵

Even the Party journal, Bol'shevik, carried reports at this time of opposition to self-indenturing, the reorganisation of the unions, and, of course, to poor food and the raising of output standards. The journal also complained of the appalling state of communal facilities, the misuse of and speculation in ration books, widespread theft from cooperative stores, the lack of prizes for all shock workers and the far from satisfactory quality of public catering.²⁴⁶

In other words, there were shortages of just about everything except jobs. As a Western correspondent wrote at the time, there were "great numbers of workers and peasants wandering about the country in search, not of jobs, which are plentiful, but of adequate food and housing, which are not".²⁴⁷ For all the talk of 'class enemies' the tasks facing the Stalin leadership were clear: there was an acute shortage of skilled labour; productivity had to be raised in the key metal, mining and transport industries; the organisation of the production process and of labour discipline needed to be tightened up under strict management control; and, in view of the shortages of provisions, goods and housing, those available had to be directed first and foremost towards those most ably tackling the above tasks.

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242 Bol'shevik, 1931, no.5, p.61 (M. Rafail).

243 The Times, 14 February 1931.

244 The Times, 16 February 1931; Trud, 13 April 1931.

245 Yu. L., 'Pyatiletka i rabochii klass', in Sotsialisticheskii vestnik, 2 June 1931; in the winter of 1932 the entire workforce at Komsomol'sk-on-Amur was struck down by scurvy, Govoryat stroiteli, p.219 (S. Trapeznikov).

246 See A.I. Mikoyan, 'K reshayushchim uspekham v razreshenii myasnoi problemy' pp.10-23, and R.S. Zemlyachka, 'Boevyi voprosy potrebitel'skoi kooperatsii' pp.33-46, in Bol'shevik, 1931, no.1; B. Markus, 'Sotsialisticheskoe sorevonovanie na pod"eme' in ibid., no.2, pp.27-40; ibid., no.5, pp.50-61 (M. Rafail); L. Perchik, 'Gorod i gorodskoe khozyaistvo na novom etape', in ibid., no.14, pp.36-47.

247 W.H. Chamberlin, 'The Balance Sheet of the Five-Year Plan', in Foreign Affairs, vol.11, April 1933, p.459.

It was against a background, therefore, of the teething problems of new showpiece plants such as the Stalingrad Tractor Works, the near collapse of the railway system, the falling output of the Donbas coalmines and the soaring turnover rates that Stalin made his historic speech "New Situation - New Tasks" to management representatives in Moscow on 23 June 1931. The key elements of Stalin's new industrial policy were differentiation (between skilled and unskilled, productive and unproductive, key industry and secondary industry), individualisation (of production tasks, responsibilities and rewards), and the establishment of a hierarchy of authority from the director down to the foreman and brigade leader.

As such the new policy was inherently divisive within the working class, leading to an almost physical separation between shock and ordinary workers (separate canteens, housing, shops, etc.). On the other hand, entry into the 'elite' was open to all, and every encouragement was given to raise skills or engage in shock work. Given the primacy of production interests, the fact that workers would enter shock work for material considerations rather than out of socialist convictions was a matter of little concern. However, the new policy only intensified trends that were already becoming evident in Soviet industry, as an article in an Opposition journal printed just prior to Stalin's speech reveals:²⁴⁸

" There are no ideological reasons for becoming a shock worker any more. Some are talked into it, some by threats, others just don't want to be left out, but the majority join for material well-being or for a good job. They are mainly the most backward workers and semi-mature youngsters...
 ...There are shock workers and there are ordinary workers and the differences between these two groups are growing all the time."

Of course, the former were portrayed by the Stalin leadership as the 'real' workers, and those who opposed them, however justifiable the grounds (poor food, bad working conditions, worker solidarity, etc.) were defined as 'class enemies' and dealt with accordingly. As the acute shortages lasted at least until the end of the First Five-Year Plan, one must assume that this differentiation and the divisions and hostility that it engendered persisted. Certainly, it was in such evidence at the beginning of the

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248 Sotsialisticheskii vestnik, 2 June 1931 (Yu. L.).

In Leningrad industry in 1931, for example, the number of overtime hours worked nearly doubled from 636,000 hours in March to 1,228,000 hours in December.²⁶⁵ On 17 November the Government was obliged to pass a decree specifically condemning this trend²⁶⁷ and, on 29 November, an order by VSNKh categorically forbade wages to be raised except insofar as output was increased. The same order prohibited the hiring of more workers except with the approval of the trade union, an attempt to trim the thousands of 'superfluous' workers allegedly employed at the major plants.²⁶⁷

Rostsel'mash, the agricultural plant that had experienced teething problems worse even than those at Stalingrad (it fulfilled its production plan by only 46 per cent in 1931),²⁶⁸ was estimated to have 4000 (20 per cent of the workforce)²⁶⁹ superfluous workers and Krasnoe Sormovo 3530.²⁷⁰ As a result of this campaign enterprises began to shed surplus labour, 8000 workers being discharged in Moscow during the first fortnight of 1932 alone.²⁷¹

In summary, it may be seen that the wage reforms made no immediate impact on turnover figures, indeed the percentage of workers leaving their plants in the last quarter of 1931 was above the annual average, whereas it had been below during the corresponding period in 1930.²⁷² Rates did not commence to fall appreciably until May 1933, suggesting that other observers, who laid the blame for labour turnover on poor provisions and housing, were correct.²⁷³

Of course, turnover was not restricted to the workers. Early in 1931 it was reported that in three months the Lyuboretskii Works had four directors, three technical directors, two party secretaries and three chairmen of the union committee, and that the situation at Rostsel'mash

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265 Na trudovom fronte, 1932, nos.8-9, p.18.

266 Sob ranie zakonov, 1931, no.67, art.447.

267 Trud, 30 November 1931.

268 Partiinoe stroitel'stvo, 1932, no.5, p.41.

269 Za industrializatsiyu, 6 December 1931.

270 XVII Konferentsiya VKP (b): stenograficheskie otchet, M, 1932, p.58.

271 Za industrializatsiyu, 22 January 1932.

272 The average monthly rate in the last quarter of 1931 was 11.7 per cent compared to 11.4 per cent for the whole year. The corresponding figures for 1930 were 12.4 per cent and 12.7 per cent. Sotsialisticheskoe stroitel'stvo, p.342.

273 The rate for May 1933 was 16.8 per cent lower than in May 1932 and, subsequently, the turnover rate in 1933 was consistently lower than in the previous year, ibid., p.342.

was similar.²⁷⁴ From 1931 to the end of 1933, the works superintendent at the Vysokogorskii iron ore mine was changed ten times! One of them, a railway expert, was quoted as saying that he understood the job "like a pig understands oranges, or a ram understands the Bible".²⁷⁵ This state of affairs was reflected not only in production but also in gross mismanagement of prize funds, wage calculations, provisions, housing expenditure and labour safety measures.²⁷⁶ In turn, such phenomena gave rise to labour turnover, absenteeism and poor, low quality productivity.

Nonetheless, the acute shortages continued to swell the ranks of the shock workers. As a correspondent to an Opposition journal noted early in 1932:²⁷⁷

"When the food rations for the shock workers are raised, those of the ordinary workers are lowered. Hunger is forcing the workers into shock work. And they are going."

Another letter to the journal, written a month earlier, comments:²⁷⁸

"And notice, even among our Communists and Komsomol members, one comes across all the more rarely sincere enthusiasm, a genuine burning desire. And as for the rank-and-file millions of 'enthusiasts' when all is said and done they are just like our entire Soviet output: full of defects and all too often, good for nothing!...both the youngsters and the Communists, even the most active, are more and more infected by the same individualistic, the same egoistic moods and aspirations."

The Central Committee decision, just a few months later in April 1932, to scrap the Party maximum wage of 300 rubles per month might be perceived as an admission that, even among the faithful, enthusiasm alone was not enough.²⁷⁹

Just as the "Paradise in Five Years" vision was quietly dropped in December 1931 with the announcement that a new five-year plan would commence upon completion of the first, so any illusion that Soviet industrial relations could be restructured with the active participation of the mass

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274 Trud, 2 February 1931.

275 Byli gory vysokoi, pp.266-268.

276 Such manifestations drew sharp criticism from both Shvernik and Veinberg at the IX VTsSPS Congress, see N. Shvernik, Profsoyuzy SSSR nakanune vtoroi pyatiletki, M, 1932, pp.65-70; G. Veinberg, Profsoyuzy na novom etape, M, 1932, pp.46-67.

277 Letter from P, Sotsialisticheskii vestnik, 27 February 1932.

278 Letter from L (Moscow), Sotsialisticheskii vestnik, 23 January 1932.

279 See Edgar Furniss, 'Soviet Peasants Face New Crisis' in Current History, vol.36 (Apr-Sep 1932), p.247.

of workers was gradually dispelled in the course of 1932. The Party had set the parameters for a massive increase in production in the Second Five-Year Plan (1933 -1937) at the XVII Party Conference in January 1932. The same forum had thrown its weight fully behind the foreman and brigade leader (i.e. the lowest rungs of management) as the immediate organisers of the production process.²⁸⁰ In mid-1932, after a number of key new industrial enterprises had ground to a halt, the Party installed the strictest one-man management. Throughout the year the attention of the trade unions and the shock work movement was directed towards the establishment of output standards and the spread of progressive piece rates with their 'defensive' functions limited largely to the improvement of provisions (through such diverse means as market gardening and rabbit breeding) and living conditions.²⁸¹

However, throughout the year labour discipline was deteriorating, with absentee rates in particular assuming threatening proportions. The logical outcome at the end of 1932 was that management should take over provisions and accommodation and that both be linked to the strict observance of labour discipline. Thus, the infamous Government decree "On Dismissal for Absence from Work Without Valid Reason" of 15 November 1932, specifically demanded that even one day's unsanctioned absenteeism should lead to dismissal and deprivation of food and goods cards as well as eviction from accommodation belonging to the factory.²⁸² An instruction issued by Narkomtrud on 26 November made the surrender of ration cards in such situations obligatory and allowed the eviction from factory accommodation of a worker and his or her dependants at any time of year. The instruction also spread the application of the decree to 'persistent disorganisers of production'.²⁸³ The Labour Commissar, Tsikhon, was moved to justify the new legislation by declaring that it was not aimed "to introduce a system

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280 KPSS v resolyutsiyakh, chast' III, p.65.

281 See decree of TsK VKP (b) dated 8 May 1932 "On the Development of Rabbit Breeding in Industrial Areas", Sel'skokhozyaistvennyi slovar'-spravochnik, 3rd ed., M-L, 1937, p.602; both Shvernik and Veinberg encouraged such trends in their speeches to the IX VTsSPS Congress.

282 Izvestiya, 15 November 1932.

283 Byulleten' finansovogo i khozyaistvennogo zakonodatel'stva, 1933, no.13, pp.40-41.

of forced labour, as the capitalist press claims, but that its sole object was to strengthen labour discipline."²⁸⁴

This is borne out in the preamble to the Party and Government decree of 4 December 1932 "On Extending the Rights of the Factory Management in Workers' Provisions and Improving the Rationing System", which had the aim of "further improving workers' provisions, struggling against the handing out of groceries and industrial goods to truants and flitters who do not, in fact, work at the enterprise, and also to strengthen the power of the director of the enterprise."²⁸⁵

Certainly, the reaction on the shop floor was mixed. On the one hand there are reports of such worker reactions as "they demand discipline, but feed us badly" and "they might as well chain us up and stop us from leaving the factory" and management responses such as "if we chase out all the truants there won't be anyone left to work".²⁸⁶ On the other hand, a circular from the RSFSR Health and Labour Commissariats on 13 December 1932 claimed that "the decree has called forth widespread enthusiasm from workers and has mobilised the working public for a campaign against recidivist truants who disorganise production."²⁸⁷

However, it was clear that factory managements in the localities were slow to take over provisions, and a Government and Party decree signed by Stalin and Molotov on 19 December insisted that the January coupons be ready within nine days.²⁸⁸ Once this package of measures started to be implemented and workers were dismissed in large numbers for truancy, the effect on the officially registered absentee rates was dramatic in all industries. The tough line on discipline was undoubtedly reinforced by the introduction of internal passports in late December 1932 and the

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284 Za industrializatsiyu, 20 November 1932.
285 Sobranie zakonov, 1932, no.80, art.489.
286 N. Aleksandrov, 'Bor'ba s progulami na proizvodstve' in Sovetskoe gosudarstvo, 1933, no.5, p.55.
287 Byulleten' finansovogo i khozyaistvennogo zakonodatel'stva, 1933, no.14, pp.43-44. Immediately following the publication of the decree, the central newspapers carried favourable responses from a variety of factories, see Pravda and Izvestiya 6 December 1932.
288 Sobranie zakonov, 1932, no.82, art.501.

struggle, the review of standards will meet with the most active support of all conscientious workers and, at the same time, with overt and covert opposition from opportunistic, kulak and counter-revolutionary elements who have stolen into our enterprises due to the insufficient vigilance of local organisations."

The role of the trade unions in this was expressed thus:²⁹⁴

"Unions must achieve in practice from every employer the conscientious fulfilment of his/her duties, the punctual arrival at work, the strengthening of labour discipline at the workplace by management, as well as through cultural and public influence: clubs, red corners, Rates and Conflict Commissions (RKK), comrades' courts, etc. A pitiless struggle must be waged against all wasters of work time, against idlers, layabouts and class alien elements, up to and including their expulsion from the union...

...Only that worker that fulfils and overfulfils the norms, struggles to fully master technology, struggles for the elimination of waste and the improvement of quality of output, and who serves as an example of better work to other workers may be considered a shock worker."

Yet even those who met all these criteria were not always getting the preferential treatment that the new policy implied, as the following example illustrates:²⁹⁵

"A survey of especially outstanding workers at factories in Moscow and Leningrad revealed that the majority of them badly wanted to study, but that at present they do not study precisely because they are exceptionally weighed down with production and social work, because of bad housing conditions, distance of factory from home or the educational centre etc."

The trade unions were given additional opportunities to pursue their policy of preferential treatment for shock workers midway through 1933 when, as a result of the merger between VTsSPS and Narkomtrud, they took over the social insurance system with its 4.4 billion ruble budget.²⁹⁶ Reporting to the III VTsSPS plenum on 29 June 1933, Shvernik advanced the slogan:

"All privileges to the Shock Workers and Cadre Workers"

adding:

"we must turn social insurance into a really powerful lever for the improvement of the material conditions of the workers and the increase of the productivity of labour. We must eliminate every kind of bureaucracy and equalisation in social insurance. We must revise the entire practice of social insurance from the point of view of granting priority

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294 'K itogam III plenuma VTsSPS', in Voprosy profdvizheniya, 1933, no.8, p.9.

295 Khitrov, 'Rabota profsoyuzov s peredovymi udarnikami i geroyami sotsialisticheskogo stroitel'stva', in Voprosy profdvizheniya, 1933, nos.1-2, p.47.

296 N. Schvernik, New Functions of the Soviet Trade Unions, M-L, 1933, p.16.

vegetable oils were also derationed)³⁰⁵ allowed the high-earning shock workers to utilise their income and thus acted as a powerful incentive both to shock work and to skill improvement. The synthesis of the two emerged in August 1935 with the Stakhanovite movement.

Thus it may be seen that initially material incentives were effective mainly due to the acute shortages (i.e. there was a strong disincentive to opting out of shock work). As the shortages became more acute, and legal sanctions were made to bite, the new system came to be accepted, albeit grudgingly by many. As the situation improved enough for rationing to be abolished, money wages at last became the most effective incentive in raising productivity.

THE 'MASTERS OF TECHNOLOGY' - THE RISE OF INDIVIDUAL COMPETITION

Although the turning point in the mastering of technology clearly came with Stalin's speech to the industrial managers on 4 February 1931, the raising of skills had been an integral component of socialist competition from the outset, albeit on a very ad-hoc, unplanned footing. The benefit to the individual worker of raising skills had been expressed in promotion and public acclaim rather than in significantly increased earnings. The switch to material incentives, to be effected in 1931, was to increase substantially the personal rewards for improving qualifications.

As we have identified Stalin's speech, in which he replaced the slogan "tempos are decisive" with "technology in the reconstruction period is decisive", as the point that marked the victory of the 'management' approach to industrial relations, the new policy aimed at raising skills was conducted with strict adherence to the principle of one-man management and with emphasis on the individual worker rather than the group.

Not surprisingly, such a policy favoured the implementation of theories of scientific management, particularly those advanced by the Central Institute of Labour (TsIT) under its quintessential 'management man' Aleksei Gastev, the leading Soviet exponent of Frederick Taylor's methods. Indeed, it is hugely ironic that this "indefatigable enthusiast"

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305 Sobranie zakonov, 1935, no.51, art.421.

was nominated by the Soviet trade union leadership(!) at this time to receive the Order of Lenin for his services to Soviet industry.³⁰⁶ It is not without irony either that, in the Spring of 1931, the Taylor Society was meeting in Philadelphia to approve an Industrial Employment Code which warned amongst other things against rate cutting as demoralising alike to producers and to community's standard of living, at a time when it was being advocated in Soviet industry as the most important feature of socialist competition.³⁰⁷

The other main features of the drive to master technology were i) an attempt to understand a given production process with a view to achieving breakthroughs in labour productivity as a result, ii) the development of competition by trades and industries by which these technical innovations could be applied on a wider scale and iii) the development of individual competition. As the movement was inextricably linked to the shift to material incentives, performance rather than class background, age or industrial experience became the main criterion.

Although individual shock work was a prominent feature of the early stage of mass competition, it tended to be squeezed out by such collective forms as the shock brigades and production communes. The major Gosplan survey estimated that only 28.3 per cent of those in shock work were competing on an individual basis, compared to 58.9 per cent in the brigades and 12.8 per cent in communes. Moreover, as the proportion was much lower in such key industries as metallurgy in the Ukraine and the Urals (8.8 and 13.9 per cent respectively), the compilers of the survey findings were moved to comment that "individual competition is dying out".³⁰⁸

This was the conventional wisdom of the day, with even Gastev remarking upon it. A contemporary account suggested that "individual competition in its form was still too reminiscent of the old habits and customs of individualistic society" advising that "one should not pour new wine into old skins or they will break".³⁰⁹ Within the year, Gastev had

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306 Na trudovom fronte, 1931, no.14, p.13; no.15, p.12.
 307 Industrial and Labour Information, vol.38 (April-June 1931), no.11, pp.406-407.
 308 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti SSSR (1930), pp.23-24.
 309 P. Dubner and M. Kozyrev, op. cit., p.6.

radically revised his opinion and the authors of the above account were to be taken to task for underestimating the importance of individual competition.³¹⁰

For in the intervening year (until 1 May 1931) this form of competition had not died out, although the proportion of shock workers engaged in it had fallen sharply to 11.8 per cent, compared to 77.7 per cent in the shock brigades and 10.4 per cent in communes and collectives. Thus, at the start of the new movement there existed a base of over 325,000 individual shock workers.³¹¹ Their number grew steadily during the summer of 1931, reaching 12.3 per cent of shock workers by 1 July and 14.6 per cent by 1 October. Thus, on the very day that the new wage scales were introduced it was estimated that almost half a million workers (about 10 per cent of the workforce) were engaged in individual competition.³¹²

As Kraval', the Deputy Commissar of Labour, was to explain in his speech to the World Social Economic Congress in Amsterdam in August 1931 "the most important problem of socialist competition has been to get the industrial financial plan individualised for every department, every worker, every machine in the factory".³¹³ Once this was achieved, individual competition became the norm, and such collective forms of labour as the shock brigades fell from favour.

Similarly, technical instruction had been an ever present component of socialist competition. Factory union committees would establish in their workers' clubs production-technical circles, often run in conjunction with classes to eliminate illiteracy. Other methods of spreading technical knowledge at this time were production conferences, which would organise collections of suggestions to counter losses and overexpenditure of materials etc; newspapers such as Pravda, which on 25 October 1930, explained the method of work by which a bricklayer at the Chelyabinsk tractor site had laid 1300 bricks in one shift instead of the norm of 800; and Za

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310 Na trudovom fronte, 1931, nos.8-9, p.26.
311 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v SSSR, 1918-1964, p.60.
312 Byulleten' po uchetu truda, p.99.
313 World Social Economic Planning. Material Contributed to the World Social Economic Congress, Amsterdam, August 1931, Hague, 1932, p.401.

industrializatsiyu, which on 21 March 1931 published the results of studies made by the Central Institute of Labour (TsIT), which enabled a Soviet bricklayer to beat an American expert in a competition by laying 907 bricks in an hour against his opponent's 452.

However, it was the massive influx of barely-literate, untrained rural youth into the workforce at a time when the latest Western technology was being installed in the show projects and shock construction sites that made the mastering of technology such a prime imperative. With the ending of unemployment in October 1930, the Commissariat of Labour had turned its attention to the training of cadres, and it was this body that presented a report to the Central Executive Committee in January 1931 that led the latter to decide that it was "necessary to intensify and increase production instruction at work itself, combining it with the highest forms of organising work processes". This decree "On Measures Regarding the Training of Skilled Manpower for the National Economy of the USSR" called for Narkomtrud to provide two million skilled workers for industry by means of rapidly extending the number studying of FZU courses and by promoting existing workers to higher-skilled work. At the same time measures were to be introduced to mechanise the heaviest work in the key industries and construction projects.³¹⁴

The V plenum of VTsSPS at the beginning of February 1931, gave both the development of competition by trades and the movement to master technology a significant boost, the former by creating production sections for the main trades within the new unions and the latter by encouraging production conferences to promote "more boldly" to highly-skilled work those workers who had mastered technology.³¹⁵

On 8 March 1931 a decree by the Presidium of VTsSPS "On the Technical Instruction of Shock Workers" called upon factory union committees to organise courses to raise skills outside working hours as had been successfully tried at Krasnyi Proletarii.³¹⁶ On 24 March the VTsSPS

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314 Sobranie zakonov, 1931, no.5, art.63.
315 Trud, 6 February 1931; Rezolyutsii IV i V plenumov VTsSPS, p .61.
316 Profsoyuzy SSSR, vol.2, pp.622-623.

It was also in May 1931 that the first All-Union competition by trade (among concrete layers) commenced, stimulating the development of a new movement for the 'front rankers' (peredoviki) in mastering new technology and achieving high productivity. In the summer of 1931 this form of competition spread to engine crews on railways and throughout the remainder of the five-year plan gradually spread to a variety of other professions, being especially widespread on the shock construction sites at Dnieprostroi, Magnitostroi etc.³²⁷

A direct outcome of the competition by trades was the movement by skilled workers to take 'patronage' (sheftsvo) over younger workers in an attempt to teach them new skills. Of course, brigade and individual tuition of trainees and apprentices had long been established in Soviet industry, but was significantly expanded from 1930 and, especially, in 1931. However, with the introduction of new technology exacerbated by the increasing turnover rates amongst skilled workers, the rapid passing on of technical know-how became an urgent priority. Thus, in late 1930, but particularly in 1931 the movement for 'patronage' spread. One of the first factories to introduce this on an organised basis was the Voikov metalworks in Kerch, where each 'cadre' worker would take it upon himself to instruct from two to five newly-arrived young workers. On 13 July 1931 the Kerch metalworkers appealed, through the pages of Rabochaya Gazeta, to all cadre workers to "forge conscientious proletarians from the new workers".³²⁸

As a result of the appeal, other aspects of 'patronage' were introduced, such as encouraging the youngsters to become active trade unionists, to self educate and to continue studying. In this way the movement became qualitatively different from the purely production

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327 Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v SSSR, 1918-1964, pp.110-113.

328 Rabochii klass v upravlenii gosudarstvom, p.198. There had been an attempt to launch a similar scheme fully a year earlier when Ural'skii rabochii organised "a skills fund named in honour of the XVI VKP (b) Congress" under the slogan "Every skilled worker teach one unskilled!", Kommunisticheskaya partiya - vdokhnovitel', p.189 (M. Shkol'nik). Another initiative was the establishment of production circles to teach skills to new workers, in the case of the Marti works (Leningrad) from February 1931, M. Rafail, 'Uspekhi pyatiletki i voprosy ovladeniya tekhnikoi' in Bol'shevik, 1931, no.10, p.40.

Ballbearing plant in Moscow and on 3 April by the first units at Kuznetsk.³³³ Ironically, just the day before Kuznetsk was commissioned, the Party was obliged to pass a decree on the Nizhnii Novgorod motorworks closing the brand new works for a complete reorganisation.³³⁴ Unlike the situation at the Stalingrad Tractor Works, the problem was not so much one of teething problems as of poor management and organisation. Ordzhonikidze and Kaganovich were despatched to the motorworks to sort out the situation. Hitting out at interference from Party and union organisations, they called for the implementation of the strictest one-man management not just at this plant, but at all major industrial enterprises.³³⁵ In many ways this decree may be seen as the final, decisive victory of the manager over the worker in Soviet industry.

The IX VTsSPS Congress held later in April did nothing to dispel this impression. Kaganovich referred to the reformed labour organisations as 'production unions' and called for a two-pronged attack against inter-union joint action and caste-like shop activity.³³⁶ The Congress, the first to be held since the birth of the mass movement for socialist competition, reflected the advance that this aspect of the Five-Year Plan had made since the VIII Congress, for, of the delegates from production fully 98.7 per cent were shock workers and 80.9 per cent were in cost-accounting brigades. As 76 per cent of the 1057 delegates were members or candidate members of the Party, it is hardly surprising that the Congress concentrated more on questions such as the spreading of output standards rather than the erosion of workers' rights vis-a-vis management.³³⁷

A report by a Party brigade visiting the Stalin motorworks in Moscow, published at the time of the Congress gives an indication of the worker's position:³³⁸

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333. Ekonomicheskaya zhizn' SSSR, pp.263-272.
 334. Partiinoe stroitel'stvo, 1932, nos.7-8, p.60.
 335. Edgar Furniss, 'New Curbs on Soviet Labor', Current History, vol.36 (Apr-June 1932) pp.364-365.
 336. L.M. Kaganovich, O zadachakh profsoyuzov SSSR na dannom etape razvitya, M, 1932, p.3.
 337. Industrial and Labour Information, vol.43 (July-Sept 1932), no.2, p.65.
 338. Partiinoe stroitel'stvo, 1932, nos.7-8, p.29.

the problems of turnover, absenteeism and poor utilisation of work time remained as severe as ever, not least because of the continuing shortages in provisions and housing. This led to the somewhat bizarre situation whereby Soviet miners could establish world records in coal getting per shift by the summer of 1932 at a time when the industry as a whole was still underfulfilling production quotas significantly.³⁴²

On 30 June 1932 a Government decree introduced a technical minimum examination which had to be passed by all workers servicing complex machinery, to be introduced not later than 1 January 1934.³⁴³ Courses could be organised through the FZU network or by the enterprises themselves. In the following month Izotov proposed the establishment in Gorlovka of a 'school for newcomers' (shkola novichok) which would enable front rankers to pass on their experience in an organised fashion.³⁴⁴ The Izotov school, which was eventually opened in 1933, was a variation of the helping hand movement that linked the social tugboats of the First Five-Year Plan with the Stakhanovites of the Second. However, it is significant that it was not until the Party leadership and management at Izotov's pit was changed for its failure to fulfil the 1932 plan, that production began to pick up. In the first quarter of 1933 the output plan was fulfilled by 111.2 per cent and the productivity per face worker by 112.4 per cent.³⁴⁵ Inevitably such successes were followed by a sharp rise in output standards accompanied by the just as predictable protests of other miners.

Izotov's own group had even better production results, fulfilling the quarterly output plan by 125.5 per cent and the plan for productivity per face worker by 150.6 per cent. Moreover, in just two months Izotov produced 20 skilled face workers from amongst the trainees and a further ten from cadre miners.³⁴⁶ To put his feat into perspective, however,

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342 N.B. Dolgovyazova and E.I. Shashenkova, 'Gorniyaki v pervoi pyatiletke', Ugol, 1979, no.4, p.62.

343 Decree of STO "On the Compulsory Training of Workers Tending Complex Machines, Installations and Units", Sobranie zakonov, 1932, no.51, art.311.

344 Govoryat stroiteli, pp.251-252 (N. Izotov).

345 Govoryat stroiteli, p.248 (N. Izotov): Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovane v SSSR 1918-1964, p.118.

346 ibid., p.119.

As for discipline, each succeeding appeal and decree repeated the call for tighter labour discipline and a campaign against slackers and disorganisers. Labour discipline was by no means perfect, but by and large, the system of incentives and sanctions operating within a strictly hierarchical network of industrial relations, was clearly much more effective than the perceived near anarchy that had preceded it. For as Pravda commented on 3 February 1935 "workers no longer endeavour to interfere in management."

Conclusion

It is paradoxical that the introduction of material incentives as the basis for increasing productivity should have occurred in 1931 and 1932, years of unprecedented shortages and hardship. Yet it was precisely this situation that enabled the authorities to direct those resources they did have at their disposal to the key areas of industrialisation and, by a combination of moral precept, legislative sanction and material deprivation ensured not only that there would be no open, organised opposition to this policy, but also that the majority of workers would finally accommodate themselves to the new order in Soviet industry.

Many Western observers have written off socialist competition as a factor in changing Soviet industrial relations after the victory of the management approach early in 1931. However, as we have seen in this Chapter, that victory had to be carried through and consolidated. It is my conclusion that, without the example of the shock workers, front rankers, dipovtsi etc., who could be presented by the authorities as the 'genuine' representatives of the working class, it would have been much harder to carry through the policies of strict management control. The "millions of workers with the psychology of a manager" were clearly the product of wishful thinking, but the fact is that there were always enough willing to combine material reward with moral considerations to show that this was attainable.

Moreover, clear differences of emphasis may be seen between factions

advocating the management approach; the technocrats aiming for the largely economic ends of accomplished, efficient, quality work, while the central Party authorities were perpetuating the largely political need for intensive work to achieve quantitative results. In other words, the economic efficacy of socialist competition after the complete victory of the management approach was doubtful, whereas its political importance was undiminished. As competition had effectively been reduced to rate-cutting and norms revisions by the end of the period under review, it was often necessary for managements to compromise with workers in order to maintain their will to work, not only by cushioning them from the effects of rate-cuts and norm revisions, but also by tolerating violations of labour discipline and formalising the conduct of socialist competition.

Thus, the superficial indices of industrial discipline, expressed in low absentee rates, high levels of participation in competition and frequent revisions of norms and rates were satisfactory, whereas the actual state of affairs on the shop floor was characterised by storming to fulfil plans, poor quality output and inefficient use of work time, problems which have continued to plague Soviet industry until this very day.

There is an analogy to be drawn, perhaps, with the fate of architecture under Stalin. The Constructivist and other modernist schools sought to transform buildings into tools rather than monuments, a movement which found expression in the 'socialist towns' around the shock construction projects of the First Five-Year Plan. However, the economic need for functional buildings was accompanied by a perceived political need for monuments and prestigious show-pieces. By the end of the Second Five-Year Plan this found concrete expression in the Moscow Metro and, eventually, in Stalin's distinctive 'wedding cake' style of architecture, both embellished with statues of heroic, strapping workers. So it was with the working class. The emphasis on intensity pushed to the forefront the heroic, storming type at the expense of the methodical, consistent and efficient worker. For despite the great strides made by Soviet society in this respect, the genuine men and women of technology were still

perceived to be a less efficient force of example than the men of
marble.

CONCLUSIONS

The task was finally accomplished, however imperfectly and high cost notwithstanding, and a society of peasants, workers, craftsmen and versatile labourers were moulded into a modern industrial work force possessing a degree of technical literacy that in itself represented an awesome achievement.

Patterns of worker behaviour that were perceived to be tolerably consistent with the demands of production (allowing for the periodic tightening-up campaigns by the regime) were established within Soviet industry by the end of 1934. This is not to say, however, that the problems of labour discipline were solved within that time scale. Indeed, it is argued that, in devoting its energies to the task of tackling labour turnover and absenteeism, both natural products flowing from the rapid expansion of Soviet industry and the social policies that accompanied them, the regime was able to commence addressing the central problem of work discipline - the full utilisation of the working day - only as the period under review drew to a close.

An experienced observer of Soviet industry over the years since 1934 might well conclude that the regime has proved far more adept at getting workers to stay at the factory and to attend on a regular basis, than it has been in getting them to work consistently and productively. Here, indeed, is a dilemma of its beginning.

Now this is precisely where socialist competition is cast to play the leading role. For, so the theory would have it, socialist competition is the vehicle upon which workers can exercise their management of production. Insofar as they are imbued with a sense of being 'masters of the country', they

would perceive it to be in their interests to work productively.

For an all too brief period, during the 'optimistic' phase of the socialist offensive (early in 1930) there was just a hope that this might be attainable. With the elimination of the production communes, however, all spontaneity and autonomy in the movement for socialist competition was lost and it became, like the trade unions before, just another arm of management, albeit part of the fabric and tradition of Soviet industrial relations.

Why, one may ask, if the notion of workers exercising genuine control over production through socialist competition is so patently a chimera, does Soviet society continue to this day to pay it lip service? The answer, it seems to me, lies in the conflicting perceptions of managers and workers.

Perhaps the decisive factor in this respect stems from the fact that such a large proportion of the managerial and executive cohort that tightened its grip over Soviet society during the period under review had risen up through the ranks at such an unprecedentedly rapid rate. As Kaganovich reported to the XVII Party Congress in 1934, half of the management at the Stalin Motor Works in Moscow had been promoted from the shop floor during the First Five-Year Plan.¹ It is quite probable that these cadres overestimated their own ability to organise production and underestimated the problems that the rest of the work force had in coping with the new technology.

It is important to stress that the 'management' perspective increasingly held sway over Soviet industry during this period. Thus such ardent advocates of scientific management

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(XVII S'ezd Vsesoyuznoi kommunisticheskoi partii (b): stenograficheskii otchet, Moscow, 1934, p.529.

and technological innovation as Aleksei Gastev, head of the Central Institute of Labour (TsIT), were enthusiastically supported by all sides of the debate on the pace of industrialisation. What appeared to escape Gastev and his like-minded colleagues was that by no means all the ordinary workers shared this enthusiasm and zeal for production. It is hard to disagree with the following assessment:²

"The demand of the Soviet state for rapid industrialisation and the weakness of the old trade unions, which had lost their mass following during the years of the Civil War, destroyed what natural balance that may have existed between a labour movement jealous of its members' immediate material welfare and industrial managers whose first consideration was productivity. These new industrial managers were drawn in many cases from the ranks of skilled labourers and old trade union leaders, but they acquired interests and modes of thought that were quite different from those of the rank and file, while still pointing to their working-class background as proof of their solidarity with the working masses. That any conflict of interests could exist was denied as these new managers acquired full sway over the world of Soviet industry and, under Stalin's direction, forced the pace of industrialisation by all available means after 1929."

Thus the managers, who claimed to have empathy with the workers, sought to create workers who had the psychology of a manager. It is in this respect that socialist competition represents a 'management' approach to production. It was not fortuitous that the men that I have credited with giving the movement its name - Kuibyshev and Lenin - were management men par excellence. Nonetheless it was the working-class origins of the movement (albeit among the young management-minded members of the early shock brigades) that

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2 Kendall E. Bailes, 'Aleksei Gastev and the Soviet Controversy over Taylorism, 1918-1924' in Soviet Studies, vol. XXIX, no.3, July 1977, p.393.

enabled the regime to utilise socialist competition as a weapon with which to crush those old trade unions and any other organisation or individual that stood in the way of the interests of production. By pointing to its working class roots the regime could identify the movement with the working class and accuse anyone who opposed it, be they the most proletarian of cadre workers, as being 'an agent of the class enemy'. Once the opposition had been seen off, those elements within the movement itself whose spontaneity and autonomy were perceived as a potential threat by the regime, could be effectively eliminated, until workers were left with little more than the right to produce more.

However, as participation in socialist competition was regarded as an act of faith in support of the system, and refusal to participate tantamount to outright opposition to the regime, the nominal numbers of workers 'actively engaged' in competition remained high long after it had abandoned the goal of exercising a genuine control over industry.

What emerged was a sort of Soviet Taylorism. Moral incentives were gradually displaced by material incentives tailored to appeal to the individualistic petty-bourgeois instincts of the most upwardly-mobile section of the Soviet working class during the Second Five-Year Plan.

Few of these would have even heard of the dissident communist, Bogdanov, who in 1913 warned:³

"Since Taylorism was geared to the superior, not the average worker, it would create a rift in the working class, with the best workers extolled for heroic efforts and the average ones dismissed as idlers and loafers."

* * * * *

3 Soviet Studies, vol.XXXIII, no.2, April 1981, p.248 (Suchor)

Clearly, this was not the law of the jungle: the fittest - Izotov, Busygin, Smetanin, Stakhanov etc. - prospered, the rest had to work to survive.

However, those dilemmas of the beginnings are now coming home to roost as Gorbachev strives to breathe initiative, quality and a socialist attitude to work into Soviet industry. As the campaign for perestroika and glasnost unfolds, it is intriguing to guess the reaction of one old Soviet pensioner - Kaganovich - who in his time had overseen the perestroika of the trade unions which had effectively put an end to any glasnost in those worker organisations.

It is ironic, too, as Gorbachev looks back to the New Economic Policy and the ideas propounded by the 'Right Opposition', while lambasting the ossification of the Stalin, Khrushchev and Brezhnev eras, to compare the fates of the two men who, in this thesis, represented the two camps: Tomskii, former Chairman of the VTsSPS who took his own life to pre-empt being put on trial and shot as 'an enemy of the people' and Shvernik, First Secretary of VTsSPS from 1930 to 1944, subsequently Chairman of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet (i.e. head of State), buried with honour on Red Square with his bust proudly adorning the entrance to the Soviet trade union headquarters in Moscow.

One cannot help concluding that if this perestroika of Soviet industry is to be effective, many of the battles fought between these two styles of trade-union leadership will have to be re-fought, with possibly a different outcome.

As for socialist competition, Gorbachev has already spoken with approval of the cost accounting brigades. To make the movement into a genuine form of workers' management of production, one feels that he may have to go back even further - to the early shock brigades and communes - and that would be a mighty step.

APPENDIX A

WORKERS IN SOVIET INDUSTRY, 1928 - 1934: TOTAL NUMBERS

TABLE I - Average yearly totals (without trainees)

<u>Year</u>	<u>Absolute Nos. of Workers</u> (in large-scale industry)
1928	2,598,700
1929	2,860,920
1930	3,404,900
1931	4,167,300
1932	4,668,500
1933	4,576,400
1934	4,949,000

Sources: Narodnoe khozyaistvo SSSR, 1932, p.11.
Sotsialisticheskoe stroitel'stvo SSSR, 1934, pp.324-5
Trud v SSSR (1934) Ezhegodnik, p.3.

TABLE II - Average yearly totals (including trainees)

<u>Year</u>	<u>Absolute nos. of workers</u> (in large-scale industry)
1928	2,691,000
1929	2,923,300
1930	3,674,900
1931	4,619,100
1932	5,152,800
1933	4,915,500
1934	5,193,500

Source: Sotsialisticheskoe stroitel'stvo SSSR, 1936,
pp.XXVI-XXVII.

TABLE III - LABOUR TURNOVER IN SOVIET INDUSTRY, 1928-1934 (in % to av. no. of workers)

	<u>1928</u>		<u>1929</u>		<u>1930</u>		<u>1931</u>		<u>1932</u>		<u>1933</u>		<u>1934</u>	
	Arr.	Dep.	Arr	Dep										
1. All industry	100.8	92.4	122.4	115.2	176.4	152.4	151.2	136.8	127.1	135.3	124.9	122.4	100.5	96.7
2. Group 'A'	118.8	110.4	154.8	140.4	207.6	177.6	160.8	145.2	136.4	144.1	132.4	130.1	103.3	99.9
3. Group 'B'	79.2	72.0	84.0	86.4	129.6	115.2	133.2	124.8	111.0	119.8	111.9	109.2	95.9	91.2
4. Coal Mining	140.4	132.0	201.6	192.0	307.2	295.2	232.8	205.2	185.4	187.9	129.2	120.7	90.7	95.4
5. Oil Extractn	36.0	42.0	39.6	44.4	98.4	90.0	92.4	87.6	100.4	112.4	118.9	102.3	101.9	92.1
6. Iron & Steel	78.0	69.6	98.4	90.0	163.2	145.2	139.2	127.2	113.3	117.1	104.7	97.9	75.8	71.0
7. Engineering & metalworking	76.8	62.4	100.8	78.0	177.6	120.0	117.6	100.8	93.6	103.2	96.0	96.0	79.2	64.9
8. Iron Ore	160.8	141.6	249.6	219.6	301.2	288.0	277.2	249.6	176.1	198.7	170.5	154.2	123.1	111.5
9. Chemicals	112.0	107.3	122.9	110.7	190.1	159.0	148.1	126.2	129.7	131.8	127.9	114.4	91.3	78.5
10. Cotton	37.2	31.2	25.2	37.2	48.0	62.4	80.4	68.4	63.4	72.2	59.3	61.2	46.9	43.1

Source: Sotsialisticheskoe stroitel'stvo SSSR, 1936, p.531.

TABLE IV - MONTHLY PERCENTAGES OF WORKERS LEAVING JOBS IN SOVIET INDUSTRY,

1928-1934 (to av. no. of workers)

		<u>Jan</u>	<u>Feb</u>	<u>Mar</u>	<u>Apr</u>	<u>May</u>	<u>June</u>	<u>Jul</u>	<u>Aug</u>	<u>Sep</u>	<u>Oct</u>	<u>Nov</u>	<u>Dec</u>	<u>Av. for yr.</u>
1. ALL	1928	7.4	5.6	6.2	7.3	8.0	7.6	9.0	9.6	8.8	9.9	6.5	6.8	7.7
	1929	6.9	6.0	7.1	9.1	8.8	9.3	11.2	11.9	11.9	12.1	10.2	11.2	9.6
	1930	10.7	10.1	12.0	13.5	14.1	13.8	14.6	13.9	12.8	14.0	11.9	11.2	12.7
	1931	11.7	9.7	10.8	11.5	11.5	11.2	11.5	12.2	12.1	13.0	10.7	11.4	11.4
	1932	11.3	9.4	9.6	10.7	11.9	11.0	12.8	13.2	11.6	12.0	10.9	11.6	11.3
	1933	12.2	10.2	10.0	10.7	9.9	9.4	11.0	10.7	10.4	10.1	9.4	8.8	10.2
	1934	9.4	7.6	8.0	8.0	8.3	7.5	8.2	9.1	8.1	8.1	7.3	7.6	8.1
2. 'A'	1928	7.0	6.4	7.7	9.4	9.7	8.9	11.5	12.2	11.0	12.3	7.7	6.6	9.2
	1929	6.6	6.5	8.3	11.4	11.2	11.5	14.3	15.5	15.5	14.9	11.8	12.5	11.7
	1930	12.1	12.4	14.4	16.4	16.5	16.8	18.9	16.4	14.5	14.9	11.9	11.9	14.8
	1931	11.6	9.7	10.8	11.5	12.4	12.3	12.9	13.2	13.3	14.2	11.8	12.0	12.1
	1932	12.0	10.1	10.1	11.8	12.4	11.9	14.1	14.0	12.3	13.2	11.1	11.6	12.0
	1933	12.4	10.5	10.5	11.2	10.6	10.0	12.2	11.7	11.2	11.2	9.7	8.4	10.8
	1934	8.6	7.5	8.1	8.3	8.6	7.9	9.0	10.3	8.7	8.9	7.2	7.0	8.3
3. 'B'	1928	7.9	4.6	4.6	5.0	6.1	6.1	5.8	6.2	6.2	6.9	5.2	7.0	6.0
	1929	7.1	5.4	5.7	6.5	6.3	6.6	7.3	7.4	7.6	8.5	8.4	9.7	7.2
	1930	8.0	6.9	8.4	9.2	10.2	8.8	8.0	10.2	10.3	12.6	11.9	10.2	9.6
	1931	11.9	9.8	10.7	11.5	10.2	9.4	9.2	10.5	10.4	11.2	9.0	10.5	10.4
	1932	10.1	8.2	7.9	8.8	11.0	9.2	10.5	11.7	10.6	9.9	10.5	11.6	10.0
	1933	11.9	9.6	9.1	9.8	8.5	8.1	8.6	8.6	8.8	8.0	8.7	9.5	9.1
	1934	10.1	7.7	8.0	7.4	7.7	6.9	6.9	6.8	7.0	6.7	7.3	8.8	7.6

Sources: Sotsialisticheskoe stroitel'stvo SSSR, 1934, p.342; Trud v SSSR, 1934, p.137.

APPENDIX D

UNSANCTIONED ABSENTEEISM IN SOVIET INDUSTRY, 1928 - 1934.

(in days per worker)

	<u>1928</u>	<u>1929</u>	<u>1930</u>	<u>1931</u>	<u>1932</u>	<u>1933</u>	<u>1934</u>
All industry	5.72	4.09	4.49	5.96	5.96	0.93	0.67
Iron & steel	5.81	3.67	4.27	5.63	4.21	0.54	0.45
Engineering & metalwork	4.33	2.60	4.37	5.83	5.24	0.55	0.46
Coal mining	24.06	19.19	13.78	13.32	10.52	1.93	1.33
Chemicals	2.36	1.45	3.08	4.48	4.18	0.62	0.42
Food	2.48	1.59	2.43	3.91	3.85	0.76	0.55
Cotton	1.70	0.86	1.60	4.30	7.12	0.68	0.36
Wool	1.34	0.88	2.01	3.72	4.39	0.55	0.35
Wood	3.53	3.05	4.88	7.49	7.22	1.80	0.93
Paper	1.45	0.87	1.66	3.20	3.92	0.78	0.61
Clothing	3.58	1.81	2.54	3.53	4.50	0.67	0.49
Printing	2.30	1.43	2.36	3.32	3.86	0.33	0.29

Source: Sotsialisticheskoe stroitel'stvo SSSR, M, 1936, p.530.

APPENDIX E

SOME ESTIMATES OF TOTAL Nos. OF SHOCK WORKERS IN SOVIET INDUSTRY
1929 - 1935

<u>Date</u>	<u>Total no. of shock workers (in millions)</u>	<u>% to workers</u>	<u>% in soc. competition</u>
1.10.1929	0.29	10	-
1.1.1930	0.86	29	65
1.3.1930	1.80	55.5	72
1.5.1930	1.66	47.8	72.3
1.11.1930	1.94-2.01	48.9	58.1
1.1.1931	2.19-2.45	57.8	65.5
1.4.1931	2.72	64.2	71.3
1.5.1931	2.75	65.0	71.1
1.6.1931	2.87	65.4	71.3
1.10.1931	2.87	62.1	74.3
1.1.1932	3.04 -3.2	64.2	65.6
1.1.1933	3.10	66.0	71.3
1.1.1934	3.31	66.6	73.4
1.1.1935	3.37	65.0	72.1

Sources: Industrializatsiya SSSR, 1929-1932gg. p.516.
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Sotsialisticheskoe sorevnovanie v promyshlennosti SSSR
(1930), p. 23.
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