146 Slavic Review

than defended, is that "Marxist philosophy as a whole cannot transcend itself toward its own humanization, unless it changes its own fundamental presuppositions and thus stops being Marxist" (p. 31).

Except for a few minor errors (for example, Lenin's Materialism and Empirio-Criticism appeared in 1909, not in 1913), the essays are informative and were originally worth publishing. The studies of Kolman, Lukács, and Schaff show how each of these prominent Marxists tried unsuccessfully to humanize Marxism. The essay on Solzhenitsyn contrasts his humanism with Stalinist anti-humanism.

The scholarly reason for reprinting the five essays in this volume, however, remains obscure. The essays, which were independently written, do not form a tightly knit whole. With the exception of the piece on Schaff which was turned from a book review into an article, the essays were not revised. The repetitions have not been removed. Pertinent materials which have appeared since the essays were written—for example, Solzhenitsyn's *Gulag Archipelago*—were not considered. The author's observation, that "all attempts to humanize Marxism will be always threatened by the orthodox Stalinist ideologists and politicians" (p. 34), could probably have been cogently argued by going beyond the three instances covered in his previously published essays. He chose not to do this.

Reprinting one's articles in book form may be appropriate where the demand for them considerably exceeds their accessibility or where a position is coherently developed in successive essays. Unfortunately, neither justification is apparent in this case.

RICHARD T. DE GEORGE University of Kansas

EAST CENTRAL EUROPE BETWEEN THE TWO WORLD WARS. By Joseph Rothschild. A History of East Central Europe, vol. 9, edited by Peter F. Sugar and Donald W. Treadgold. Seattle and London: University of Washington Press, 1974. xvii, 420 pp. \$14.95, cloth. \$7.95, paper.

The introductory college course, variously known as World History or History of Western Civilization, does not include Europe's East Central or Eastern part even though a good portion of the material is devoted to Western Europe. More specialized history courses, covering select periods of European history, also seem not to treat the lands east of Germany as an integral part of Europe. The average college teacher in charge of such courses either claims that he does not know enough about the east or argues that the east is so different from the west as to be unsuited for treatment in a single course. One suspects that one of the reasons for which Professors Sugar and Treadgold launched this multivolume project was to help change the prevailing campus practice and to promote integration of teaching on East Central Europe within a European context.

East Central Europe between the Two World Wars, the first in a series, covers ten countries in eight chapters: Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Yugoslavia, Rumania, Bulgaria, Albania, and the Baltic states of Lithuania, Latvia, and Estonia. There is also an introduction and a separate "survey of culture." Of these ten countries, the last three named had previously been under the Russian Empire; Bulgaria and Albania had been under the Ottomans in the more distant past (as had the politically important parts of interwar Yugoslavia and Rumania); and five

Reviews 147

countries—Hungary, Czechoslovakia, Poland, Rumania, and Yugoslavia—were partly or wholly heirs of the Habsburg monarchy. The core of the book is about these five countries, and in this sense East Central Europe between the wars is the story of Austria's successor states. For this reason, the absence of Austria proper is to be regretted. Professor Rothschild justifies his decision by saying that the Austrian Republic "was not politically or economically or spiritually a part of the area," preoccupied as it was with the question of Anschluss. Such a total estrangement from the nations with which Austria had shared several centuries of common history prior to 1918 would have been in itself an intriguing problem to clarify, but one also wonders if the problematics of Anschluss should not have been a reason for including Austria in this book, which has as one of its underlying themes the varieties of nationalism inherited from the old monarchy. As all readers of Mein Kampf recall, there was also a German nationality problem under the Habsburgs, and what was Anschluss after 1918, but one of those inherited problems?

In addition to the problem of nationality and state, the book deals with the phenomenon of a political ruling class, the bureaucracy and its relation to the intelligentsia, and also with the political and socioeconomic problem of the peasantry. The actual treatment of these themes is neither rigid nor mechanical. Rather than following "symmetry" and giving standardized material in each chapter, Professor Rothschild has used Rumania for a "paradigmatic" treatment of Right-Radical movements (and correspondingly has said less on the Ustaša and the Arrow Cross in the chapters on Yugoslavia and Hungary); Bulgaria for the problems of peasant agriculture; Hungary for the impact of the depression on a "transitional" economy; Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia for the problems of multi-ethnicity; and Poland for the "structure and program of a 'government party.'" Any reader fearing that this is a license for molding historical reality to a preconceived design should be assured this has not happened. The chapter on Poland, for example, treats social and nationality problems quite extensively, while that on Hungary contains much else besides the impact of the depression. This original approach allows the author to engage in highly sophisticated and provocative analysis, while avoiding repetition, and thus sustains the reader's interest throughout. We are able to look at the area as a whole without recourse to comparative political, cultural, and economic statistics, and without losing sight of the nationally unique and specific. (Needless to say, another scholar might prefer a quite different approach, an area treatment of themes or problems, and this would be equally legitimate.)

The book is particularly strong on politics, whether parliamentary or dictatorial and authoritarian, and it also very skillfully shows how foreign policy influenced domestic policy. Especially valuable in this regard is Professor Rothschild's presentation on the impact of Germany's economic penetration of the area in the 1930s. The author recognizes the limits which demography and economy impose on the scope and results of political process. (Accordingly, tables containing electoral statistics alternate with those on urban/rural ratios in individual countries.) No one-way determinism is suggested, however, and Professor Rothschild has certainly avoided the error which he attributes to the Bulgarian peasant leader, Stamboliski, who "forgot that political power does not automatically grow out of demographic statistics." The tone and style of the book may be illustrated by the following comment on the Czech surrender in 1938: "There are, in the final anal-

148 Slavic Review

ysis, certain ultimate historical decisions that determine the moral even more than the material fate of future generations; such decisions the political leaders of even a small nation cannot 'rationally' or 'logically' abdicate to their Great Power patrons without simultaneously surrendering their own integrity." In another passage Rothschild observes: "What Beneš lacked, in the final recourse, was not analytical keenness but moral toughness."

A dimension of historical reality which has been charted out relatively less sharply is that zone between power politics and demography which includes cultural and educational traditions and institutions, peasant and labor organizations, the press, and so forth. The material contained in the chapter on culture might have been more effective if it had been parceled out among the national chapters, like the treatment given to politics and economics. Perhaps differences between individual countries, such as the absence or incidence of popular anti-Semitism, might be better understood if culture and society were given treatment equal to that given politics and economy.

In scope, depth of analysis, and, not the least, fairness and objectivity, this book has no rivals as far as the area of East Central Europe is concerned. It will certainly become required reading in all area-related courses, and one hopes that it will also win a place for itself on reading lists for courses in modern Europe, as well as for those diverse comparative, topical, or problem-oriented courses which are now taught under various auspices in different departments.

ROMAN SZPORLUK University of Michigan

ENVIRONMENTAL DETERIORATION IN THE SOVIET UNION AND EASTERN EUROPE. Edited by *Ivan Volgyes*. New York: Praeger Publishers, 1974. xvi, 168 pp. \$14.00.

While the momentum of the environmental movement in the West seems to have slowed a bit, it appears to be accelerating in Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union. This is to be applauded because the challenge there is as great or greater than that which exists in the West. Unfortunately, most Westerners are still uninformed about just how serious the problem is in Communist countries.

Environmental Deterioration in the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe, while repeating and even republishing much of the material that has become available about the Soviet Union, does offer some new material in English about Eastern Europe. The chapter by Gyorgy Enyedi is a forthright statement about conditions in Hungary. David Kromm reports on a public opinion survey which he supervised and which, among other things, revealed a striking awareness by low income residents of the pollution problem of Ljubljana, Yugoslavia. (It would be interesting to conduct a similar survey among low income residents of an American city for it is usually assumed that awareness of the problem among low income groups is relatively low.)

Leslie Dienes provides details for Hungary, Poland, and Czechoslovakia, and shows just how serious environmental disruption is in these three countries. For example, Budapest, as of 1972, dumped as much as two-thirds of its sewage into the Danube without even primary treatment. Furthermore, because most of the homes in Eastern Europe are heated with poor quality soft coal, the level of sulfur concentration in the air during the winter is far above the levels in most