

Wiles exerts every effort to make a mathematical topic accessible to the general scholarly reader. He uses no complex symbols—only basic arithmetic and simple triangles—and a bravura performance results.

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RUSSIAN TRANSPORT: AN HISTORICAL AND GEOGRAPHICAL SURVEY. Edited by *Leslie Symons* and *Colin White*. London: G. Bell & Sons, 1975. xxiv, 192 pp. Maps. Tables. £7.25, cloth. £3.50, paper.

The essays in this slim volume emerged from a colloquium held in Wales in 1972, and they make for specialized but interesting reading. The first essay is an analysis of the impact of Russian railway construction on the grain market in the 1860s and 1870s. It goes beyond R. M. Haywood's *Beginnings of Railway Development in Russia*—which dealt only with the first half of the nineteenth century—and demonstrates significant contrasts with the findings of Fogel, Fishlow, and others, concerning the role of railroads in the development of the United States. White finds that Russian railways facilitated grain exports, encouraged regional specialization in grain growing, and altered the domestic pattern of grain supply. In shifting traffic to the railroads, the time saved over shipping by water or cartage was a more important consideration than lower ton-mile charges. More broadly, railroads released labor from transport and agricultural sectors, thus making non-agricultural growth easier and more necessary. Indirectly, railroads were carriers for a grain "surplus," taken from the peasants and used to finance tsarist industrialization, as well as for the nobility's consumption.

The second contribution is a history of railways and economic development in Turkestan before 1917. The focus here is on promotion of cotton growing to supply the textile industry around Moscow with domestic fiber, and on hopes to bring grain to central Asia from the Volga valley and west Siberia. The volume also offers a review of the Soviet concept of a unified transport system and the contemporary role of the railways, by a thoughtful geographer; a description of the Soviet merchant marine; an update on the northern sea route by its chief Western analyst; and a sketch of Soviet air transport. The editors provide a nine-page introduction and a fifteen-page concluding essay, along with an index and a list of relevant dates.

Because the topic is important, interesting, and hitherto neglected, the book deserves a place in university and college libraries. The Russian and Soviet references following each chapter will be useful to serious students. This is a welcome addition to the sparse Western literature on Russian and Soviet transportation.

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THE FAMILY'S ROLE IN SOVIET EDUCATION. By *Ludwig Liegle*. Translated by *Susan Hecker*. Foreword by *Ure Bronfenbrenner*. New York: Springer Publishing Company, 1975. xiv, 186 pp. \$9.95, cloth. \$5.95, paper.

Originally published in 1970, this slim volume by Ludwig Liegle offers a concise and somewhat anti-Marxist-Engels view of contemporary Soviet society. The author focuses primarily on Soviet family life, the work careers of Soviet females,

and the intertwined relationship between the family and the state as competing educational institutions. He divides twentieth-century Soviet society into three phases: the early period of Marx-Engels formulations; 1917–36, when the Marx-Engels views on marriage, children, and the family were institutionalized; and 1936–68, when Soviet officials attempted to strengthen the family, raise the birth rate, lower the divorce rate, and more systematically incorporate the family into the educational process. The study is limited to data provided by official Soviet documents from the European part of the USSR, while data from Central Asian republics and the developing centers of Siberia is de-emphasized. The use of official statements corresponds with the decline of Khrushchev's influence in Soviet political circles.

Liegle observes wide gaps between espoused Marxist ideology and the everyday realities of family, female work, and the educational system. His conclusions may be briefly stated: Soviet society has failed to transfer the family's and the female's traditional household and educational activities to society at large. Married females, because of the high cost of living, are forced to work—usually up to forty hours a week—at jobs that are inferior to those given to males. Household work falls to the mother or wife, not the father or husband.

Soviets tend to prefer small families. Special taxes, awards, and benefits have failed to counter the dropping birth rate. This is due, in large part, to the play of diverse factors, such as cramped housing conditions, legalized abortions, role and identity ambiguities concerning the female's proper place in society, the difficulties of managing households in the absence of mechanical utilities, the decline in three-generation families (an automatic source of baby-sitters), and highly inconvenient shopping arrangements that require females to expend enormous amounts of time just waiting in lines to be served or sold household products which are overpriced but necessary. The Soviet female has rebelled against the general expectation that she be a child producer as well as a breadwinner.

Data, as recent as 1967, reveal deeply rooted stratification structures within Soviet society. Age, sex, place of origin, and the educational background of one's parents can severely restrict one's level of education, one's area of specialization, and one's prospects for receiving a doctorate. Like its Western counterpart, the Soviet educational system seems to mirror—to varying degrees—underlying social processes that belie the more benign implications of one ideology over another.

Attempts at comprehensive preschool education have failed, as have all-day schools and special boarding houses. Children over the age of seven attend school five days a week, for half-days only. They spend the remainder of their time either with their peer group, their families, or alone. Because parents exert enormous influence over their children, the state has recently attempted to co-opt parents into the educational system. Children's grades are posted in places of work for all parents to see and special courses for parents have been developed. It is estimated that slightly over 30 percent of all Soviet parents attempt to mold and socialize the ideal Soviet child held up by Marx and Engels.

Liegle's volume abounds with ample evidence of Soviet sexism, elitism, social inequities, deviance, alcoholism, and delinquency, and stresses the negative implications of the changes which have occurred over the past sixty years. It bears the tone of a touring journalist who happily reports back home about the disasters of the Soviet experiment. In some respects, the Soviets are responsible for any misinterpretations of their system. The dramatic practices of secrecy, the selective leaking of documents, the careful attempt to hide failures, and the continual inclina-

tion to cast the United States in a negative position all have promoted the conditions for the simultaneous production of a self-fulfilling and a self-defeating prophecy. The Western observer looks for those realities that conform to and confirm his own political and ideological prejudices. The Soviets act secretively and thereby set the mental stage for hostile reactions which, while self-fulfilling for the Westerner, become self-defeating for the Soviet state. Until a more open dialogue is promoted one can only predict that reports such as Liegle's, as well as those penned by well-placed Western journalists, will continue to fulfill and defeat the competing definitions of the Soviet situation.

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HANDBOOK OF MAJOR SOVIET NATIONALITIES. Edited by *Zev Katz*, *Rosemarie Rogers*, and *Frederic Harned*. New York and London: Free Press and Collier Macmillan, 1975. xiv, 481 pp. \$25.00.

This book was compiled at the Center for International Studies of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, under contract to the United States Information Agency. It is a reference book containing general information on the major national minorities of the USSR, including the fifteen giving their names to the union republics, the Tatars, and the Jews. The national minorities are grouped by geographical and/or cultural affinity—such as Slavs, the Baltic people, Transcaucasians, and Central Asians. The discussion of each of the ethnic groups follows a common outline, under the headings of general information (territory, economy, history, demography, culture, and external relations), media (language, education, culture, and scientific institutions), and national attitudes (including analysis of the formation of national attitudes and evidence of nationalism).

All of these topics are discussed for each nationality in relation to the Russians who, in 1970, constituted 53 percent of the population of the USSR. The Russians' majority in the population and their roles in the Bolshevik Revolution (and before that in tsarist Russia) apparently have been responsible for their current monopoly of the highly responsible positions at the federal level. Because of this situation, no aspect of the minorities' life can be discussed (in this book, in the USSR, and elsewhere) without reference to the favored position of the Russians and Moscow's attitude toward it. The vital question, one that concerns the future of the USSR as a multilingual and multicultural society, is the degree of change that will occur in the relationship between the minorities and the Great Russians in the future. For example, what will be the nature of the Russians' participation when they no longer constitute a majority of the population? Will the Russians dominate the party apparatus and the government as they are doing now, even when the necessary levels of education and loyalty are met by the minorities? These questions are not dealt with adequately in the volume. It is quite possible that before the end of this decade the Russians will be a minority in the Soviet Union and the minorities will have developed (judged by present demographic and educational trends) educationally to a level comparable with that of the Russians. How will the Soviet Union avoid conflicting situations among its nationalities, and for how long?

Another important problem, which gets only passing discussion in this book, is the underemployment and unemployment of minorities, especially in the rural areas of Central Asia. What are the consequences of mass unemployment of rural Central Asians? Will there be forced evacuation of these people to the less populated areas of the USSR? Or will restrictions be put on immigration from areas