

The History of the Twentieth Century

Episode 187

“1919 – The Caucasus”

Transcript

[music: Fanfare]

In the aftermath of the October Revolution, three newly independent states appeared in the Caucasus region, even before three comparable newly independent states appeared in the Baltic region.

But history was not as kind to the Caucasian states as she was to the Baltic States, and their autonomy would soon be snuffed out.

Welcome to *The History of the Twentieth Century*.

[music: Opening Theme]

Episode 187. 1919 – The Caucasus.

This is the twelfth episode of our 1919 World Tour, and our fifth set in the former Russian Empire. Today I'll begin by talking about the Caucasus region, then we'll begin considering post-Civil War Russia.

Last week, we saw the endgame of the Russian Civil War. The Whites failed, and in March 1920, the last significant White army, commanded by Anton Denikin, executed a hasty and disorganized retreat by sea from Novorossiysk, one that left most of the army behind to be captured by the Reds.

Afterward, the White movement was down to an army of about 34,000 in Crimea, now commanded by Pyotr Wrangel. Wrangel's army was at this point no more than a thorn in the side of the government in Moscow, although he managed to make the most of it, holding out through most of the year before evacuating the peninsula, making it into the “Crimean ulcer,” as one Soviet official in Moscow called it.

The evacuation of the White army from the Kuban region exposed the lands farther south, the Caucasus region, to the Red Army for the first time in two years. We've talked about this region

before, as it was on the front lines of the Great War, when the Russian Army of the Caucasus confronted the Ottoman Empire, but now it's time to return for another look.

Human beings have lived in the Caucasus for hundreds of thousands of years. And proto-humans for hundreds of thousands of years before that. In fact, the earliest evidence of human habitation outside Africa was found in the Caucasus.

As a side note, in the late 18th century, anthropologists began dividing the human race into subgroups denoted Negroid, Mongoloid, and Caucasoid, based on physical characteristics, especially bone structure, since bones are what anthropologists mostly have to work with. In more recent times, especially after the introduction of genetics, these designations have fallen out of favor, though some anthropologists still do use them. In this context, "Caucasoid" has little to do with the Caucasus, just as "Mongoloid" has little to do with Mongolia. But I mention this because in the United States, it is common to find the word "Caucasian" used as a genteel alternative to "white," in the racial sense. That is, "descended from European ancestors." It is common, but it is also peculiar, since the word "Caucasian" otherwise means someone or something from the Caucasus region. And I should note that the anthropological term "Caucasoid" does not take skin color into account, since anthropologists work with bones, not skin, and it includes many peoples who are not usually regarded as "white," such as the peoples of northern and eastern Africa, the Middle East, and South Asia. To use the word "Caucasian" to mean "white" is illogical and confusing, but since I can't tell everyone in America to stop using it that way, I'll have to settle for emphasizing that this is a separate usage unrelated to the Caucasus as a mountain range or a geographical region, so keep that in mind as we forge ahead.

In the days after the October Revolution, when the new Bolshevik government issued its decree on "The Rights of the Peoples of Russia to Self-Determination," the peoples of the Caucasus took them up on the offer and declared an independent state called the "Transcaucasian Democratic Federative Republic," which didn't last very long before breaking apart into Georgia, Armenia, and Azerbaijan. We saw this in episode 157.

Of these three, Armenia is the oldest state. There was an Armenia in ancient times, extending south into what is in our era Turkey and Iran. Ancient Armenia was the principal power in the region and it sat on the borders of the Roman and Persian Empires and served at various times as a buffer state, a protectorate, or sometimes an occupied territory of one or the other. Armenians practiced Zoroastrianism at first, until the year 301, when Armenia became the first nation in the world to adopt Christianity as its state religion. The Roman Empire was the second.

Armenia was eventually partitioned between the Roman and Persian Empires and ceased to be a political power in the region, though of course the Armenian people continued on, ruled at various times and places by the Persians, the Byzantines, the Arabs, the Turks, and the Mongols.

North of ancient Armenia, and spanning the region between the Black Sea and the Caspian Sea lay three other ancient kingdoms: from west to east, Lazica, or Colchis, Iberia, and Albania. And

yes, there are other, unrelated places in Europe called “Iberia” and “Albania.” This Iberia and Albania are sometimes called “Caucasian Iberia” and “Caucasian Albania,” just for clarity. These peoples were also Zoroastrians in the old days. Lazica and Iberia followed the lead of Armenia and became Christian in the fourth century, while Albania, farther east and closer to Persia, experienced only limited Christian influence. In the Middle Ages, Lazica and Iberia combined into a united kingdom that we English speakers call Georgia.

And yes, that’s also the name of a US state, but Caucasian Georgia had it first, so no complaints from you folks in Atlanta, though why people have to keep taking Caucasian place names and repurposing them for other peoples and other places remains a mystery to me, anyway. Medieval Georgia was the principal power in the region for a time, but eventually it fell under Turkish and Persian domination. Farther east, ancient Albania fell under Persian control, then was conquered by the Arabs and became Muslim along with Persia, then became Shiite Muslim, along with Persia.

In the 19th century, the Russian Empire expanded southward into the Caucasus following a series of conflicts with Iran and the Ottoman Empire, until all of Georgia, much of the Iranian province of Azerbaijan, and a portion of historic Armenia came under Russian rule.

The October Revolution then led to the creation of the Transcaucasian Republic, with first Georgia, then Azerbaijan seceding from it, leaving an Armenian state. The appearance of these three states was an historic moment. Here were the first independent Georgian and Armenian states since the Middle Ages, and the first Azeri independent state since...ever.

You might be tempted to compare these three states to the three Baltic States. Each Caucasian state has a population comparable to any of the Baltic States and a land area about twice that of any of the Baltic States. So why were the Baltic States able successfully to assert and defend their independence, while the Caucasian states were not? The answer to this question, like most questions, is...history.

The Baltic States were wedged between Russia and Germany, two empires that were collapsing. And they had the support of the British, who could access the Baltic by sea, and they had support from Poland. The Caucasian states were wedged between Russia and Turkey, two empires that were collapsing, except that this region was more isolated geographically from the Allies. And they had the curse of great mineral wealth. We saw in episode 167 how Russia’s exit from the Great War led to a free-for-all in which German, British, and Turkish troops all entered the newly independent Caucasian states, invited by some of the inhabitants, not so welcome by some of the others. German and Turkish soldiers even fired on each other, despite officially being allies. That’s what happens to people when you dangle oil wells in front of them.

That was 1918. Later in the year, the Armistice of Mudros was signed, and as part of the terms, the Ottoman Empire agreed to withdraw its forces from the Caucasus. Then *the* Armistice was

signed, and Germany withdrew from Georgia, where it had stationed soldiers. The British had a small force in Baku, which withdrew a few months later.

So by January 1919, you might think the future looks bright for these three new states. While it's true that neither the Red nor White sides in the Russian Civil War accepted the independence of the Caucasian states, there was nothing the Reds could do about it, so long as Denikin's army was in the way. And Denikin had his hands full dealing with the Reds; he was in no position to assert anything over the Caucasus, though there was some friction between Denikin's Whites and independent Georgia over access to the Black Sea.

So the year 1919 could have given the Caucasian states some breathing room to build and organize themselves. But the opportunity was lost, frittered away in conflicts among themselves. These three nations and the peoples they represent did not get along. There were a variety of historical and cultural grievances, amplified by the fact that these three nations did not have clearly defined borders. Baku, the capital of Azerbaijan, had a substantial Armenian population, as did Tbilisi, the capital of Georgia. And so on. Try to draw borders that can fix that. These three countries spent 1919 fighting among themselves over where their borders should lie.

Also, a sense of nationalism was not highly developed among these countries. The 19th century marked the development of nationalism and we've seen in this podcast how that affected the history of the early twentieth century. But nationalism was a European ideal and even by 1919 it had not penetrated to every corner of the world. It will; just give it time. But many Georgians and Azeris and Armenians were still getting accustomed to thinking of their peoples and their ethnic identities as representing nations. In recent centuries they had known only shahs and sultans and emperors ruling their lands from distant palaces in faraway capitals. Self-determination, the idea that we can govern our own lands and our own lives, was still a novel concept. And the Allies were reluctant to recognize Georgia or Azerbaijan against the will of the White government in Russia.

Armenia was a different matter. The mass killings of Armenians by Turks before and during the Great War shocked the consciences of the Allied leaders, and in 1919, they went into the Paris Peace Conference determined that Armenians should no longer have to live under Turkish rule. Italian prime minister Vittorio Orlando declared, "Say to the Armenians that I make their cause my cause." US Secretary of State Robert Lansing wrote that the killings were "one of the blackest pages in the history of this war." Georges Clemenceau asked rhetorically, "Is it true that at the dawn of the twentieth century, five days from Paris, atrocities have been committed with impunity...such that one cannot imagine worse in time of the deepest barbarity?" And David Lloyd George grandly vowed that "our essential condition of the peace we should impose was the redemption of the Armenian valleys forever from the bloody misrule with which they had been stained by the infamies of the Turks."

In May of 1919, Woodrow Wilson agreed that the United States would take on the responsibility of a mandate in Armenia, subject, of course, to the approval of the US Senate. We haven't had a chance to talk about mandates yet. They were all the rage in 1919. That's a topic I want to take up two episodes from now, when we turn to Africa and consider the disposition of the German colonies there. How the Allies are going to treat with the defeated Ottoman Empire is a whole other topic that we'll take on after those two Africa episodes, and the tale of Woodrow Wilson, the Treaty of Versailles, and the United States Senate is a whole other other topic we'll discuss when we get to the United States, which will be at some time farther down the road.

For now, I'll just say that the Peace Conference would take until August of 1920 to bang out the Treaty of Sèvres, the last of the five peace treaties to be drafted at the conference and the one that would conclude peace with the Ottoman Empire. The United States was not a party to this treaty because, remember, the United States never declared war on the Ottoman Empire in the first place. But the Wilson Administration was involved in drawing the border through Turkish Anatolia that would have granted a substantial portion of what is today northeastern Turkey to the proposed Armenian state that would also be a US mandate. This Armenia would also have included a portion of the old Russian Empire. It would have had a population of over four million, of whom about 2.5 million, or about 60%, would be ethnic Armenians.

But the treaty was not signed until August of 1920, and by then it was already too late. The US Senate had already rejected the Versailles Treaty and the American mandate. More important was the fact that the western Allies were far away. All their fine pronouncements about what they were going to do for the Armenians ran contrary to the uncomfortable truth that in 1919 Russia and Turkey had been helpless. In 1920, that was no longer the case.

March 27, 1920 was the day of the disorganized and semi-disastrous White Army evacuation by sea from the Black Sea port of Novorossiysk to the Crimea. This withdrawal opened the path for the Red Army to march on the Caucasus. To the west, in Anatolia, a new Turkish nationalist government was rising that would defy the treaty agreements and resist the Allies. And these two governments, in Moscow and Angora, one Bolshevik, the other Turkish nationalist, might have been ideological opponents but by summer of 1920, they could both see the value in working together to undermine the Allies' designs in the region.

With regard to Russia, you might wonder why it was that by this time, Moscow had already conceded the independence of Finland, Poland, Lithuania, Latvia, and Estonia, to its west, but was not ready to concede the independence of Armenia or Azerbaijan or Georgia or the North Caucasus Republic to its south. There were a number of reasons for this. One was that a few high-ranking Bolsheviks came from this region themselves, most notably Joseph Stalin, who was Georgian. A second reason was all that mineral wealth. Remember when Trotsky maintained that controlling Baku was more important than controlling Moscow?

The Bolsheviks were not great respecters of nationalism, or “bourgeois nationalism” as they called it. And the fact that the new Caucasian states had emerged as British, German, and Turkish soldiers were marching into the region only further convinced the Bolsheviks that these new states were merely outposts of the imperialist powers. Stalin described his own homeland, Georgia, as “the kept woman of the Entente.”

So in March, even as Denikin’s forces were evacuating, Red Army command was already planning the occupation of the Caucasus. In April, Bolsheviks in Baku rose up against the nationalist Azerbaijani government and asked for Red Army intervention. They got it, and by the end of the month, the Azerbaijani Socialist Soviet Republic had been declared.

There followed a lull afterward. Both the Polish Army and White Army in Crimea went on the offensive that spring. In May, Moscow signed a peace treaty with Georgia, and the Caucasus went quiet for a few months. In September, though, just a month after the Ottoman government in Constantinople signed the Treaty of Sèvres, the Turkish nationalist government in Angora invaded the would-be Armenian state on its eastern border. The Turks advanced rapidly into what was supposed to be Armenia. The Armenian nationalist government collapsed and here Bolsheviks took over as well. Pressured by the Red Army in neighboring Azerbaijan, the Armenians agreed to join Soviet Russia, in exchange for Russian protection for at least part of eastern Armenia. It wasn’t much of a choice, but it was their only choice. Three months later, in February 1921, the Red Army invaded Georgia, in violation of their treaty that was not yet a year old. A few months later, Soviet Russia and the Republic of Turkey concluded the Treaty of Kars, in which Russia conceded essentially all the territory in the region that had been taken from Turkey after the Russo-Turkish war of 1877, including significant Armenian and Georgian territories, leaving behind only a small rump Armenia to become, like Georgia, a Soviet republic.

It has to be acknowledged that the takeover of these countries by Soviet Russia was supported by a significant part of their populations. Some were ethnic Russians and other minorities uncomfortable with the new nationalist states. And these states had their share of socialist true believers among the working class who saw union with Soviet Russia as more in line with their interests.

As for the Allied vision of an independent Armenia, it was stillborn, a victim of the hard reality that the Turkish nationalists were unwilling to accept Allied dictates and the Allies lacked the military might to enforce their will. The Allied attention to the plight of the Armenians likely did more harm than good in the end. It encouraged an assertion of Armenian nationalism that neither the Allies nor the Armenians themselves could defend and merely brought more suffering down upon that already long-suffering people.

[music: Tchaikovsky, *Symphony No. 5*]

The communist government in Moscow was always the favorite to win the Civil War, but there were a couple of close calls there. Particularly the autumn of 1918, when the rump Constituent

Assembly came together in Samara and the Siberian Provisional Government emerged in Omsk. And of course in October 1919, when Denikin was closing on Moscow and Yudenich was approaching Petrograd.

At that latter moment of crisis, October 1919, the Red Army was about 2,500,000 strong, far larger than the armies opposing it. A year later, after the crisis had passed and Bolshevik rule appeared secure, the Red Army numbered over five million, double the size.

This may seem surprising at first, but with the power of the White movement broken, the Red Army now had to move into the vast regions of Russia the Whites formerly had controlled. In terms of land area, it was three or four times larger than what the Red Army controlled in 1919. It also meant asserting control over tens of millions more people, most of whom were *not* ethnic Russians. And the Red Army did have that war with Poland in 1920, episode 180.

Winning control of Russia was one thing. Maintaining it was something else, and that's why a large Red Army was required. There would be peasant rebellions for several more years. In Central Asia, the Turkic peoples of the region would fight a low-grade guerilla war against Moscow for a few more years. It would also take years for Moscow to expand its control over Siberia all the way to Vladivostok. The Czechoslovak Legion finally got to go home in September 1920, more than two years after they first rose up against the Bolsheviks because they wanted to, you know, go home. Allied troops in Siberia also went home in 1920, except for the Japanese. The Japanese government didn't give up on Siberia until 1922.

So there were good reasons to maintain a large Red Army. On the other hand, the economic burden lay heavily upon an economy that was positively dismal.

The sad state of the Russian economy had begun with the burdens of the Great War. The wretched economy had triggered the revolution, and then came civil war. By 1920, the Russian economy was an absolute shambles, a collapse unprecedented in the history of the modern world, and yet the government still demanded the resources to maintain an army of five million. Government confiscation of grain harvests to feed the cities had become a feature of life in Soviet Russia, with the result that peasants simply stopped growing food. What was the point of putting in all that labor in the fields, if the end result is going to be merely that Red Guards come and confiscate the harvest?

The government in Moscow pondered this problem and came up with a solution. No, it wasn't to end grain confiscations. It was to create "sowing committees." These sowing committees would fan out across rural Russia to distribute seed grain for the 1921 planting season. They would also lecture the rural peasants, educating them on the need to increase food production. How can we expect laborers to fix the railroads or coal miners to get back to the mines or factory workers to get the factories running again if they have no food to eat? Surely anyone could see that improving the harvests was a prerequisite to any other economic growth. In other words, plant to benefit the state, that you might in turn enjoy the stronger economy.

And if that didn't work, there was always coercion. The sowing committees did not have the power to punish peasants themselves, but they were instructed to warn the peasants that being lazy and failing to contribute one's fair share of labor to the success of the socialist state was a form of sabotage, a criminal act, that would be referred to the courts for prosecution.

As for industry, all large industrial operations were taken over by the state and in 1920 the decision was taken that even small businesses had to become state enterprises. The Civil War had caused shortages which led to inflation in the Russian economy. In 1920, the government gleefully embraced inflation as the tool that would bring down capitalism and usher in a cashless economy.

But the single biggest problem facing the post-war Russian government was rebuilding. Homes, factories, railroads, telegraph lines, roads. The damage done by years of warfare had to be repaired. Trotsky experimented with converting underused military units into labor battalions to begin this work and advanced the theory, quickly embraced by Bukharin and Lenin, that in the socialist economy, workers were like soldiers, to be directed by the state to where they were most needed. The instrument for organizing soldiers and sending them to their assignments was the army. The instrument for organizing workers and sending them to their assignments would be the trade union. Under capitalism, trade unions were a means for workers to defend their interests against the bourgeois state. Under socialism, though, workers controlled the state; therefore the unions must themselves be controlled by the state. Because we're all on the same page now, right?

But while 1920 saw the last of the organized resistance against the Russian government peter out, spontaneous peasant revolts were breaking out across the country. Dozens of them. The Civil War was over, yet the grain expropriations continued. When was it going to end? The peasants began to resist. The Red Guards responded with violence. Peasants fought back.

The winter of 1920-21 saw the same kinds of shortages of food and fuel that had plagued Russians during the Great War and the Civil War, and now it was urban Russians who wanted to know why, with the fighting over, the suffering remained. In Petrograd, in February of 1921, strikes and protests broke out.

This was serious business for the government. Petrograd had been the cradle of revolution in Russia past. Would it be again?

The unrest grew, until it came to the attention of the sailors and workers at the Russian naval base at Kronstadt, outside Petrograd. If you think back to our episodes on the Russian Revolution, you'll recall that the sailors at Kronstadt figured prominently in several of them. Those sailors had helped start the February Revolution, and afterward had been the backbone of the rising Bolshevik movement and had helped support the takeover of the Provisional Government during the October Revolution.

On March 1, sailors and workers at Kronstadt voted to support the strikers in Petrograd. They issued a series of demands, including freedom of speech, the right to assemble, and new elections to the soviets. They even embraced and repurposed the old slogan, “All Power to the Soviets,” and spoke of a “third revolution,” following the February and October Revolutions of 1917.

The Commissar of the Baltic Fleet, a man named Nikolai Kuzmin, attended the meeting and, unhappy with the outcome, threatened the sailors with discipline. They arrested him. Government officials began arresting sailors from Kronstadt in retribution.

A standoff ensued, that lasted a few days. Over ten thousand sailors and their supporters holed up on the island base and prepared to defend themselves. The government refused to negotiate, claiming the whole thing was a counterrevolutionary plot masterminded by the French. Trotsky issued a deadline for them to surrender. When they didn't, Red Army units commanded by Mikhail Tukhachevsky fired artillery and stormed the base. There were thousands of casualties on both sides, but Kronstadt was secured. Thousands were taken prisoner; many were sent to labor camps in Siberia, where most died. Petrograd was placed under martial law.

The Kronstadt Rebellion was defeated, but the unrest lived on. It was time for Lenin and his government to face a few awkward facts. When the war was on, first the Great War, then the Civil War, the government inevitably had to seize control of most of the economy to build and supply a mass army. Even the capitalist nations had done that. But “War Communism,” as it came to be called, was easy enough to defend so long as there was a war on, but impossible to justify once there was peace.

The Bolsheviks had never considered this problem before, because they fully expected that their revolution would have prevailed across the world by now. But the Civil War was over, Russia was at peace with Poland and with Germany and with the Entente, and it was time to face a difficult reality: the socialist revolution had failed everywhere except Russia. Now the communist leadership in Moscow looked ahead to a future, not in which socialism triumphs and nation-states become obsolete, but in which Russia was the world's solitary socialist outpost, an island in a sea of retrograde capitalism, at least for the foreseeable future. What did that even mean? How would Russia function? How would it rebuild?

In the spring of 1921, Lenin unveiled the New Economic Policy, a drastic change in Moscow's approach to rebuilding Russia. Capitalism would be reintroduced. A certain controlled amount of capitalism that is, carefully regulated by the state. Large industrial operations would continue to be state owned, but profit incentives would be reintroduced. Small manufacturing could be privately owned. The policy of deliberately inflating the ruble as a way of eliminating money was also reversed, in favor of hard currency. As for the rural peasants, instead of expropriations, they would pay taxes in kind, a percentage of their harvests. It would be a large percentage, but the point was, the harder they worked and the more they produced, the more they got to keep.

It was, in a nutshell, state capitalism. Lenin made no bones about that, nor did he deny that it was in some sense a step backward. State capitalism, as Lenin conceived it, was the final stage of capitalism before the advent of socialism. Regrettable perhaps, but a necessary interlude. Sometimes you have to take one step back before you can take two steps forward.

The communists also learned a thing or two about how to deal with Russia's unhappy minorities after their early mistakes. They loosened the rules on local communist parties in minority regions and allowed for a little more autonomy. After two unsuccessful attempts, a Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic was up and running by 1920, as was a new Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic after the peace with Poland was negotiated, dividing the territory of Belarus between Poland and Russia. In December 1922, these two republics, plus the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic and the Transcaucasian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic, which was in turn made up of Armenia, Georgia, and Azerbaijan, came together to form the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, restructuring the Russian Empire into something that could at least claim to be a little more decentralized and a little more respectful of minority rights.

So some liberalization of the economy. Some liberalization of minority policy. As for the other demands of the Kronstadt Rebellion—freedom of speech, the right of assembly, in short, liberalization of the political system—forget it. There would be no liberalization on this front. Not for a very, very, very long time.

We'll have to stop there for today. Thank you for listening, and I'd especially like to thank Mr. Bianchi Rider for his donation, and thank you, Charles, for becoming a patron of the podcast. Donors and patrons help keep the words flowing and the bits going, so if you'd like to help out, visit the website, historyofthetwentiethcentury.com, and click on the PayPal or Patreon buttons.

While you're there, you can leave a comment and let me know what you thought about today's show. I also post playlists of the music used on the podcast, along with composer credits and other information, so if you hear a piece of music you'd like to know more about, that's the place to look. Most of the music I use is free and downloadable, and you'll also find links to sites where you can download the full piece, if you like.

And I hope you'll join me next week, here on *The History of the Twentieth Century*, for one last episode on what is now the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. We'll look more closely at the New Economic Policy and the final days of Lenin's rule. That's next week, on *The History of the Twentieth Century*.

Oh, and one more thing. I have to amend what I just said about the USSR being the world's only socialist state. This is not technically accurate. By 1924, there were in fact two other socialist states.

At the beginning of the twentieth century, Outer Mongolia was understood to be part of the Chinese Empire. During the 1911 revolution in China, Imperial Russia encouraged a separatist

movement in Tuva, a region of northwestern Mongolia. In 1912, Russia recognized both Tuva and Mongolia as independent states and made Tuva a Russian protectorate. Tuva was part of the territory governed by Alexander Kolchak during the Civil War. Afterward, the Red Army took control of Tuva and in 1921 it was reorganized as the Tuvan People's Republic, though the non-communist world did not recognize Tuvan independence. Other countries regarded Tuva as a Soviet-occupied Chinese territory.

As for the rest of Outer Mongolia, the Chinese Army re-occupied Mongolia during the Russian Civil War, until 1920 when a White Army commander, a Baltic German aristocrat named Roman Fyodorovich von Ungern-Sternberg, led a White Army force of about a thousand soldiers into Mongolia. They seized the Mongolian capital, Urga, and forced the Chinese out of the country. Ungern supported the local Mongolian civil and religious leader, the Bogd Khan, in the creation of an independent theocratic Mongolian monarchy.

There was at this time a substantial community of pro-Bolshevik Russian refugees in Mongolia, who were then persecuted by Ungern and his White Army soldiers. The Bolsheviks, in Mongolia and in Russia, helped set up a Mongolian People's Party and a provisional government in opposition to the White-supported government in Urga, and in 1921, the Red Army marched into Mongolia, captured Ungern and his troops, and handed over rule to the Mongolian People's Party, though Bogd Khan remained the nominal ruler until his death in 1924. Afterward, the nation was reorganized as the Mongolian People's Republic, although again, the non-communist world did not recognize the new nation, regarding it as occupied Chinese territory.

So, two additional socialist states, though tucked away in one of the most remote and sparsely populated regions of the world and lacking diplomatic recognition from anyone except the USSR and each other; they would mostly be overlooked by the rest of the world for the next 25 years.

[music: Closing Theme]