

Mission Atlas Project

Russia

Russian Federation

Basic Facts

Name

The short form of the country name is Russia, locally called *Rossiya*. The long form name is the Russian Federation, or *Rossiya Federatsiya* locally. The country has previously been known as the Russian Empire and the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic.

Population

The July 2001 population was estimated at 145,470,197, which is the fifth largest population in the world behind China, India, the United States, and Indonesia.

The population age breakdown is 17.41% between the ages of 0 – 14, 69.78% between ages 15 – 64, and 12.81% age 65 or older. The population growth rate is –0.35%. The life expectancy for a male is 62.12 years and 72.83 for a female. The population is unevenly dispersed with the majority of the people living in western Russia, the European part. The rugged and remote areas of the east are more sparsely populated.

Area

Russia has an area of 10,672,000 sq. miles (17,075,200 sq. km.) and stretches from Europe to the North Pacific Ocean. Russia is slightly less than 1.8 times the size of the United States.

Many divide Russia into four different land regions. The tundra area is the northernmost part of Russia. It is a treeless plain, with short summers and long severe winters. Half of the tundra region has permanently frozen soil called *permafrost*. Few people live in the tundra region. The forest belt is south of the tundra and it contains many coniferous trees like cedar, fir, pine, and spruce. The grassy plains called steppes are south of the forest region. This area has the best soil in Russia and is used for the majority of farming. The semidesert and mountainous zone is the southernmost zone and includes a diversity of soils. It is in this area that the Caucasus Mountains are found.

From east to west, Russia is divided into five regions. The European Plain is located in the European part of Russia and is the most densely populated area. Most of the industries are located in the European plain and Mount Elbrus, the highest point in Europe, is also located there. The Ural Mountains are the traditional boundary between Europe and Asia and are rich in mineral deposits. The West Siberian Plain covers 1 million square miles and is the largest level region in the world. The plain is rich in oil and natural gas deposits. The Central Siberian Plateau is the next region with thick forests and extreme hot and cold temperatures. The East Siberian Uplands is the final region, which is a wilderness of mountains and plateaus. The mountains in this region rise to over 10,000 feet.

Economy

The Soviet Union planned most aspects of economic life. The government owned and controlled all factories and farms, as public owned businesses were illegal. The Soviet Union changed Russia from an agricultural based economy to an industrial giant. The heavy industries of chemicals, construction, machine tools, and steel developed rapidly. The economy grew rapidly during this time, but once it developed, government control stifled new ideas and discouraged quality.

After the Soviet Union collapsed, the economy was in a state of disorder. Russia inherited the problems of the former Soviet Union and has been in the process of converting state owned businesses into privately owned businesses. About two-thirds of the state owned businesses had been privatized by the mid 1990's. The government lifted price controls and ended the official exchange rate of the ruble. Prices soared and wages decreased. Industrial output also decreased and inflation rose.

Russia has one of the best natural resources of any country in the world. They have the world's largest forest reserves, energy supplies, large farming areas, many mineral deposits, and many sources of hydroelectric power.

Heavy industry is the highest developed sector of the Russian economy. Most industry is concentrated in Moscow and St. Petersburg. They make tractors, other heavy machinery, and electrical equipment. Moscow is Russia's leading industrial center.

Farmland equates to 13% of Russia's land. Russia is one of the world's largest producers of grain, but they must still import grain to meet their needs. Russia also produces iron ore and has huge deposits of coal, petroleum, and natural gas.

Today, Russia's major trading partners include the other former Soviet Republics, China, Germany, Italy, Japan, the United Kingdom, and the United States. Russia exports petroleum, natural gas, minerals, machinery, chemicals, and paper products. Major imports include consumer goods, food and beverages, industrial equipment, and machinery.

Government

After the breakup of the Soviet Union, Boris Yeltsin was elected president of Russia in 1991. Russia adopted a new constitution and established a permanent government in 1993.

The Russian president is elected by the people for a term of four years and serves as Russia's chief executive. The president, with the approval of the lower house, appoints a prime minister to serve as the head of government.

Russia's parliament, called the Federal Assembly, consists of a lower house with 450 members called the *Duma* and a 178-member upper house called the Federation Council. The *Duma* members are elected to four-year terms. The Federation Council is comprised of local government officials, such as regional governors and leaders of local assemblies. All Russian citizens over 18 years old are allowed to vote.

Russia is divided into 49 smaller administrative units called *oblasts* and 6 sparsely settled territories called *krais*.

The Soviet Union had the largest armed forces in the world. About 4 million people served in the army, navy, and air force. When the Soviet Union collapsed, leadership of the military fell into the hands of the Commonwealth of Independent States. In 1992, Russia began to formulate its own military and absorbed part of the former

Soviet Union military. About 1 million men serve in Russia's military and Russian men must serve 2 years.

Society

Russia has undergone many changes since the breakup of the Soviet Union. The government once controlled many areas of society, but now Russians have new freedoms and this has triggered many changes in their society.

Almost $\frac{3}{4}$ of all Russians live in cities. Russia has 35 different cities with a population over 500,000. Moscow and St. Petersburg each have over four million inhabitants. During the 1930's, many people began migrating from the rural areas into urban areas. The devastation from World War II caused many houses and buildings to be destroyed creating a housing shortage that continues today. Most Russian cities are crowded. Many people live in small apartments in high-rise buildings. Some families are forced to share kitchen and bathroom facilities. Single-family housing is common in small towns and in the outskirts of the larger cities, but many of these homes lack modern conveniences like indoor plumbing.

Shortages of food, services, and manufactured goods have been commonplace in Russia and the move toward capitalism has not yet cured these shortages. Even when goods are available, they are often too expensive for many people to afford. Russian cities face the issues of crime and pollution that many large cities also face.

Most rural people once worked on government owned farms, but these farms have since been broken up and people are now allowed to own private farms. Single-family housing is common in rural areas, but there are some city style apartment buildings constructed by the Soviet Union. In the remote areas, some homes lack gas, plumbing, running water, and electricity. Rural society has undergone some change since the breakup of the Soviet Union as many rural stores are providing a wider selection of goods.

Russians enjoy watching television, reading, playing chess, seeing motion pictures and plays, visiting museums, walking, and playing sports. Soccer is the most popular participant and spectator sport in Russia. Other popular sports include gymnastics, basketball, hockey, ice skating, and skiing. Tennis is also growing in popularity.

Public education is free for all citizens and almost all Russians are literate. New private schools are now being opened; these had been banned by the Soviet Union. All children attend school between the ages of 6 and 17. When students finish ninth grade, they can either attend a secondary school or vocational school. In Russia, English is the most commonly taught foreign language. Starting in the intermediate grades, students must pass annual exams to be promoted to the next grade. An examination is given at the end of the secondary education and those who pass are awarded a certificate. Those who do exceptionally well on the exam are given a gold or silver medal.

Language

Russian is the official language of Russia. The language has three major accents: northern, southern, and central. The small differences in dialects do not interfere with understanding. Russian is written using the Cyrillic alphabet.

Urbanization

It is listed that 73% of all Russians live in urban areas. The largest cities include Moscow, St. Petersburg, Nizhny Novgorod, Novosibirsk, and Yekaterinburg.

Literacy

Of the total population, 98% over 15 can read and write. This figure includes 100% of men and 97% of women as literate.

Religion

The Russian Orthodox Church is the largest religious denomination in the country. January 7th is the Russian Orthodox Christmas and is celebrated as a national holiday.

Other religions recognized by the government and given full freedom include Russian Orthodox, Buddhism, Islam, Judaism, and certain Christian denominations. These groups are considered traditional in Russia because they were recognized by the state 15 years ago.

Religious groups that have not registered with the state for at least 15 years face certain restrictions on their freedom. These groups include Baptists, Pentecostals, Seventh-day Adventists, Roman Catholics, and Mormons. These groups must register annually with the government for 15 years before they will be allowed to do certain activities such as publish religious literature and operate religious schools.

Brief History of Russia

Early History

Beginning in 1200 B.C., the Cimmerians, a Balkan people, inhabited the area just north of the Black Sea in what is now southern Ukraine. In 700 B.C., the Scythians, an Iranian people defeated them and would control the region until around 200 B.C, when the Sarmatians, another Iranian group, defeated them. The Scythians and Sarmatians both lived in close contact with the Greek colonies and later Roman along the Black Sea. They absorbed many Greek and Roman ways of life through trade, marriage, and other contacts.

Germanic tribes called Goths conquered the region about 200 A.D. The Goths ruled until 370, when the Huns conquered them. The Huns' empire lasted until 453, when their leader Attila died. Different Asian groups including the Avars and Khazars later ruled areas within Russia.

By the 800's, Slavic groups had built many cities in Eastern Europe, including the European part of Russia. Slavs from the areas of Belarus, Russia, and Ukraine became known as the East Slavs. The earliest written document of Russian history from the 800's is the *Primary Chronicle* written in Kiev around 1111. It states the quarreling Slavic tribes invited a Viking tribe to rule them and bring order to the land. The Vikings were called *Varangian Russes*, believed by many to be the origin of the name Russia. The *Primary Chronicle* then states that Rurik arrived in 862, settled in Novgorod, and the area became known as the "land of Rus."

Many historians doubt that the Slavs invited the Vikings to rule over them, but rather the Vikings invaded them. Some historians contend that the word *Rus*, from which Russia gets its name, is actually a name of a Slavic tribe in the Black Sea region. The East Slavs did settle their first state, named *Kievan Rus*, which is in present day Kiev, the capital of the Ukraine.

The State of Kievan Rus

Kiev would be an important city during this time period as it was on the major trade route between the Baltic Sea and the Black Sea and the Byzantine Empire. Kiev's power would be weakened by internal strife and civil war. Kievan Rus would later fall to the Mongol army called Tatars, or Tartars, who swept across Russia in the 1200's.

One important event of Kievan Rus was that in 988 Grand Prince Vladimir I (*Volodymyr* in Ukrainian) became a Christian. The East Slavs had worshiped the forces of nature, but Vladimir made Christianity the state religion and many people accepted Christianity. The Russian Orthodox Church would later make Vladimir a saint.

Mongol Rule

Batu, a grandson of Genghis Khan, led between 150,000 to 200,000 Mongol troops into Russia in 1237. In 1240, they had taken Kiev and thus Russia became part of the Mongol Empire. Russia was included in a section of the empire known as the Golden Horde. The capital of the Golden Horde was located at Sarai, near modern day Volgograd. Batu forced Russian princes to swear allegiance to the Golden Horde and levied heavy taxes against them. The Mongols did not interfere with Russian life in general, but were more concerned with maintaining power and collecting taxes. Mongol rule limited Russia from being influenced by the Renaissance, which had so greatly affected Europe.

Rise of Moscow

Prince Yuri of Moscow married the sister of the Golden Horde's ruler in the early 1300's. Yuri was then appointed as the Russian grand prince in 1318. As grand prince, the Mongols protected his land and allowed him to collect taxes for them. Ivan I was the first to collect taxes for the Mongols. He kept some of the tax money and used it to buy land and thereby, to expand his kingdom. Ivan persuaded the archbishop of the Russian Orthodox Church to remain in Moscow, therefore, shifting the spiritual center of Russia from Kiev to Moscow. Moscow continued to grow in strength, while the Mongol empire declined due to internal conflicts. Moscow even temporarily won independence from the Mongols. Ivan III (called Ivan the Great) made the final break of Moscow from the Mongols in 1480, by refusing to pay taxes to the Golden Horde.

Ivan the Terrible

After Moscow's rise, the grand prince became known as the *czar*. In 1547, Ivan IV (known as Ivan the Terrible) became the first person to be crowned czar. He would expand his power over all of Russia.

Ivan is known as brutal, extremely suspicious, and to some insane. His special police force arrested and murdered many aristocrats. Ivan would give the victim's estates to government and military officials as payment for carrying out his wishes. Ivan burned

many towns and killed church leaders who opposed him. He even killed his oldest son in a fit of rage. Ivan passed laws that bound peasants to the land as serfs making serfdom the economic basis of Russian power.

Ivan increased Russian land by defeating the Tatars at Astrakhan and Kazan to the southeast. Russian forces also crossed the Ural Mountains and conquered western Siberia. Ivan also tried to win lands northwest to the Baltic Sea, but Lithuanian, Polish, and Swedish armies defeated him.

Troublesome Times

Ivan's son, Fedor I, was a weak czar and his wife's brother, Boris Godunov, effectively served as czar. Fedor's younger brother, Dmitriy, was found dead in 1591 and Fedor died in 1598, without leaving a male heir.

The land council elected Boris as the next czar, but a former monk posed as Dmitriy and tried to become czar. This false Dmitriy claimed that Dmitriy had not died, but fled to Lithuania. He led Polish troops in an invasion of Russia in 1604. Russia would enter a time of trouble, as civil war, invasion, and political confusion would continue until 1618. During this time, many would appear claiming to be Dmitriy and peasants would continue to revolt. The Russians finally united and in 1612 defeated the Poles who were controlling Moscow.

Early Romanovs

After the Poles were defeated, no one was left of royal birth to rule as czar. Michael Romanov was elected czar in 1613 and the Romanov czars would rule Russia for the next 300 years until the February Revolution of 1917.

During the 1600's, Russia expanded its territory by annexing much of the Ukraine and expanded eastward to the Pacific Ocean. The Russian Orthodox Church also made changes in its religious texts and ceremonies. Some people, called Old Believers, opposed these changes and broke away from the church. They still follow these old practices today.

Peter the Great

Peter came to full power in 1696, when his brother Ivan died. Peter was greatly influenced by Western ideas of commerce and government. He strengthened Russia's military and added many important conquests. Russia expanded its territory to the Baltic Sea in the Great Northern War with Sweden. In 1703, Peter founded St. Petersburg on the Baltic and moved the capital there in 1712. Peter introduced Western-type clothing, factories, and schools in Russia. Peter also forced Russian nobility to adopt many Western customs. Peter increased the czar's power over the aristocrats, church officials, and serfs. He dealt harshly with any who opposed his changes.

Catherine the Great

During Catherine the Great's reign, Russia hosted many royal parties and festivals, all in Western fashion. The arts were promoted, as the Russian Imperial School of Ballet was founded. Italian opera and chamber music were also brought to Russia during this time. Western ideas on freedom and social reform also were discussed during this time.

Most Russians remained in poverty during this time. In 1773 and 1774, the peasant's discontent led to a revolt led by Emelian Pugachev. The revolt swept from the Ural Mountains to Volga River and threatened Moscow, but government troops squashed the revolt.

Under Catherine the Great, Russia gained prominence in the region. In the late 1700's, Russia, Prussia, and Austria divided Poland among themselves. Russia received nearly all of Belarus, Lithuania, and Ukraine from Poland. Russia also fought against the Ottoman Empire (based in present day Turkey) and won the Crimea and other Ottoman lands. Catherine died in 1796 and was succeeded by her son, Paul.

Alexander I

Alexander I became czar after the death of Paul. He promised many reforms for Russia and freed many political prisoners and continued to spread western ideas. Alexander, however, did nothing to weaken the czar's control or to end serfdom. Alexander continued to expand Russian boundaries by winning territory from Persia, Sweden, and the Ottoman Empire.

In June 1812, Napoleon led the French army into Russia as an attempt to stop Russian trade with Britain, France's main enemy. Napoleon also wanted to halt the Russian advance in the Balkan region. The French would eventually reach Moscow in September 1812. Most of the people had left the city and the French entered without much conflict. After the French took Moscow, fire destroyed most of Moscow. Many historians believe that it was the Russians that set the fire. After holding Moscow for only 35 days, the French decided to retreat because they feared they could not survive the oncoming Russian winter. They began retreating and endured continual attack by Russian forces and suffered from lack of food supplies. Of the estimated 600,000 French troops that invaded Russia, 500,000 of them died, deserted, or were captured. This defeat of Napoleon made Russia a major force in the battle against Napoleon's conquests.

Alexander ruled harshly over Russia. Many young aristocrats became revolutionaries in 1816. They formed secret groups, wrote new Russian constitutions, and prepared for revolt against Alexander. When Alexander I died and Nicholas I became czar, the revolutionaries took action in December 1825. These revolutionaries, called *Decemberists*, urged 3,000 soldiers and officers to gather in Senate Square in St. Petersburg. Government troops arrived and after several hours the *Decemberists* fired a few shots, but they were no match for the government cannons. This revolt ended as a failure.

Nicholas I

The Decemberist revolt caused great concern for Nicholas. He distrusted the aristocrats and removed many of them from government office and replaced them with military officers. He tightened control over the press and education, reduced travel outside Russia, and prohibited organizations that might have political influence. Nicholas created new government departments, which included a secret police force that allowed him to increase his control over Russian life.

During Nicholas' rule, outstanding achievements happened in the field of Russian literature. Many Russians began debating the values of Westernized Russian life against those of old Russian life. The pro-Western group thought that Russia needed to learn

from and catch up to the West both politically and economically. The other group believed that Russia should keep its czarist system, have a strong church, and live a quiet life in the Russian countryside.

Nicholas became known as the “policeman of Europe” because he sent troops to put down revolutions in Poland and Hungary. Nicholas also declared himself as the defender of the Eastern Orthodox Churches and fought two wars against the Muslim Ottoman Empire. Russia won some land and the right to move merchant ships through the Black Sea, which had been controlled by the Ottoman Empire.

The Crimean War broke out between Russia and the Ottoman Empire in 1853. The French and the British both supported the Ottomans, as they were both afraid of Russian expansion in the Black Sea region. Russia was defeated in 1856 and forced to sign the Treaty of Paris. Russia was forced to give back some of its land that it had previously won from the Ottomans and were also forbidden from putting warships and fortifications around the Black Sea area.

After being defeated in the Crimean War, Russia set its sights on expansion in Asia. Russia won some disputed territories from China in 1858 and 1860. China signed treaties giving Russia lands north of the Amur River and east of the Ussuri River. Russia would defeat rebel forces in the Caucasus area and central Asia was won by a series of military campaigns from 1856 to 1876. In 1867, Russia would sell its Alaskan territory to the United States for \$7,200,000.

Alexander II

Nicholas died during the Crimean War and his son Alexander II became the czar. Alexander II believed that Russia needed to catch up with the West to remain a major power. He began a series of reforms to strengthen the economy and improve Russian life in general. In 1861, he freed the serfs and distributed land among them. He developed railroads and organized a banking system. He reformed education, loosed controls over the press, and introduced a jury system to reform the courts. He also established self-government in the towns and villages.

Many believed that Alexander’s reforms did not go far enough. Some groups argued for a socialist system, while others wanted a constitution and a republic. These different groups began forming public and secret organizations. After a revolutionary tried to kill Alexander in 1866, he began to weaken many of his reforms. The revolutionaries then argued that Alexander had not been serious about reforms. During the mid 1870’s, a group attempted to get the peasants to revolt. They wanted to establish either a socialistic system or anarchism. This effort failed and then a terrorist group called the People’s Will tried several times to kill the czar. Alexander then attempted to set up a new reform program, but in 1881, he was killed by a terrorist’s bomb in St. Petersburg.

Alexander III

Alexander III became the next czar and he established a system of harsh rule. He limited the freedom of the press and the universities and reduced the power of Russia’s local self-governments. He established special banks for aristocrats to increase their property. He appointed land captains from among the aristocrats and gave them political power over the peasants. Alexander started some programs to help peasants and

industrial workers, but under his reign, little was done to improve their living and working conditions.

Nicholas II, the Last Czar

Nicholas II would become Russia's next and last czar in 1894. The revolutionary movement had been held in check until the 1890's, when a series of bad harvests brought starvation to many peasants. As industrialization increased, discontent also increased among the rising middle class and the workers in the cities. Discontented Russians formed various political organizations. One group of liberal constitutionalists wanted to replace czarist rule with a western style parliamentary government. Another group were socialist revolutionaries that wanted to promote revolution among the peasants and city workers. Another group called Marxists wanted to promote revolution among the city workers. The Marxists followed the socialist teachings of Karl Marx, a German social philosopher. In 1898, the Marxists established the Russian Social Democratic Labor Party.

Between the years of 1899 and 1904, the Russian people's discontent grew. Worker strikes and protest increased. In 1903, the Russian Social Democratic Labor Party split into two groups – the Bolsheviks (members of the majority) and the Mensheviks (members of the minority). V. I. Lenin was the leader of the Bolsheviks, called Communists.

The Revolution of 1905

On January 22, 1905, thousands of unarmed workers marched to the czar's Winter Palace in St. Petersburg. The workers were on strike and went to ask Nicholas for reforms. Government troops fired on the crowd and killed or wounded hundreds of protesters. After this Bloody Sunday event, the revolutionary movement, led by the liberal constitutionalists, gained strength. In February, Nicholas agreed to establish an elected law making body, called the *Duma*, to advise him. More strikes broke out during the summer and peasant and military groups revolted. Some of the growing unrest can be attributed to the unpopular Russo-Japanese War. This war broke out in February 1904 when the Japanese attacked Russian ships. The war ended with Russia's defeat in September 1905.

In October 1905, a general strike paralyzed the country. Revolutionaries in St. Petersburg formed a *soviet*, council, called the Soviet of Worker's Deputies. Nicholas then granted the Duma the power to pass or reject all proposed laws. Many Russians were satisfied with this reform, but others were not satisfied. The revolution continued, especially in Moscow, where the army crushed a series of uprisings in December.

Both of the first two Dumas, which met in 1906 and 1907, were dissolved after a few months. The Dumas could not work with Nicholas and high-ranking officials who refused to give up power. Nicholas illegally changed the election law making the selection of Duma candidates less democratic. The peasants and workers were allowed far fewer representatives than the upper class in the Duma. The third Duma served from 1907 to 1912 and the fourth from 1912 to 1917. During this time, Russia made important advancements in the arts, education, farming, and industry.

World War I

When World War I began, Europe was divided into two camps. One side was the Triple Entente consisting of Britain, France, and Russia. The other side was the Triple Alliance that included Austria-Hungary, Italy, and Germany. On August 1, 1914, Germany declared war on Russia. Soon afterward, Russia changed the name of St. Petersburg to Petrograd because the previous name was too German sounding. Russia continued to fight against German and Austrian forces throughout the war.

The February Revolution

The Russian economy was devastated during the war and was unable to meet the needs of the soldiers and the people at home. The railroads carried military supplies and could not serve the cities. The people suffered severe shortages of food, fuel, and housing. Russian troops at the front were loyal, but those not as trained behind the fighting lines began to question the war. They knew that they would eventually be sent to the front lines and probably killed. Many soldiers and civilians behind the lines grew increasingly dissatisfied with the war.

By the end of 1916, almost all educated Russians opposed the czar's rule. Nicholas had removed many popular executives from high government offices and replaced them with weak, unpopular officials. Many Russians blamed Nicholas' actions on the influence of Grigori Rasputin, who served as an advisor to the czar. Nicholas believed that Rasputin was a holy man who was saving his sick son's life. In December 1916, a group of nobles murdered Rasputin, but the officials appointed through his influence remained.

In March 1917, the people of Russia revolted. The month was February in the old Russian calendar, which was replaced in 1918. Violent riots and strikes over shortages of bread and coal accompanied the uprising in Petrograd, the capital of Russia. Petrograd was known as St. Petersburg until 1914, was renamed Leningrad in 1924, and again became known as St. Petersburg in 1991. Nicholas ordered the Duma to dissolve itself, but the order was ignored and they set up a provisional government. Nicholas had lost all political support and gave up the throne on March 15th. Nicholas and his family were then imprisoned and later, Bolshevik revolutionaries shot the czar and his family to death in July 1918.

Many soviets, councils, were established in Russia at the same time as the provisional government. The soviets rivaled the provisional government and workers and soldiers tried to seize power in Petrograd in July, but the attempt failed.

The October Revolution

In August 1917, General Lavr Kornilov tried to stop the growing power of the soviets. His attempt failed and the Russian masses became more radical. On November 7 (October 25th in the old Russian calendar), workers, soldiers, and sailors led by the Bolsheviks took over the Winter Palace, a former royal residence that had become the headquarters of the provisional government. The provisional government was overthrown and a new government was established headed by Lenin. Lenin immediately withdrew Russia from World War I and took control of Russia's industries and also seized most peasants' farm products.

In 1918, Moscow was made the capital of Russia by the Bolsheviks. They also changed the name of the Russian Social Democratic Labor Party to the Russian Communist Party. This name was later changed to the Communist Party of the Soviet Union.

Civil War and the Formation of the U.S.S.R

From 1918 to 1920, civil war raged in Russia between the Communists and anti-Communists for control of Russia. The anti-Communists received support from Britain, France, Japan, and the United States. Nevertheless, the Communists defeated their opponents. They also established Communist rule in Georgia, Ukraine, eastern Armenia, Belarus, and Central Asia. The civil war continued to increase the discontent among the Russian people.

In 1921, more peasant uprisings and workers' strikes broke out. That same year, Lenin established a New Economic Policy to strengthen Russia. The policy called for government control of all the major aspects of the economy, including banking, foreign trade, heavy industry, and transportation. Small businesses could control their own operations, and peasants could keep their farm products.

In December 1922, the Communist government created a new nation called the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (U.S.S.R.). It consisted of four republics – the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic, Byelorussia (now Belarus and originally called Belarus), Transcaucasia, and Ukraine. By late 1940, Transcaucasia had been divided into Azerbaijan, Armenia, and Georgia. Ten more republics were also created for a total of 16 republics. The new republics included what are now Estonia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Latvia, Lithuania, Moldova (then Moldavia), Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, and Uzbekistan. The Karelo-Finnish Soviet Socialist Republic, established in 1940, was changed to a republic in 1956.

Joseph Stalin

Lenin died in 1924 and Joseph Stalin, who had been the general secretary of the Communist party since 1922, quickly gained power. He defeated his rivals one by one and by 1929, he had become dictator of the Soviet Union.

In the late 1920's, Stalin began a socialist economic program. It emphasized development of heavy industry and combined privately owned farms into large government run farms. Many Russian citizens opposed Stalin's policies.

Stalin in the mid-1930's started a program of terror called "The Great Purge." He had his secret police arrest millions of people. Most were shot or sent to prison labor camps. Many of those arrested were those who had helped Stalin's rise to power. Stalin had thus eliminated all possible threats to his power and had tightened his control over the Soviet Union.

World War II

By the late 1930's, German dictator Adolf Hitler was poised to control all of Europe. In August 1939, the U.S.S.R. and Germany signed a non-aggression pact, a treaty agreeing that neither nation would attack the other. In September, German troops invaded Poland from the west. The Soviet Union's forces quickly occupied the eastern portion of Poland.

In June 1941, Germany invaded Russia breaking the non-aggression treaty. The Germans began advancing quickly into the country. The turning point of the war in the Soviet Union was the Soviet defeat of the Germans in the Battle of Stalingrad (now Volgograd) in 1943. Soviet troops then drove the Germans back out of Russia and across Eastern Europe. The Russians finally attacked Berlin in April 1945. Berlin fell to the Soviets on May 2, and German troops surrendered to the Allies five days later.

In August 1945, the U.S.S.R. declared war on Japan. Japan surrendered to the Allies on Sept. 2, 1945, ending World War II.

The Cold War

After the conclusion of World War II, the Soviet Union expanded its influence of Communism into Eastern Europe. By early 1948, several Eastern European countries had become Soviet satellites (countries controlled by the Soviet Union). These satellites were Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Poland, Romania, and East Germany. The U.S.S.R. also influenced Communist regimes in Albania and Yugoslavia. It cut off nearly all contact with its satellites and the West. Mutual distrust and suspicion between East and West developed into a rivalry that became known as the Cold War. The Cold War would shape the foreign policy of the Soviet Union and many Western countries until the late 1980's.

Stalin died on March 5, 1953. In September of that year, Nikita Khrushchev became the head of the Communist Party. In 1958, he became premier of the Soviet Union. Khrushchev eased the terrorism that had characterized Stalin's dictatorship and relaxed some of the restrictions on communication, trade, and travel between East and West. Khrushchev also worked to expand the U.S.S.R.'s influence in non-Communist countries. Khrushchev improved Soviet relations with the West, but many of his other policies failed.

In 1964, the highest-ranking Communists overthrew Khrushchev. Leonid Brezhnev became the Communist Party head and Aleksei Kosygin became premier. Brezhnev and Kosygin increased the production of consumer goods and housing construction and they expanded Soviet influence in Africa.

In the mid-1970's, Brezhnev was the most powerful Soviet leader. He desired to ease tensions between the East and West through a policy known as *détente*. *Détente* began to collapse in the late 1970's and relations between the United States and the Soviet Union worsened over issues like Soviet human rights violations, the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan, and an increase of nuclear weapons by both America and the Soviet Union.

Rise of Gorbachev

In 1985, Mikhail Gorbachev became the head of the Communist Party. Gorbachev instituted many changes in the U.S.S.R., including increased freedom of expression in politics, literature, and the arts. He worked to improve relations between the Soviet Union and the West and to reduce government control over the economy. Gorbachev is known for his policies of Glasnost and Perestroika.

In 1989, the U.S.S.R. held its first contested elections for the newly created Congress of People's Deputies. The following year, the government voted to allow non-Communist political parties in the Soviet Union. Many Communist Party members and

other Soviet officials opposed Gorbachev's reforms. In March 1990, Gorbachev was elected by the Congress of People's Deputies to the newly created office of president of the Soviet Union.

Breakup of the Soviet Union

During the late 1980's, people in many parts of the Soviet Union increased their demands for greater freedom from the central government. In June 1990, the Russian republic declared that laws passed by its legislature took precedence over laws passed by the central government. By the end of the year, the other 14 Soviet republics had made similar decisions.

In July 1991, Gorbachev and the leaders of 10 republics agreed to a treaty that gave republics a large amount of self-government. Five of the republics were scheduled to sign the treaty on August 20th. On August 19th, conservative Communist Party leaders staged a coup against Gorbachev's government. Gorbachev was imprisoned with his family in their vacation home. President of the Russian republic, Boris Yeltsin, led popular opposition to the coup attempt, which collapsed on August 21st. After the coup, Gorbachev regained his office of president, but resigned as head of the Communist Party.

The coup's collapse renewed the republic's demand for more control over their affairs. In September 1991, an interim government was established until a new union treaty and constitution could be written and approved. This government included a State Council, made up of Gorbachev and the leaders of the republics.

On Dec. 8, 1991, Yeltsin and the presidents of Belarus and Ukraine announced the formation of the Commonwealth of Independent States. They declared that the Soviet Union ceased to exist and invited the remaining republics to join the commonwealth. The members of the commonwealth would be independent countries tied by economic and defense links. Most of the republics decided to join the new commonwealth.

Yeltsin took control of what remained of the central government of the Soviet Union, including the Kremlin. On Dec. 25, 1991, Gorbachev resigned as Soviet president and the Soviet Union ceased to exist.

A New Russian Nation

With the collapse of the Soviet Union, Russia would start a new chapter of its history as an independent nation. The breakup of the Soviet Union helped eliminate the friction that existed between the East and West. The Russian government would slash military spending in 1992 and make cutbacks on the number of people employed in the military. These cutbacks forced many military personnel to find jobs in the civilian sector.

After the breakup of the Soviet Union, Russia agreed to maintain a supply of nuclear weapons. In 1992, the Ukraine, Belarus, and Kazakhstan, other countries with nuclear weapons, agreed to eliminate all nuclear weapons on their territory in seven years. By the end of 1996, these three countries had turned over their nuclear weapons to Russia.

Russia had to establish new relationships with other commonwealth members. Some Russian leaders wanted Russia to take a leading role, but other smaller republics feared Russian domination of the commonwealth.

Russia also faced challenges of establishing a new economic and political system. The government ended all price controls, which caused prices to soar and resulted in a lower standard of living. The government issued certificates that allowed citizens to buy shares in the state-owned farms. President Yeltsin also took steps to increase private ownership of businesses.

Opposition to Yeltsin's economic policies grew in parliament due to the influence of former Communist Party members and Soviet Union leaders. A majority of the voters supported Yeltsin's economic policies in a referendum in April 1993. Opposition continued in parliament and in September, Yeltsin suspended Vice President Alexander Rutskoi, who was leading the anti-Yeltsin group. Later that month, Yeltsin dissolved the parliament and called for new parliamentary elections in December. Parliament then voted to remove Yeltsin from office and to make Rutskoi president.

Rutskoi and others who opposed Yeltsin barricaded themselves in the parliament building in Moscow. Yeltsin ordered that police and the internal affairs ministry blockade the building known as the White House. In October 1993, anti-Yeltsin crowds protested in Moscow attempting to end the blockade. The next day, Yeltsin ordered the military to take control of the White House. Rutskoi and other Yeltsin opponents were captured and arrested. In February 1994, parliament granted them amnesty and they were released.

In December 1993, Russian voters elected a new parliament and approved a new constitution. Different political parties would battle for control of the parliament over the next few years. In 1993, Russia's Choice won the most seats in the Duma. They support programs to reduce government control of economic policy. The extreme right wing Liberal Democratic Party that calls for an end to economic reform and for Russia to take over the former Soviet republics won the second highest number of seats. In the 1995 elections, the Communist Party won the largest number of seats and favor more government control of land and industries. Our Home is Russia won the second most seats and they favor continued economic and social reform. In 1996, Yeltsin was elected to a second term as Russian president.

In 1991, the government of Chechnya, a region in southwestern Russia, demanded independence. In 1992, violence erupted between citizens who supported independence and those who wanted to remain as part of Russia. In December 1994, Russia sent troops against the separatist forces and fighting resulted. A cease-fire ended the fighting in 1996 and Yeltsin and the Chechen leader signed a peace treaty in May 1997.

Recent Developments

In 1998, Russia once again began to face serious economic problems. In March, Yeltsin dismissed his cabinet including Prime Minister Viktor Chernomyrdin. Yeltsin then appointed young, reform-minded Sergei Kiriyenko as prime minister. In August, Yeltsin dismissed Kiriyenko and tried to bring back Chernomyrdin. Parliament forced Yeltsin to nominate another person. In September 1998, parliament approved Yevgeny Primakov as the new prime minister. In October, due to poor health, Yeltsin turned over much of his duties to Primakov.

In May 1999, Yeltsin abruptly dismissed Primakov and the rest of the cabinet and appointed the minister of internal affairs, Sergei Stepashin, as prime minister. In August, Yeltsin would replace Stepashin with Vladimir Putin, former head of Russia's domestic

intelligence service. Shortly after Yeltsin's dismissal of Primakov, the State Duma voted whether to impeach Yeltsin for his past actions, but the Duma voted against impeachment.

In August 1999, Chechnya again became a problem as Islamic militants attempted to unite Chechnya and the neighboring republic of Dagestan. Russia invaded Chechnya to defeat this rebellion. Russian attacks heavily damaged Chechen cities and killed many civilians, causing many nations to protest Russia's handling of the conflict.

In parliamentary elections in December 1999, the Communist Party again won the most seats in the Duma. A party called Unity, which was supported by Prime Minister Putin, won the second highest number of seats. Unity favors continuing the economic reforms began under Yeltsin.

On the last day of 1999, Yeltsin resigned and appointed Putin as acting president. In presidential elections in March 2000, Russians voted overwhelmingly for Putin. The war in Chechnya continued to drag on.

Russia today must face and overcome the remaining issues from the fall of Communism. Russian people suffer from lack of trust with the government. The Russian government needs to establish some stability within the country. The election of President Putin brought some sense of hope for the Russian people, but government issues remain.

- The government needs to balance strong leadership with respect for individual freedoms.
- Economic stability is needed while privatizing industries. The majority continues to suffer in poverty resulting in increased rates of crime, drug abuse, alcoholism, family-breakups, and suicide.
- Justice has suffered as power has fallen into the hands of criminal networks that cripple business initiatives and subvert democracy.
- For years ethnic minorities have been repressed and a growing Russian nationalistic movement continues to gain favor.
- An alliance of the Russian Orthodox Church, the Press, and local and regional governments continue to threaten freedom of religion. Non-Orthodox people are viewed as second-class citizens and religious minorities are required to register with the state.
- Russian health care continues to suffer as funding for public health has been cut, free abortions are available for birth control, and a general sense of communal despair contributes to the problem. The population continues to decline due to alcoholism, TB, AIDS, high infant mortality, and emigration.
- Russia also faces growing ecological issues. Nuclear disasters, like Chernobyl, and nuclear testing has left thousands of square kilometers polluted. The oil industry has also left many polluted areas.

People Groups

People of Russian ancestry comprise 83% of Russia's people and is the largest group of Slavic peoples. There are also over 100 other nationality groups present in Russia. The largest of these groups include: Tartars, Ukrainians, Chuvash, Bashkirs,

Belarusians, Mordvins, Chechen, Germans, Udmurts, Mari, Kazakhs, Avars, Armenians, and Jews. Many live in Russia's autonomous territories. Remote parts of the far north are populated by Siberian groups; such as the Aleuts, Chukchi, Inuit (Eskimos), and Koryaks. These northern groups differ from one another in ancestry and language, but share common ways of life among the harsh, cold climate.

The Soviet Union granted special political and economic privileges to Russians who were loyal to the Communist Party. It also repressed other distinctive cultures and other nationalities and did not uphold their rights. These policies created resentment among many people groups and today many people groups take extreme pride in their culture and desire independence.

Ethnic Russians are descended from Slavs that lived in Eastern Europe several thousand years ago. Over time, these Slav groups divided into three – East Slavs, West Slavs, and South Slavs. The Russians trace their heritage to the East Slavs and their first state named Kievan Rus, which emerged in the 800's.

Name	Number	Language	Religion	Notes
Abaza	29,000	Abaza	Muslim	In Cherkes, Dagestan
Abkhazian	7,200	Abkhaz	23% Muslim, 17% non-religious, Georgian Orthodox Church, Baptists	Black Sea Coast, in Abkhazia (Georgia)
Adyghe	125,000	Adyghe	Muslim	Adyghe Republic, north-western Caucasus foothills
Afghani, Pathan	920	Pashto	Muslim	Refugees, migrants from Afghan war
Angul, Aguly	19,000	Aghul	Muslim	Southern Dagestan language unwritten
Ainu	1,500	Ainu	90% Animists/ Shamanists	South Sakhalin Island and Kuril Islands, majority found in Japan
Akhvakh, Axvax	5,000	Akhvakh	Muslim	Southern Dagestan language unwritten
Albanian	4,411	Albanian	50% non-religious, 25% Muslim, 20% atheist, Roman Catholic, Seventh-day Adventist, Jehovah's Witness	From Albania
Aleut	300	Aleut	30% non-religious, Russian Orthodox	Commander Islands, most now speak Russian
Altai, Oirot	72,000	Altai,	Shamanists,	Inhabit mountains

		Southern	Buddhism	and foothill in the Altai Republic
Alutor	800	Alutor	86% Shamanists, Russian Orthodox	On northern Kamchatka peninsula, reindeer breeders
Andi, Qwannab	10,000	Andi	Muslim	Southern Dagestan language unwritten
Arab	2,919	Arabic	98% Muslim	Mostly in central Asia
Archin, Archintsy	859	Archi	Muslim	Southern Dagestan language unwritten
Armenian	574,543	Armenian	16% non-religious, 8% atheists, Armenian Apostolic Church, Roman Catholic	Gregorians
Assyrian	10,000	Assyrian, Neo-aramaic	Ancient Church of the East (Nestorians), Russian Orthodox	
Avar, Dagestani	550,000	Avar	Muslim	Found in Dagestan
Azerbaijani	336,000	Azerbaijani, North	78% Muslim, 20% non-religious, Russian Orthodox	From Azerbaijan
Balkar, Karachay	85,000	Karachay-balkar	Muslim	In Karachi-Cherkess AO, Karbardinian-Balkar.
Bashkir, Bashkort	1,406,000	Bashkir	70% Muslim, 20% non-religious, Russian Orthodox	Southern Dagestan
Batsbi	3,000	Unknown	Muslim	Found in Georgia
Botlikh, Botlix	3,500	Botlikh	Muslim	Southern Dagestan
British	4,760	English	Anglican Church	Expatriates from Britain, commerce, industry, education, business
Budukh	None given	Yergyuch	Muslim	Found in Dagestan
Bulgar, Bulgarian	35,381	Bulgarian	18% non-religious, 10% atheists, Bulgarian Orthodox	From Bulgaria
Buryat	422,000	Buriat	48% Buddhist, 30% non-religious, 10% Shamanists,	Buryat-Mongol

			Russian Orthodox, Pentecostal Church	
Byelorussian	1,206,000	Belarusan	25% non-religious, Russian Orthodox, Roman Catholic, Old Ritualistic Churches	Mainly live in Belorussia
Caucasian, Mountain Jew	15,000	Judeo-tat	Religious Jews, emigrating to USA and Israel	Dagestan
Chamalin, Gadyri	5,500	Chamalal	Muslim	Southern Dagestan
Chechen, Shishan	956,879	Chechen	63% Muslim, 21% atheists, 16% non-religious	In Kazakhstan, Georgia, Germany.
Chukchi, Chukot	16,000	Chukot	80% Shamanists	Dzhukhur.
Chuvash, Bolgar	1,800,000	Chuvash	35% Muslim, 30% non-religious, Russian Orthodox	In Chuvashia, 65% also speak Russian
Circassian, Central	54,786	Adyghe	Muslim	Kabardino-Cherkess, western north Caucasus foothills
Croat	524	Serbo-Croatian	14% non-religious, Roman Catholic	Refugees, migrant workers from Croatia civil war
Cuban	5,490	Spanish	50% non-religious, Roman Catholic	Immigrants during Soviet-Cuba collaboration, former military personnel
Czech, Bohemian	4,728	Czech	20% non-religious, Roman Catholic, Russian Orthodox, Seventh-day Adventist, Jehovah's Witness, Baptist	Immigrants, residents from Czechoslovakia
Darghinian, Dargwa	369,000	Dargwa	Muslim	Southern Dagestan 65% speak Russian
Didoi, Dido	7,000	Dido	Muslim	Southern Dagestan
Dolgan	5,000	Dolgan	30% Shamanists, Russian Orthodox	Turkic, near Artic Ocean
Dutch	492	Dutch	Dutch Reformed, Roman Catholic	Expatriates from Netherlands in

				development, commerce
East Circassian, Kabado	443,000	Kabardian	90% Muslim, Armenian Apostolic Church	Upper Circassian, Kabardino-Cherkess, Kabardinia
Estonian	50,058	Estonian	20% non-religious, Russian Orthodox, Evangelical Lutheran Church, Baptist	Most bilingual in Russian
Even, Lamut	12,800	Even	90% Shamanists	In Yakutia and Kamchatka, scattered over Okhotsk Artic Coast
Evenk, Tungus	28,000	Evenki	70% Shamanists, 15% Lamaists, 5% non-religious, Russian Orthodox	Evenki National Okrug, Sakhalin Island
Finnish, Fin	77,000	Finnish	13% non-religious, Evangelical Lutheran, Russian Orthodox	Immigrants from Finland, most bilingual in Russian
French	381	French	16% non-religious, Roman Catholic	Expatriates from France, in development, medicine, commerce
Gagauzi Turk	10,852	Gagauz	8% non-religious, Russian Orthodox	77% speak Russian
Georgian	141,034	Georgian	54% non-religious / atheist, 5% Muslim, Greek Orthodox, Baptist	Mostly in Georgia
German, Volga German	908,969	German	20% non-religious, German Evangelical Lutheran, Old Mennonites, Baptist	Nemtsy, In Altai, Kirgizia, Kazakhstan
Gilyak, Nivkh	5,000	Gilyak	92% Shamanists / animists (bear – worship), Russian Orthodox	Sakhalin Oblast, lower Amur river, all bilingual in Russian. Fisherman, agriculturalists

Godoberi	3,000	Ghodoberi	Muslim	Highland west central Dagestan
Greek, Romeos	98,957	Greek	Greek Orthodox, Russian Orthodox	19 th century immigrants from Greece, around Black Sea
Han Chinese, Mandarin	7,933	Russian	62% Buddhist / Chinese folk religions, 37% non-religious	
High Mari, Cheremiss	66,000	Mari	Russian Orthodox, 10% Muslim	Mountain Cheremis, Mari, Bashkir. Agriculturalists, lumbermen
Hungarian	6,204	Hungarian	15% non-religious, Roman Catholic	Immigrants, refugees from Hungary
Hunzib	2,000	Hunzib	Muslim	Southern Dagestan
Indo-Pakistani	571	Hindi	80% Hindu, 19% Muslim	Refugees, traders, merchants from India, Pakistan, Kashmir
Ingush, Galgai	240,000	Ingush	Muslim	Lamur, Kisti, Chechen, Ingush
Irani	2,777	Farsi	Muslim	Immigrants from Iran
Italian	682	Italian	Roman Catholic	Expatriates in commerce, development, construction
Itelmen	1,500	Itelmen	30% Shamanists, Russian Orthodox	Southern Kamchatka Peninsula
Izhor, Luzh	302	Ingrian	Russian Orthodox	Baltic Area, Kingisepp and Lomonosov areas of St. Petersburg
Japanese	635	Japanese	90% Buddhists, 9% non-religious	Expatriates from Japan in business, commerce
Jat 2, Jati	52,358	Jakati	99% Muslim	Nomadic non-Romany Gypsies
Jewish	1,305,000	Russian	20% non-religious, Jewish	Sizeable annual emigrations to Israel

Kalderash	10,000	Romani	Russian Orthodox	Gypsy group
Kalmyk, Western Mongolia	174,000	Kalmyk- oirat	70% Buddhist	In Kalmykia
Kamas	1	Karagas		Upper Mana and Kan rivers in Krasnoyarsk, Southern Siberia
Kapuchin, Bezhetin	3,000	Bezhta	Muslim	Southern Dagestan
Karachay, Alan	156,000	Karachay	Muslim	Long history of oppression, deportation, genocide. Karachai-Cherkess AO.
Karaite, Karaim	730	Karaim	20% non-religious, heretical Jewish sect rejecting Talmud	
Karakalpak	6,648	Karakalpak	78% Muslim, 22% non-religious / atheist	In Karakalpak, also Burhara
Karatin, Karatai	6,000	Karata	Muslim	Southern Dagestan
Karelian, Norgorod	172,000	Karelian	30% non-religious, Russian Orthodox, Roman Catholic, Evangelical Lutheran	Karelia, Kalinin, Leningrad, Murmansk Oblasts, bilingual in Russian
Kazakh	600,000	Kazakh	60% Muslim, 30% nonreligious, 10% atheist	
Kerek	3	Kerek	81% Shamanists	Cape Navarin, Kamchatka
Khalka Mongol, Mongolian	1,774	Mongolian	50% nonreligious, 30% Shamanists, 16% atheists, 3% Lamaists	Originally from Mongolia
Khanti, Ostyak	22,000	Khanty	96% Shamanists / animists	Kanty-Mansy National Okrug; along Ob river
Khinalug	2,000	Khinalugh	Muslim	Single village on the upper reaches of the River Kudial-Tchai

Khunzal	2,000	Hunzib	Muslim	Southern Dagestan
Khvarshin, Khwarshi	1,800	Khvarshi	Muslim	Avar, Southern Dagestan
Kildin Lapp	1,111	Saam	30% nonreligious, Russian Orthodox, Roman Catholic, Evangelical Lutheran	Karelia, Kola Peninsula
Kildin Saam	1,000	Saami, Kildin		Have own writing system and literacy. Many are bilingual in Russian.
Kola Lapp, Saami	1,269	Kola	10% Shamanists / animists, Evangelical Lutheran, Roman Catholic	Kola Peninsula
Kola Saam	500	Saami, Skolt		In the Lovozero National District
Komi-Permyat	151,000	Komi-permyak	40% Animists / Shamanists, 20% nonreligious, Russian Orthodox	Industry and agriculture. South Komi, Komi-Peryak National Okrug, east of central Ural Mountains.
Komi-Yazva	4,760	Yazva	50% Shamanists, 10% nonreligious, Russian Orthodox	
Komi-Zyrian	345,000	Komi-Zyrian	45% Shamanists / Animists, 22% nonreligious, Russian Orthodox	Pastoralists, Hunters. North Komi. South of Yurak, west of Vogul peoples.
Korean	112,000	Korean	40% nonreligious, 20% Shamanists, 15% Buddhists, 5% Atheists, Reformed Churches, Korean Methodist Church	45% now speak Russian only, Korean spoken by people over 50's only
Koryak, Nymylan	9,000	Koryak	96% Shamanists / Animists	On northern Kamchatka, Koryak National Okrug.
Kryz	None given	Unknown	Muslim, but mix in	Occupy five

			pagan traditions	villages in the Konakhkent District of Azerbaijan
Kumyk	282,000	Kumyk	Muslim	Southern Dagestan, agriculturalists
Kurds	5,093	Unknown	80% Muslim, 20% nonreligious	Scattered groups across Transcaucasia
Kurmanji, Northern Kurd	382,000	Kurmanji	99% Muslim	Long history of persecution, refugees, massacres
Kvanadin, Bagulal	5,500	Kagvalal	Muslim	Southern Dagestan
Kyrgyz	43,000	Kirghiz	55% Muslim, 40% nonreligious	Mainly in Kirghizia
Lak, Laki	118,000	Lak	Muslim	In Caucasus, southern Dagestan, widely scattered from Ukraine to Central Asia
Latvian, Lett	50,534	Latvian	9% nonreligious, Russian Orthodox, Evangelical Lutheran Church in Latvia, Roman Catholic, Religion in Communist Lands	Primarily in Latvia
Lezgian, Lezghi	257,000	Lezgi	Muslim	In Dagestan, also Azerbaijan
Lithuanian	75,999	Lithuanian	Roman Catholic, Evangelical Lutheran Church in Lithuania, Russian Orthodox	From Lithuania
Low Mari, Eastern Mari	604,000	Mari	Russian Orthodox, 5% Muslim, 5% Shamanists	
Ludian, Lyudikovian	6,100	Ludian	40% nonreligious	
Luli Gypsy	9,200	Domari	75% Muslim, 15% nonreligious	Nomadic gypsies in Uzbekistan
Mansi, Vogul	8,200	Mansi	96% Shamanists /	Between Urals and

			animists, Russian Orthodox	Ob river
Mednyj Aleut	10	Mednyj Aleut	Russian Orthodox	Copper Island, Komandor Islands
Mingat	4,601	Mingat	47% nonreligious, 25% atheists, 25% Shamanists, 3% Lamaists	Ethnic group within Khalkha Mongol
Moldavian	186,347	Romanian	18% nonreligious, Russian Orthodox, Romanian Orthodox	From Moldavia, Romania
Mordvin-Erzya	440,000	Erzya	30% nonreligious, some pagans, Russian Orthodox	Northern Mordvin
Mordvin-Moksha	428,333	Moksha	30% nonreligious, Russian Orthodox	Southern Mordvin
Nanai, Gold	12,000	Nanai	90% Shamanists, 6% Chinese religionists, Russian Orthodox	Ussuri Valley, Amur Valley below Khabarovsk
Negidal, Nizovsk	500	Negidal	99% Shamanists	Rapidly becoming assimilated by surrounding populations
Nogay Tatar, Nogai	75,000	Nogai	Muslim, but nominal as it is disappearing as being assimilated to Russian	Mangkt, Nogailar. Cherkes
Oirat, Western Mongol	51,025	Oirat	60% Lamaists, 20% nonreligious, 15% Shamanists, Muslim	Sart-Kalmyk
Olonetsian, Livvikovian	80,000	Livvi	35% nonreligious	Northeast of Lake Ladoga
Orochi, Orichen	1,200	Oroch	92% Shamanists / animists, 1% Buddhists, Russian Orthodox	Eastern Siberia near Khabarovsk and Amur river
Orok	317	Orok	98% Shamanists / animists, Russian Orthodox	Sakhalin Island, Poronajsk District
Ossetian	434,128	Osetin	39% Muslim, 16% nonreligious, Russian Orthodox	In Caucasus Mountains, North Ossetia

Ostyak Samoyed, Selku	4,500	Selkup	94% Shamanists, Russian Orthodox	Tom Oblast, Yamalo-Nenets Okrug, Taz River, Narym District
Plautdietsch	100,000	Plautdietsch		
Polish	102,082	Polish	Roman Catholic, Russian Orthodox, Pentecostal, 9% nonreligious	From Poland, also western Ukraine
Romanian	6,473	Romanian	Romanian Orthodox, Roman Catholic, Russian Orthodox, 14% nonreligious	Expatriates, settlers from Romania
Russian	117,000,000	Russian	30% nonreligious, 5% atheists, Russian Orthodox, Roman Catholic, Baptist, Old Ritualists, Council of Churches of Evangelical Christians – Baptists, Seventh- day Adventists	
Russian Gypsy, Ruska	22,847	Russian	30% nonreligious	Romani-speaking Baltic Gypsies
Rutul, Rutal	20,000	Rutul	Muslim	Southern Dagestan
Saami, Akkala	7	Saami, Akkala		Southwest Kola Peninsula
Sayan Samoyed, Karaga	600	Karagas	99% Shamanists	In south central Siberia, collective farmers
Serb	5,000	Serbo- Croatian	20% nonreligious / atheists, Serbian Orthodox Church	Refugees, migrant workers from Serbia
Shorian, Kuznets Tatar	16,000	Shor	30% Shamanists, Russian Orthodox	Khakass AO and Gorno-Altai AO
Siberian Eskimo, Aiwanat	1,200	Yupik	Shamanists	Yupik Eskimo, Asiatic Eskimo. Eastern tip of Siberia
Slovak	15,000	Slovak	Roman Catholic, 20% nonreligious	Immigrants from Slovakia, in business, commerce

Southern Yukaghir	50	Yukaghir	93% Shamanists, Russian Orthodox	Yakutia and Kamchatka Peninsula
Spaniard	2,221	Spanish	Roman Catholic	Expatriates from Spain, in business, commerce
Tabasaran, Ghumghum	98,000	Tabassaran	Muslim	Southern Dagestan
Tajik	39,000	Tajiki	90% Muslim, 10% nonreligious	From Tajikistan, Uzbekistan, Kirghizia
Tat	20,959	Tat	70% Shia Muslim, 10% Jewish, Armenian Apostolic Church	Original inhabitants of northern Azerbaijan
Tatar, Chulym	12,000	Chulym	99% Shamanists	Basin of Chulym river, north of Altay mountains
Tatar, Crimean	26,000	Crimean Turkish	Muslim	Mainly in Uzbekistan
Tatar, Kazan Tatar	6,645,588	Tatar	81% Muslim, 15% nonreligious, Russian Orthodox	70% bilingual in Russian. Dispersed over 30 provinces.
Tavgi Samoyed, Nganas	1,300	Nganasan	90% Shamanists / animists	Taymur National Okrug, Siberia. Northernmost people in Russia. Hunters of wild reindeer.
Teleut, Altai	29,000	Altai, Northern	Traditional religions	Gorno-Altai AO Mountains, bordering on Mongolia and China
Ter Lapp	603	Saam	35% nonreligious, Russian Orthodox, Evangelical Lutheran	In Karelia and Kola Peninsula. Many bilingual in Russian.
Ter Saam	500	Saami, Ter		Kola Peninsula
Tindin, Tindi	5,000	Tindi	Muslim	Western Dagestan
Tsakhur, Caxur	20,000	Tsakhur	Muslim	Southern Dagestan
Turk	10,000	Turkish	98% Muslim, 2% nonreligious	Across Central Asia
Turkmen, Turkomen	41,000	Turkmen	93% Devout Muslims, 5% nonreligious	From Turkmenistan, Iran, Afghanistan,

				Uzbekistan
Tuvinian, Uriankhai	206,000	Tuvin	33% Buddhists, 30% Shamanists	Republic of Tuva
Udekhe	1,600	Udihe	90% Shamanists / animists	Extreme Far East
Udin, Udi	1,190	Udi	Georgian Orthodox Church, Armenian Apostolic Church, 10% nonreligious	Mainly in Georgia and Azerbaijan
Udmurt, Votyak	750,000	Udmurt	Russian Orthodox, 45% Shamanists	Udmurtia, near Urals.
Ukranian	4,500,000	Ukrainian	20% Nonreligious / atheists, Russian Orthodox, Ukrainian Catholic Church, Baptist, Jehovah's Witness, Seventh-day Adventist	
Ulchi	2,500	Ulch	97% Shamanists	Manchu people along Amur River
Uyghur	2,777	Uyghur	Muslim	Eastern Turkistan
Uzbek, Northern	133,000	Uzbek	80% Muslim, 20% nonreligious / atheists	
Vepsian	13,500	Veps	Russian Orthodox, Roman Catholic, 30% nonreligious	Karelia, St. Petersburg
Vietnamese, Kinh	19,039	Vietnamese	54% Buddhist, 30% nonreligious, Roman Catholic	Refugees, immigrants after 1960's – 1975 Vietnam War.
Vod, Votish	25	Vod	30% nonreligious	Kingisepp area of St. Petersburg
West Circassian, Kjax	132,641	Shapsug	Muslim	Adyghian, Lower Circassian
Western Baluch	317	Balochi, Western	Muslim	Mainly in Pakistan, Afghanistan, Turkmenistan, Iran
Yakut	400,000	Yakut	30% Shamanists, nominal Christians	Eastern Siberia in Yakutia near Artic Ocean. Nomadic hunters, reindeer- breeders.

Yenisei Ostyak, Ket	1,200	Ket	94% Shamanists, Russian Orthodox	Upper Yenisei Valley, east of Khanti and Mansi
Yenisei Samoyedic, Enet	90	Enets	80% Shamanists, Russian Orthodox	Taymur National Okrug, along Yenisei river
Yenisei Tatar, Khakassia	80,000	Khakas	Converted to Christianity in 12 th century though mixed with shamanism	Southern Siberia, around city of Abakan, Khakass AO.
Yukagir, Odul	1,100	Yukaghir	Russian Orthodox, Traditional Religion	Northeast Siberia
Yupik, Naukan	350	Yupik, Naukan	80% Shamanists (whale and walrus festivals), Russian Orthodox	Chukota region, Chukot Peninsula, Siberia
Yupik, Sirenik	10	Yugh		Chukot Peninsula
Yurak Samoyed, Nenets	34,000	Nenets	95% Shamanists, Russian Orthodox	Northwest Siberia, tundra area, from Yenisei delta to Kola Peninsula

Religion in Russia

Non-Christian Groups

Atheism

Atheism maintained control of Russia for 70 years, from the Bolshevik Revolution till the end of the Gorbachev regime. Militant Atheism was in effect the religion of the U.S.S.R., where the Communist Party acted as a church. Since the fall of the Soviet Union, atheism has been on the decline. It has not been eradicated from Russian society, but its influence has weakened. Militant atheist groups still exist and desire a return to the atheistic communist society. While most Russians are not strictly atheist, many remain non-religious, 31.08% of the population or 45,667,040 people.

Islam

Islam is the professed religion of 10.20% of the population or 14,987,252 people. The conflict between the Slavic Russian and Muslims worlds are ancient that includes the Mongol Golden Horde and the Ottoman Empire. Russia currently has over 3000 different Muslim organizations registered with the government. Russia also has over 800 mosques and parishes.

Judaism

Judaism is the religion of 0.32% of the population or 470,188 people. The Jewish community is divided into two different groups. The first group is the Western Jews, those coming mainly from Germany during the 17th and 18th centuries. The second group is the Eastern Jews, who are the ancient inhabitants of southern and central Asia.

About 1.3 million Russian Jews were massacred during World War II. The Soviet regime was also hard on the Jewish community. They have now begun to salvage their cultural expression that was repressed during 70 years of Soviet anti-Semitism. Judaism is now one of the official recognized religions by the government of Russia. Today, foreign organizations contribute \$40 million a year into Jewish programming within Russia and more than 100 charity centers have opened to minister to the elderly and needy of the Jewish community.

Many Jewish people do not practice Judaism. They are culturally Jewish, but not practicing the Jewish faith. It is estimated that only 1/3 of those listed as Jewish on their passport are practicing Jews.

Anti-Semitism remains a problem within Russia, as there are many neo-Nazi groups present. A 1996 survey of St. Petersburg Jews revealed that 12% had been physically attacked because of being Jewish, and 54% had been targets of anti-Semitic name calling. This anti-Semitism has caused many Jews to immigrate to other countries. It is estimated that by 2001, 600,000 Jews had left the Former Soviet Union for Israel. Other countries where the Russian Jews immigrate include Germany and the United States. It was estimated that 2,000 Russia Jews left for America every month in 1996.

Shamanism

Shamanism is widely practiced within Siberia. It is estimated that 1.10% of the population or 1,616,272 people are Shamans. These people believe in the existence of ancestral and free nature spirits, divinities of fire and the sun, and a supreme being who resides in the sky.

Buddhism

Buddhism is one of the officially recognized religions by the government of Russia, but it has a long history of repression since 1917. From 1933-38, all 120 Buddhist monasteries were destroyed or closed. The Buddhist populations are primarily of Mongol descent. There are currently 80 Buddhist religious associations, with ten active monasteries, with a total monastic body of 200 men. In addition, there are 10 monasteries currently under construction. The Buddhist population comprises 0.70% of the population or 1,028,537 people.

Jehovah's Witnesses and Mormons

The Jehovah's Witnesses have had tremendous success in Russia. They claim 904 congregations, with 107,111 members and 280,000 affiliates. The Mormons claim 140 congregations, with 4,192 members and 7,000 affiliates within Russia.

Christian Groups

History of Christianity in Russia

The first Christians in Russia were probably the Armenians, who according to tradition were converted by the Apostle Thaddeus a few years after Pentecost. Russia adopted Christianity as the official religion when Prince Vladimir of Kiev became a Christian in 988. The ceremony for Prince Vladimir was based upon Byzantine rites and this would serve as a model for the rise of the Russian Orthodox Church.

Christian Groups

The Union of Evangelical Christians-Baptists (AUCECB) was formed in 1944 as a union of Baptists (originated in 1841) and Evangelical Christians (Brethren, Stundists, from around 1870). Some Pentecostal groups joined in 1945 and 1947, some later left, and some Mennonites have been members since 1963. The church is strongest in the Ukraine, Baltic States, and the Far East. Many people attend services, but do not seek membership through adult baptism. From 1960-65, a schism resulted from the government anti-religious campaign that led to the foundation of the Council of Churches of Evangelical Christians-Baptists. This group remained critical of the state's atheistic policies under Communist rule and was consistently refused legal recognition. Many leaders were under constant harassment or imprisoned.

Lutherans are concentrated outside Russia in the Baltic States, primarily in Latvia, and Estonia, where recognized Lutheran groups exist. Previously, there were only two official recognized Lutheran groups outside these states (Tselinograd and Karaganda, both in Kazakhstan). Lutherans are also found in other parts, especially Siberia. Many worshipped in clandestine groups and several other groups have obtained registration. The Lutheran Church of Russia was dissolved in 1938.

The Reformed Church of Russia began in the 17th century and was suppressed from 1917 to 1991. Russia's territory acquisition also brought other Reformed churches including the churches of Carpatho-Ukraine, Lithuania, and Latvia.

Mennonites are both within and outside the AUCECB. They first immigrated to Russia in the 18th century, mostly from Germany. Over the last hundred years, many have emigrated out of Russia, especially to the Americas. Many Old Mennonites reside in Asiatic Russia where they were forcibly resettled after World War II.

The Pentecostal Movement began in Russia during the 1920s. In 1944, 400 of the 700 known Pentecostal congregations (called Christians of Evangelical Faith) joined the AUCECB. By 1970, there were more Pentecostal groups outside the AUCECB than inside, and these groups were forced to operate clandestinely and underground.

About 80 other Protestant denominations also exist, but many remain unregistered.

Protestant Church statistics:

Name	Congregations	Members	Affiliates
Lutheran	175	149,701	250,000
Union of Evangelical Christians-Baptist	1,200	85,000	243,100
Christians of Evangelical Faith (Pentecostal)	1,348	115,000	187,500

Other Pentecostal	583	70,000	110,000
Seventh-day Adventist	520	49,356	110,000
Unregistered Pentecostal	300	46,000	110,000
Independent Baptist Congregations	850	45,000	85,000
Baptist Council of Churches	144	11,500	23,000
Evangelical Lutheran Church of Ingria in Russia	18	8,824	15,000
Mennonite	24	2,880	6,048
Reformed Churches	9	1,796	3,000

Marginal Groups

Russian Orthodox Church

Orthodoxy was introduced to Russia in 988 and a Russian Orthodox patriarch was instituted in 1589, after which the church called itself the Third Rome. The patriarch and the czar maintained a close relationship for many years until in 1700 patriarch Adrian opposed Peter the Great, and as a result the patriarch was abolished. Peter established a synod in 1721 that included the Russian bishops and a czar appointed procurator. From 1721 – 1917, the czar ruled the church through the synod. With the abdication of czar Nicholas II in 1917, the relationship between the church and the state was terminated. During the provisional government in August 1917, a church council was created and the patriarch re-established. From 1925 to 1945 there was no patriarch, but at the end of World War II, a patriarch was appointed.

Since 1990, patriarch Alexy II of Moscow, and All Russia, has led the Russian Orthodox Church as the 15th patriarch in the Russian church's history. He governs in conjunction with a synod. With the passing of the Freedom of Conscience and Religious Associations bill signed by Boris Yeltsin in 1997, the Russian Orthodox Church is assured of protecting its sacred heritage.

The Russian Orthodox Church suffered a severe decline due to the influence of communism with decades of repression and harassment. Since the fall of communism, the church has responded by growing large amounts. In 1988, there were 6,893 parishes and in 2002, it had grown to 19,000 parishes. The number of monasteries has also increased from 18 in 1980 to 480 today. In 1999, the Russian Orthodox Church had 8,000 congregations, 38,961,039 members, and 60,000,000 affiliates. Many of these people associate with the Russian Orthodox Church in name only. Only 3% of those who identify with the Russian Orthodox Church attend regularly and only 7% attend at least once monthly.

Old Believers

The Old Believers are a unique regional group, known in Siberia as *Semieskie*. Orthodox dissenters who disagreed with liturgical reforms proposed by the Russian Orthodox Church in the 17th century founded this group more than 300 years ago. Avvakum Petrovich led them, an archpriest that was later executed. This group was severely persecuted by the Russian Orthodox Church and the government for their withdrawal. They eventually divided into sects and some settled in borderlands and the rest exiled to Siberia.

During the reign of Catherine the Great, Old Believers were taken from Poland into the wilds of the modern day region of Buryat. There they preserved their heritage and traditions and began cultivation of the new land.

In 1971 the Council of the Russian Orthodox Church officially recognized the rites and practices of the Old Believers. Modern day descendants preserve their traditions and practices through folk tales, songs, dance, dialect, and a unique style of dress.

The Old Believers have 200 congregations, with 1,063,830 members and 1,500,000 affiliates.

Orthodox Churches that were illegal, unregistered, or unrecognized under Communist rule

The Russian Orthodox Church and Old Believers were both registered with the Communist government, but there were also 34 unregistered, illegal, and highly clandestine Orthodox denominations. All these churches rejected the Soviet regime and all churches that collaborated with it. The True Orthodox Church, for example, adheres to conservative Russian Orthodoxy in theology, liturgy, ritual, and church government. Lay leadership networks operate other churches.

Orthodox dissenting bodies and sub-Orthodox groups are also present within Russia. The Khlysty (Whippers) still preserve traditions of the original sect founded in the 17th century. Other groups include the New Israelites Brethren of Christ (also called Skoptsy or Castrated Ones), Dukhobors (Spirit-Wrestlers), and Molokans (Milkdrinkers) who were a million strong in 1917. All were highly clandestine and operated underground.

These dissenting Orthodox groups have a total of 70 congregations, with 140,541 members and 260,000 affiliates.

Catholic Church

Today, Catholics claim 300 congregations, with 974,026 members and 1,500,000 affiliates. The Stalin-Roosevelt accord of 1933 allowed an American priest to reside permanently in Moscow to minister to diplomats and their families.

In the U.S.S.R., there remained no Catholic diocese officially recognized. Many bishops were executed or killed after 1940. There was virtually no central leadership and no official contact with the Vatican. In 1991, the Vatican reorganized the Catholic presence in Russia and appointed one archbishop for Russia. This was strongly opposed by the Russian Orthodox Church and has produced strained relations between the two groups. The Russian Orthodox Church continues to issue statements condemning the Catholics' creation of new dioceses and Catholic proselytizing.

Armenian Apostolic Church

The Armenian Apostolic Church has 12 congregations, with 239,521 members and 400,000 affiliates.

Missiological Implications

Russia is a country in transition, searching for its identity. The collapse of Communism brought about increased opportunities for evangelism, church planting, theological education, and Bible translation. It is estimated that some 20% of the population went from being professed atheists to Christians during the Communism transition. The Bible is now freely available within Russia with between one and two million being distributed annually. Russia also contains many unreached people groups from Muslim, Buddhist, and superficially Orthodox backgrounds.

1. The Churches and Christians of Russia need to regain the respect of the people. The distrust of government, which is so widespread in Russia, translates to a distrust of all leadership, including church leadership. Churches and church leaders need to demonstrate their integrity, commitment, and willingness to serve to overcome this distrust. Many Russian Orthodox leaders compromised under Communism and were used as tools of the atheists. This has caused deep divisions within the church that have yet to heal. The Russian Orthodox Church has a reputation for being corrupted. They are often accused of bribery, awarding church positions for money, smuggling alcohol and tobacco, tax evasion, and money laundering. The impressions from these facts must be overturned, both by the Orthodox Churches, and even more importantly, by the evangelical churches.
2. The Russian church needs to rebound from years of intense persecution. It is estimated that between 1920 and 1990, 20 million people died in Russia prisons and another 16 million died en route to prison. Many of those who died were Christians. It is believed that 200,000 Christian leaders were martyred and another 500,000 imprisoned. There were 100,000 church owned buildings in 1920, many of them Orthodox, but that number was reduced to only 1,000 by 1940, the rest had been seized or destroyed. Many church leaders gave into the pressure and compromised with the Communist officials. Other church members were discriminated against, harassed, imprisoned, or forced to undergo psychiatric treatment. Thankfully, Communism's hold has weakened, but the effects of this persecution remains.
3. The Russian Orthodox Church should make positive use of its considerable influence on Russian society. After the fall of Communism, the number of people claiming Orthodox affiliation jumped from 30 million in 1985 to 60 million in 2000. The church continues to use various means to regain its exclusive spiritual dominance lost during Communist reign. The Russian Orthodox Church claims to be the one true apostolic church and therefore, regards all other faiths as invalid.
4. Evangelical churches must evangelize and disciple Russian people. After Communism, many foreign churches flocked to Russia beginning programs of evangelism. Results were rapid, but discipleship has been lacking. Once Russians have heard the gospel, programs of follow-up and discipling need to be

- available. Many that responded during evangelistic rallies have not been incorporated into the churches. In addition to these issues, many Russian Christians are moving from Russia to Western countries, especially Germany, which weakens Christian influence within Russia.
5. Evangelicals should establish an effective program for training church leaders. In 1998, there were 120 known theological institutions within Russia. The Euro-Asian Accreditation Association is working to establish common standards between these institutions. The majority of theological education is from foreign groups and needs to be indigenized. Theological Education by Extension is an important training tool and Bible Education by Extension (BEE) is now one of the largest groups in the world providing this training.
 6. Evangelicals must redouble the efforts to evangelize the youth of Russia. Many of Russia's youth remain disenfranchised and are beginning to experiment with other religious expressions including occultism. Evangelical churches must address the issues faced by the youth.
 7. Russian Christians must comprehend the importance of the Great Commission and begin planting indigenous churches. Most church planting efforts have been led by foreign groups, but Russian leaders need to be trained to effectively plant churches within Russia. Foreign ministry groups involved in church planting projects include Project 250 and the Alliance for Saturation Church Planting, which includes United World Mission, World Witness, CB International, International Mission Board – SBC, New Tribes Mission, The Evangelical Alliance Mission, The Bible League, Global Missions Fellowship, and others.
 8. Evangelicals should target the various ethnic and unreached people groups in the nation.
 - Non-ethnic Russians - Over 18% of the population is non-Russian and speaks nearly 100 languages. The Russian Churches need to develop a mission vision for reaching these people.
 - Muslims – Russia contains a large Muslim population and tensions between Muslim areas and Russia are reflected in the Chechnya conflict.
 - New Religionists – Many people have joined Hare Krishna and Jehovah's Witness groups. Other religious ideas that attract Russians include parapsychologists, hypnotists, shamanists, and Satanists. The Center for Apologetics Research works with pastors and churches to help them combat these groups.
 - Unreached People - Many ethnic minorities within Russia have no Evangelical witness or evangelism is in the early stages. These groups are scattered throughout the many republics. Chinese people that have immigrated to Russia are also in need of evangelism.

9. Evangelicals should reach out to the socially estranged groups and seek to provide viable congregations that can win and shepherd them.
 - a. Children – Some estimate 1.2 million street children within Russian cities and up to 650,000 orphans living in orphanages or prisons. Ministry to these children is necessary to direct them away from potential lives of crime and violence.
 - b. Upper Classes of Society – They view Christianity as a religion of the ethnic minorities, poor, or marginalized people.
 - c. Social Problems – Alcoholism, Drug Abuse, and AIDS are serious problems within Russia and the church should reach out to these with the love of Christ.
 - d. Prisoners – Over 1.7 million people are incarcerated and Liberty through Jesus works with these people, but more could be done.

10. Bible translation is needed for Russian minority groups.

The Bible Society of Russia, Institute for Bible Translation, and Wycliffe Bible Translators are working on 80 translation projects.

11. Bibles and Christian literature need to continually be distributed within Russia.

The Bible Society of Russia maintains a warehouse of Bibles and distributes about 2 million Bibles and New Testaments annually. Christian literature needs to be developed by Russians and issues over printing costs needs to be addressed.

12. Christian media is also an avenue of evangelization.

Christian radio, television programs, and the Jesus film all serve as important tools for spreading the gospel within Russia.

13. Evangelicals should pray for a sweeping revival of apostolic Christianity in all of Russia.

14. Evangelical churches should seek openings to aid existing churches in evangelism and church growth, while they seek avenues to aid these Christians in discipling the believers and training the local leaders.

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