The Shifting Protocols of the Visible:

The Becoming of Sergei Eisenstein’s *The Battleship Potemkin*

*Sergei Eisenstein, ‘On the Structure of Things’*

The dynamic of early cinema is highly resonant with some of the guiding principles of modernist aesthetics, according to which a work of art exists as a modal, processual entity. Indeed, if historians and archivists of early cinema are to be trusted, the way in which silent films materially exist should compel us to rethink the way we understand cinema as an art-form: not only are early films unstable because they are physically vulnerable (due to the quick deterioration decomposition and limited reproducibility of nitrate print), but they are also ephemeral in a more profound sense, due to the principal incompleteness and openness of film as an artistic medium. It is with this idea in mind that one of the foremost historians of early cinema Paolo Cherchi Usai has alerted us to the fact that the earliest films cannot be perceived as unitary, concluded wholes, but as *multiple objects*, which are “fragmented into a number of different entities equal to the
number of surviving copies”.² This proposition, in which the reference is primarily made to the material limitations of the medium, is relevant to the studies of early cinema more generally. The idea that any film principally exists as a multiple object, an open structure that can be subject to repetitive structural alterations not only by its assumed authors, its auteur (director) and/or its legal proprietor (producer), but also by the potentially endless collective of solicited and unsolicited co-authors, its editors, political censors, projectionists, critics, or even ordinary viewers, challenges our understanding of what the art of the moving image is. The potential unfinalizability of the moving image, the notion that cinema emerges as a fundamentally protean, open work of art³, blurs the boundaries between the acts of production, post-production and, ultimately, reception. In light of this postulation, the following question arises: what are the exact ramifications of the idea that cinema is a processual, ever-emerging artform and how is that idea affecting the ways in which on- and off-screen visual realities are constructed and perceived?

The production and post-production histories of Sergei Eisenstein’s Bronenosets Potemkin (The Battleship Potemkin, 1925) and the vicissitudes surrounding the construction of the visible in this early Soviet film offer a compelling set of answers to this question. Eisenstein’s film is customarily thought of as a superior result of much premeditation and meticulous planning, made tangible in its unique authorial aesthetics and leading ultimately to its canonical status in the histories of Soviet and global cinema. However, the five officially recognized versions of the film and the innumerable number of unofficial ones hide from our view an unappropriated, yet extremely valuable part of the history of Battleship Potemkin, the one that tells about the processual, emerging nature of this film. Following its theatrical release in 1925, this “editio princeps” of Eisenstein’s film was amended in April 1926 in Berlin by Eisenstein himself, after which the film received its second “original version”. After Eisenstein’s death in 1948, Potemkin
was institutionally re-edited at least three more times, which allows us to speak of another three internationally recognized cuts of the film: the first one of them was supervised by Grigorii Aleksandrov with Esfir’ Tobak at the editing desk in 1949/50; the second one was supervised in Moscow in 1975/6 by Sergei Yutkevich with the assistance of Naum Kleiman; the third and most recent rendition of the film was supervised by the German film historian and archivist Enno Patalas and executed under the auspices of Bundesfilm Archive Berlin and the Munich Film Museum in 2005. My ambition in this article is to revisit and somewhat unsettle the easy assertion of premeditation and finalizability of Eisenstein’s film through a focused discussion of the first three cuts of the film and their inter- and extra-textual interactions: the original, December 1925 version, the 1926 Berlin cut and the 1950 release of the film.

The suggestion that Battleship Potemkin, like many others in early cinema, may be conceived of as a synchronically and diachronically conditioned, open-ended process also interacts controversially with Eisenstein’s core artistic and political creeds; these hold that only the most careful arrangement of moving images may exert powerful impact upon the viewer, incite psycho-emotional pathos and make this previously indifferent viewer susceptible to receiving ideological content. From his earliest theoretical texts like “Montazh attraktsionov” (“The Montage of Attractions”, August 1923) to his more mature writings such as those published under the title Neravnodushnaia priroda (Nonindifferent nature 1940), Eisenstein emphatically argued for the mathematical calculability of this aesthetic impact. It is worth noting, however, that Eisenstein’s discursive strategies, of course, served not only as the evaluation, but also as social legitimation of his cinematic practice, assuring the longevity of its legacy in the ideologically volatile context of the Soviet cinema. Notably, in the 1920s, the self-built aura of the scientific rigor of Eisenstein’s artistic practice helped the young director distance his art from the aesthetic ineffectiveness (and
social precariousness) of the radical avant-garde circles he participated in, from the Proletarian Culture Movement (Proletkul’t)⁴ and Left Front in Art (Lef)⁵, to the Association of Revolutionary Cinema (ARK/ARRK)⁶. On the other hand, Eisenstein’s description of his own cinematic practice in terms of the Pythagorean idea of “golden section” (as the organically united whole)⁷ in the 1930s also fell on a fertile soil: it corresponded very well with the newly inaugurated “Empire style” and legitimised Eisenstein as an unlikely champion of Stalinist cinema. These paradoxes, which reveal many of Eisenstein’s core proclamations and purported aesthetic imperatives as unattainable in practice, are yet another incentive for the present article. The following pages refocalize our vision of Eisenstein’s Potemkin by paying critical attention to the procedures and protocols, socio-political mechanisms, as well as artistic strategies, that facilitated the communication between on-screen and off-screen realities and shaped decisively the emergence and constant reconstruction of the Potemkin text.

The Making and Re-making of Battleship Potemkin, Take One:

Early Film as an Iterable Medium

With its convoluted production history and dynamic local and international context of its reception, Eisenstein’s feature film The Battleship Potemkin provides essential insights into the processual nature of filmmaking. The shooting of Potemkin as we know it started on 28 September 1925 on locations in the Black Sea port of Odessa, six months since the production was approved by authorities and assigned to Eisenstein.⁸ Originally titled 1905, the scenario for the film included ten loosely related episodes set in the year of the failed Russian revolution. Only 43 shots of
Episode 2 were initially allocated for the coverage of the mutiny on the Imperial Navy armoured cruiser Prince Potemkin of Tauris on June 14/27 1905. Dissatisfied with the footage he and the cinematographer Aleksandr Levitskii had made in July and August 1925 on the locations in Moscow, Leningrad and Odessa, Eisenstein halted the production and embarked on a thorough revision of the screenplay, which, as of then, now concentrated on the event of the mutiny alone.

With the exception of the final sequence of the film, “Meeting the Squadron,” which remained to be completed by Eisenstein’s assistant Grigorii Aleksandrov in the director’s absence, the filming of Potemkin was finished in less than two months. Eisenstein returned from Odessa to Moscow on November 23 and the editing of 4,500 meters of footage began in a rapid manner, as the film was scheduled to pre-premiere at the Bolshoi Theatre on December 21. As Grigorii Aleksandrov later recalled, the final seaming of cuts was completed by Eisenstein on the very day of the premiere, which turned out to be three days after the initially scheduled date, on December 24.

The audiences at the Gala event at Bolshoi were ecstatic and it might have been for this enthusiastic reception that the Soviet cultural authorities promptly approved the film for theatrical distribution. Ironically (in hindsight), the intentions of the Commission of the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the USSR, the producer of Eisenstein’s film, were modest and above all ceremonial: to commemorate the twentieth anniversary of the 1905 popular uprising, a failed prequel to the October Revolution. When the proper theatrical life of Potemkin started on January 18 1926, the film proved to be an astounding success: according to the available data, in two theatres alone, the film was seen by nearly 70,000 people in the first twelve days of screening. If we take into account the fact that the distribution of Eisenstein’s film was strewn with difficulties due to monopolized distribution rights and limited number of copies, this reception of Potemkin is even more impressive.
Hoping to build on the film’s home success, the Soviet federal film board approved *Potemkin* for international distribution. On January 21 1926, a showing of *Potemkin* was held in Berlin to mark the second anniversary of Lenin’s death. Upon seeing the film, Willi Müntzenberg, the prominent German communist and Lenin’s friend from the latter’s immigration years, decided to set up a film distribution company *Prometheus Film*, which, on 26 February, purchased distribution rights for *Potemkin* – as well as the only negative of the film16. In order to obtain licence for public distribution, *Prometheus Film* submitted a copy of the film to a censorship commission, which comprised mainly police and military personnel. Well aware that the political climate in Weimar Germany in the aftermath of the March 1920 workers’ uprising was not favourable for the film’s revolutionary agenda17, Müntzenberg set up a team led by the well-known director of the so-called “proletariat films”, Philipp (Piel) Jutzi18, to act pre-emptively and re-edit the film to make it more suitable for the censors. By mid-March 1926, Jutzi’s team introduced a number of ostensibly minor and technical interventions into the original December 1925 cut: it divided the film into 6 acts (instead of 5), removed a certain number of shots depicting the state actors’ brutality, and others19. It was this re-edited version of the film that was shown to the censorship commission on March 17 1926 in Berlin. Although Jutzi’s changes moderated the revolutionary pathos of the film, the verdict of the commission was negative: on March 24 the Department of Film Affairs (2nd Chamber of Film Censorship) ruled that the *Battleship Potemkin* was threat to “public tranquillity and order” and voted to ban the film from public showing in Germany20. *Prometheus Film* appealed the decision and another meeting of the commission was scheduled for 10 April. Meanwhile, Jutzi’s cut of the film was re-edited again, now in the presence of Eisenstein and Tisse, who arrived in Berlin on March 18. The official purpose of Eisenstein’s and Tisse’s trip to Berlin was to “study the organisation, working methods and technical equipment
of German film studios”, which precludes film historians from making a firm stand on the question of Eisenstein’s actual involvement in the Berlin cut of his film.\textsuperscript{21} The question of Eisenstein’s participation in the re-edit is important, however, given that the interventions carried out during the late-March and early-April re-editing were considerable. If we assume that Eisenstein had a decisive input into Berlin re-editing of the film (both the one carried out by Jutzi alone before 17 March and the second one, probably made in collaboration, in the period between 18 March and 10 April), what remains confusing is the fact that Jutzi was named as the author/editor of the version that was submitted for the April meeting of the censorship commission\textsuperscript{22}. Likewise, if we agree with the suggestion that Jutzi made the changes regardless of, or contrary to Eisenstein’s opinion, the question that remains unanswered is to what extent Eisenstein would accept and keep the type of changes that were made\textsuperscript{23}?

Despite the concerted efforts to reduce the scenes of revolutionary pathos in the original cut, the Censorship Committee, which met on April 10, came up with new demands: Prometheus Film was required to remove further 14 shots from Acts Two and Four of the Jutzi-Eisenstein cut, totalling to around 30 meters of filmed and edited material. All of the required changes were implemented and the first international cut of the \textit{Battleship Potemkin} premiered on 29 April in the Apollo Theatre in Berlin before the audience of 3,000. The final Berlin cut of the film differed from the December 1925 version in three aspects: a series of shots depicting “extreme brutality” were excised, the order of episodes within sequences was altered, and the original musical score written by Edmund Meisel was added. The Berlin 1926 cut of the film remained the basis for practically all subsequent versions of the film – and therefore informed all the lay, artistic and scholarly audiences’ responses to it – until mid-1950s. The reason for this unusual destiny of the film lies in the fact that, along with distribution rights, Prometheus Film also purchased the only
negative of the film. The following pages will elucidate the socio-political and aesthetic mechanisms that gave rise to the first two types of interventions and then examine the ways in which these changes reorganised the visual and narrative regimes of Eisenstein’s film and made our understanding of it a complex and potentially indeterminate affair.

The Making and Re-making of Battleship Potemkin, Take Two:

“How are Different Parts put Together”?

In March-April 1922 Eisenstein visited his friend, the actor Leonid Obolenskii and listened attentively as the latter related to him Lev Kuleshov’s recent cinematic experiments. At the end of it, Eisenstein had only one urgent question for Obolenskii: “How are different parts put together?”24 This first reaction to the idea of cinematic montage – later to eventuate in a number of Eisenstein’s direct interactions with Kuleshov – would inform all Eisenstein’s future engagement with the subject and become central to his film philosophy. And the question of how to put different parts together would have been very much at the forefront of his mind when both constructing and re-constructing Battleship Potemkin for German audience in the spring of 1926.

As suggested before, Jutzi and Eisenstein were governed by pragmatic concern of responding to an ideological dictate: they complied closely with the requests by the German Chamber of Film Censorship, as a result of which 14 sections identified in the Chamber’s report as problematic (4 from Act 2, and 10 from Act 4)25 were dealt with without delay. As a matter of principle, individual shots containing the most graphic depiction of violent acts were removed, but the episodes and larger sequences remained. The way in which the censorship-requested cuts were implemented can be demonstrated through the examples from two episodes taken from the
“Odessa Steps” scene in Act Four. In the first of these, a series of close-ups from the “Mother and Son” episode depicting the wounded child crying for help while being stomped over by the panicking crowd were removed.

[INSERT 1: TWO STILLS FROM THE ORIGINAL 1925 CUT; CAPTION: Two shots from the 1925 cut of Battleship Potemkin, excised in the 1926 Berlin cut of the Battleship Potemkin]

The portrayal of extreme violence visually organized through the juxtaposition of close-ups of the boy’s anguish, close-ups of his mother’s horror, and medium shots of the panicking crowd, was moderated in the April 1926 cut to, solely, a few medium shots of the boy’s expressionless body, a close-up of his mother’s anguish, and a medium shot of the crowd.

[INSERT 2: TWO STILLS FROM THE 1926 BERLIN CUT; CAPTION: The same sequence in the 1926 Berlin cut of the Battleship Potemkin]

The framing of the boy’s death, which in the previous version was sending the message of high pathos is now rearticulated through the more distanced and less engaging medium shots: first, of a woman stumbling upon the boy’s body, and then of a man making efforts to avoid stepping on the boy’s legs. In other words, the informational aspect of the message is communicated, but its affective capacity to incite pathos is toned down.

Later within the same episode, medium shots depicting the unit of Cossacks firing cold-bloodedly at the mother and her child and then executing them were also cut:
Having eliminated the shots that capture the moment in which the Cossack unit fires at the mother and child, the ending of the episode showing the troops as they march down the stairs over the bodies of the mother and her child is framed distantly in an MS:

Likewise, in the so-called “Pram Episode”, the extreme close up (ECU) depicting the waist of a woman shot by the Cossacks, which showed the trace of blood, had to be cut; the ECU without blood stains remained.

In the censored cut we see only one close up (CU) of the woman’s waist, before she is hit by a bullet, and we realize that she was wounded only by her facial expression in the following CU of her face, not by the ECU showing blood on her belt.
The finale of the episode was also deemed too graphic: when the pram reaches the foot of the stairs, it tips over. In the original edit, this was followed by the quick succession of four ECU’s of a Cossack officer drawing his shashka and slaying the lady with pince-nez:


The re-edited version leaves these shots out and quickly juxtaposes the medium shot (MS) of the pram (instead of the massacred lady with pince-nez) with the MS of the turning tower of the battleship as it prepares for its retaliatory cannonade. By this intervention a highly affective charge of the episode with its tragic pathos is watered down by an anticipated compensatory action.

[INSERT 7: A STILL FROM THE BERLIN CUT: THE NEW ENDING OF “THE PRAM EPISODE”]

So, cumulatively, what effect did this rearrangement of the visual order have on the structuring of the object of cinematic representation in the Battleship Potemkin? Or, taking into account Christian Metz’s description of the specificity of the cinematic medium as the “absence of the object seen,” the question could be reformulated as follows: what was the impact that the interventions in the changed economy of the visible in Potemkin had on the construction of the film’s “imaginary object”\(^{27}\). First, the censorship commission’s interventions lay bare both the operation of and the radical incommensurability between the two visual orders through which Eisenstein’s film, as a cinematic art object, attempts to systematise the way in which we see and
understand the world around us in two different cuts. The first of the two visual regimes that structure Eisenstein’s *Battleship Potemkin* populates the field of the visible with the images of anguish and suffering, while the other restricts the visualization of these affects. It could therefore be said that the two cuts of the film differ primarily in the protocols that are setting the rules of rendering human affects and suffering visible. Second, to draw attention to this difference means also to shed light on the mechanisms by which the moving image communicates the evasive object of its representation. For, it was not the object, or the *signified*, (violence, suffering, or political oppression) that was at stake, but the visual *signifier* itself. Rather remarkably, the censorship commission did not object the reference to, or even the *factual* depiction of the atrocious killing of a boy and his mother, but the way in which the killing was signified and rendered visible.

This attention to the structuring of the “scopic regime” of *Potemkin* is telling of something that is important for our theme: namely, the unique capacity of the visual signifier to communicate through excess what is absent and/or unnamable. For that reason, the censorship commission’s intervention into the visual organization of affects must be seen as a preeminently political act; and, vice versa, Eisenstein’s excessive figuration of affects must be seen as a political gesture *par excellence*. The pivotal concept of Eisenstein’s early aesthetics, the *montage of attractions*, is premised on the structuring and visual rendition of human affects for the purpose of political mobilization of the spectator: in order for that to happen, the spectator must be exposed to the scenes of suffering and brought to the state of profound emotional shock. As Eisenstein puts it in his key early text “Montage of Attractions”, this critical stratagem involves “[…] aggressive moment […] that subjects the audience to an emotional or psychological influence […] in order to produce specific emotional shocks in the spectator”. These much quoted words are usually understood in the following way: in order to be transformed into a revolutionary subject, the
spectator must first be exposed to a certain protocol of pathos and excess, or, the tendentiously arranged (through editing) images of aggression and violence. But there is one important aspect of this iron law of Eisenstein’s aesthetics that has often been neglected: the critical aspect of this structured exposure to the power of the visual lies in the capacity of the visual to convey and channel the affective excess. The absent and unnamable object of cinema cannot be communicated otherwise but through excess: only the emphatic visualization (multiple close-ups) of affective content (anguish and suffering of children) performs the naming of the unnamable. In Eisenstein’s Potemkin, it was precisely the protocol, the visual figuration of the political message through excess, which enabled the communication of that message and, unsurprisingly, it was this excess that was identified as a threat by the censorship commission of the Weimar Republic.

The history of repeated “getting different parts together” of Eisenstein’s film is long and ongoing at various levels and through different instantiations; and the story of the consequences such reconstructions have for our engagement with the protocols of seeing in Potemkin is, likewise, rich. However, the present account of the signature cuts of Eisenstein’s film and their ideological re-cutting would not be complete without one more stop: the 1950 Soviet release of the film. Produced two years after Eisenstein’s death to mark the 25th anniversary of the first theatrical release of the film, the first and only Stalin-era cut runs under 63 minutes and presents the shortest version of Potemkin. The 1950 version, which was supervised by Aleksandrov and re-edited by Esfir’ Tobak30, surprises the Eisenstein scholar by its complete reliance on the 1926 Berlin cut. Indeed, with exception of Edmund Meisel’s score, which was replaced by the new one written by the Soviet composer Nikolai Kriukov31, in most critical scenes of the film the 1950 version complies with the April 1926 Berlin cut. This also applies to the crucial scenes from the Act Four of Potemkin where the 1950 version of the film copies verbatim the censored version of the scenes.
This reliance on the censored cut comes as a surprise in light of the immediate historical context – of the strong anti-German sentiments in the USSR in the aftermath of World War II – and, perhaps more importantly, in light of the fact that the negative of the original cut of *Potemkin* was available. The latter “miraculously” appeared in Moscow in either 1939 (perhaps corollary to the August 1939 Molotov-Ribbentrop pact) or 1945 (as a spoil of victory after the 1945 defeat of Nazi Germany).^32^

The editors of the 1950 version of *Potemkin* retained the censorship interventions that came with the Berlin cut, but, in addition, they idiosyncratically restored the original intertitles to the film, which were authored by the poet Nikolai Aseev and the multi-talented avant-garde figure Sergei Tret’iakov. For example, in Act Three (intertitled “A Dead Man Calls for Justice”), during a public rally which spontaneously developed from a vigil at the body of Grigorii Vakulenchuk, the murdered leader of the mutiny, a mid-aged man from the crowd (“chernosotenets”, or “member of the black hundreds”, according to Eisenstein’s casting type)^33^ shouts an anti-Semitic insult at an agitated speaker, a young woman of noticeable Jewish features (in Eisenstein’s casting notes – “bundistka”, or “member of the Bund Party”).^34^ As a result, the man is lynched by an angry mob of people. In the December 1925 cut, the scene of the lynch is immediately preceded by the intertitles “Beat the Jew” [*bei zhidov!*], so that the irritated looks of the crowd and subsequent lynch are not perceived as a random act of violence, but, rather, as an act of solidarity with the agitators and the moment of realization (presumably, on the part of the reticent majority) that everyone, Jews and Russians alike, have a common enemy, namely, the Tsarist oppression.

[INSERT 8: AN INTERTITLE AND A STILL FROM THE ORIGINAL CUT: “Beat the Jews!” AND “LYNCH”]
In the 1950 cut, however, the intertitles with the anti-Semitic rant are removed. From a narrative point of view, the motif for popular reaction is now removed and the symbolic register of the entire scene shifts: from serving as a symbol of the popular unity of diverse ethnicities against oppression, the scene now turns into incomprehensible mob violence.


In tune with this de-specification of perpetrators and victims, and overall semantic generalisation the original intertitles that feature in the 1950 cut underwent a slight, but ideologically telling alteration. From emphasis on equality and amity of the people (“Let there not be any difference and enmity amongst us”), the message shifts to one of more neutral “togetherness” (“We shall fight for freedom together”).

[INSERT 10: TWO INTERTITLES: ONE FROM THE ORIGINAL CUT AND ONE FROM THE 1950 CUT]

This new figuration of the visible in Potemkin reveals the emergence of the “scopic regime” of high Stalinism, which evocatively reflects the societal values and ideologems of a particularly complex moment in Soviet history. Exhausted and traumatized by the War, the Soviet state struggled to adjust to its new global position. In the early days of the Cold War, the sense of increasing global insecurity triggered a number of “protective” mechanisms at the level of domestic policy. The most alarming one was what has now become known as the the “anti-
cosmopolitan campaign”, that is, a state-sponsored “identification” and “targeting” of “internationalism” and “rootless cosmopolitanism” in practically every sphere of social life. For a variety of reasons, none of which can be discussed in this paper at any length, the “anti-cosmopolitan campaign” had markedly anti-Semitic colour.\textsuperscript{35} Hence, the contrastive juxtaposition of the revolutionary Jews and the retrograde, or reticent, Russians, so clearly gestured in the 1925 cut, became implausible, even precarious, in the tide of xenophobic national unity that characterizes late Stalin years.

**The Making and Re-making of Battleship Potemkin, Take Three:**

**Telling the Tale of Death**

Here I would like to return to the 1926 Berlin cut of *Potemkin* once again, to draw attention to another type of changes which this cut of the film introduced and which altered the film’s “scopic regime” in ideologically telling ways. These involve a number of modifications in the order of episodes within certain important sequences in the film. Although less visible to the eye of an average observer than the changes that inflicted the physical loss of film material, these alterations bequeath enough controversies to merit discussion.

The visual rearrangement of the narrative in Act 2, known as “Drama on the Quarter-Deck” (“Drama na Tendre”\textsuperscript{36}) is particularly illuminating in this context. The 17’20’’ long Act Two of the film was, just like other acts in the film, carefully structured in two parts\textsuperscript{37}: while the first part (app. 8’50’’ in length) shows the gradual development of the mutiny and culminates with its outbreak, the second, only slightly shorter part stages a battle between the seamen and their officers, which ends with the sailors’ exultant celebration of their triumph. The treatment of one
highly resonant episode from the second part of Act Two – the killing of the seamen’s leader Vakulenchuk – differs considerably in the 1925 and the Berlin cut. In the original cut Vakulenchuk is shot by the loyalist officer Ippolit Giliarovskii (impersonated in the film by Grigorii Aleksandrov himself) after the victorious resolution of the mutiny, whereas in the Berlin 1926 cut the killing takes place at the beginning of the mutiny and is positioned half-way into Act Two. The second of these (the Berlin version), while not being an alteration requested by the censors, appears more in line with the principle of causality and the narrative arch of Aristotelian dramaturgy. With this insight in mind, we may first pose the question why Eisenstein deviated from the “expected,” narratively effective organisation of the episode, in the 1925 cut in the first place? Arguably, it was not for the lack of skill that Eisenstein opted for this idiosyncratic narrative line. Rather, I would argue, this dramaturgical coil bears import for our understanding of some premises of Eisenstein’s early aesthetics. The positioning of Vakulenchuk’s death after the end of the mutiny has specific effects for the narrative and ideological economy of Act Two and the film as a whole. It could be said that, from a purely dramaturgical point of view, the posterior staging of Vakulenchuk’s death exerted anti-climactic impact on the episode and was meant to be understood as a sobering coda to the overall jubilant atmosphere of the denouement in Act Two. By situating Vakulenchuk’s murder after the triumph, Eisenstein stages the act of rebellion beyond the narrative motivational cycle based on the principles of cause and effect; thereby he presents the rebellion as an act of political, ethical, and even universal justice, not necessarily bound by individual, or site-specific, causes. At the same time, this ordering of episodes institutes the 1905 murder of Vakulenchuk as an anticipatory gesture, one that requires and precipitates a response, the one that happened in 1917. The last semantic scope is completely in line with a deeper symbolic logic of Battleship Potemkin, as throughout the film the rebellion is presented as a synecdoche, or a
symbolic anticipation of the Revolution. What appeared to some as an aberration from dramaturgical conventions or simply a mistake in directorial organisation of Act Two, was in fact an extraordinary aesthetic-cum-ideological manoeuvre: by circumventing the principles of cause and effect and subverting the dramaturgical order, Eisenstein makes a powerful statement of the pre-eminence of the political over the narrative. As suggested earlier in the text, Eisenstein’s purposeful disregard for dramatic principles may seem baffling from the perspective of Eisenstein’s later reflexions on *Potemkin*, where he imputed that each episode of the film was structured meticulously to meet the Pythagorean “golden section” and maximise its impact upon the viewer. But if one puts Eisenstein’s dramaturgical practice in *Potemkin* in the context of his attempts to theorize his approach to filmmaking in the 1920s, one can see that, in these writings as well as in Eisenstein’s practice of that period, the issue of narrative economy, understood in a formalist sense of the word, was secondary to the question of juxtapositional editing of dynamic/ex-centric shots, capable of releasing affective potential and ultimately exerting ideological impact upon the viewer.

Before I further assess the import of dramaturgical rearrangement for Eisenstein at the time of his work on *Potemkin*, I will examine the subsequent treatment of the episode of Vakulenchuk’s killing in the Berlin cut. Most likely with Eisenstein’s consent, the April 1926 cut alters the place of the episode by moving it to the beginning of the second part of Act Two to precede the outbreak of the mutiny, thereby turning it into the immediate cause of the uprising. In the light of what I have argued above, one has to pose the question: what could have been the motif of an author as uncompromising as Eisenstein to concede a potentially far-reaching, yet unrequested change? The incentive for the change may have come from the Russian formalist critic and Eisenstein’s acquaintance Viktor Shklovsky, who objected as early as in January 1926 that the killing of
Vakulenchuk should have happened earlier in the Act Two. The semantic and affective consequences of the re-ordering of episodes in Act Two are interesting. From the dramaturgical point of view, the narrative ties between the first and the second part of Act Two are undoubtedly tighter in this version, insofar as the mutiny now emerges as the immediate upshot of Vakulenchuk’s death. The murder itself emerges as somewhat less motivated, but remains probable enough in the new cut, as it is still perceived as a violent and oppressive act whose perpetrators are known and given their due. But this is not the whole story. In order to elucidate further Eisenstein’s concession to narrative economy in the April 1926 cut as well as his unorthodox earlier treatment of the narrative in the original 1925 cut, let me expand this investigation by specifying how exactly the dramaturgy of Potemkin in two cuts relates to the aesthetic iconoclasm of the early Soviet avant-garde, the cultural milieu that exerted formative impact on Eisenstein’s early art.

It is hardly a secret that Eisenstein’s ideas on dramaturgy and his understanding of performing arts in general were profoundly informed by his “apprenticeship” in the theatrical workshop of Vsevolod Meyerhold and in the orbit of the Proletkul’t movement. The concepts such as attractions, biomechanics, eccentric acting, or pathos, categories that Eisenstein repeatedly uses in early 1920s as well as later in life, all originate in the aforementioned sources. Eisenstein’s own idea of a new theatrical language, which would be suitable for the revolutionary theatre that transforms the lives of its viewers, was based on the rejection of the expressive repertoire of the nineteenth century theatre and on the commitment to harnessing the expressive potential of the hitherto unrecognized para-theatrical forms and genres that include circus, variety theatre, and, certainly, the moving image. This pursuit of a new form of expression led the young Eisenstein to embark on his first theatrical production, the adaptation of Russian nineteenth century
playwright Aleksandr Ostrovskii’s play *Na vsiakogo mudretsya dovol’no prostoty* (*Enough Stupidity in Every Wise Man*)\(^{45}\). Produced in 1923 under the auspices of the Proletkul’t theatre, Eisenstein’s adaptation of this work subjugates the narrative aspects of the play to its non-representational means – attractions. In his/her review of the performance, entitled “Opyt teatral’noi raboty” (“The Theatrical Experience” / “The Experience of Working in Theatre”), the author “Raketa” (“the Rocket”, a pseudonym that was for a long time mistakenly believed to hide Eisenstein himself)\(^ {46}\) explains this staging on the grounds of a radically new theatrical vision: in contrast to the old bourgeois “theatre of illusions” [*illiuzornyi teatr*], the “active theatre” [*deistvennyi teatr*], the reader is instructed, does not try to conceal its “assault on the spectator’s psyche by [using] mimetic representation and [by] pretending” [“ne podrazhaiushchii, ne ‘delaiushchii vid’”]; instead, the actor of the new style is a skillful performer who is “working for real [vzapravdu] with his own muscles”\(^ {47}\). In other words, instead of the empathetic principles of traditional drama, the new theatre deploys the array of bodily and visceral expressive means, which are termed *attractions*. The dramaturgical significance of *attractions*, the author suggests, lies in their relative independence from the traditionally understood plot structure. As a Soviet film historian has observed, the author “Raketa” appears even to propose that, the less integrated into the dramaturgical fabric, the more unexpected and more effective the “attraction” is.\(^ {48}\)

A similar premise runs through Eisenstein’s collaboration with another avant-garde powerhouse of the Soviet 1920s, the artistic collective Lef and their governing idea, most eloquently articulated by Nikolai Chuzhak, that the task of the Soviet artist is *not to grasp, explain or mimetically represent the world*, but to master the science of reflexes\(^ {49}\).

The belief that mimetic representation and causal organization of the narrative alone are insufficient to transmit revolutionary ideas in art figured importantly in the performance section
of the Proletkul’t movement, Lef, and in Eisenstein’s own theatre practice. The same conviction continues to inform Eisenstein’s work in the 1920s, I argue, and most directly contributes to the figuration of the order of the sequence—“Drama on the Quarter-Deck” sequence in the original cut of Battleship Potemkin.50 Here, as in his theatre work, Eisenstein seems to be primarily interested in the effects that the performative regime, or the particular staging of the episode, will have on the way we see the world. If, as was the case in the original cut of Potemkin, the death of Vakulenchuk in the hands of oppressors is freed from the narrative principles of causality, this will be an act of monumentalizing the class struggle of the Russian proletariat as a whole. Conversely, by interweaving the death into the principles of causality, the Berlin cut of the film sacrifices the ethos of rebellion for the rules of dramaturgical conventions. The anteriorization of Vakulenchuk’s killing relegates the meaning of the seamen’s rebellion from an anticipation of revolutionary change to a functional part in a causally segmented narrative. En route, the alteration in the visual protocol of the mutiny impacts the viewer’s affective and semantic appropriation of this event, from a symbolically charged, leap-like interaction with the subsequent history (the Soviet viewer’s present) to an orderly, causality-based immersion into the diegetic world of the film. What the seemingly minute reordering of the sequence in Act Two of Potemkin in the Berlin cut thus performs is a “narrativization” of sociohistorical laws, a retranscription of a belief in the inevitability of revolutionary change from a teleological postulate to a circumstantial occurrence.

If these are the outcomes of the Berlin re-editing of The Battleship Potemkin, then we might be on the path of articulating one of the key moments in Eisenstein’s early creative trajectory, a conceptual junction in which the anti-narrative impulse of his early avant-garde years encounters and negotiates what the political theorist Davide Panagia has identified as the rule of narrative, or the narratocracy of representative regimes. Panagia uses the latter concept to indicate the necessity
of all human practices, ideas, art-works, or real-life events to be transcribed through certain “perceptual fields,” that is, “genres,” or “discourses” in order to be “rendered visible.” Rendering our experience visible emerges as an imperative inasmuch as any human practice, in order to be communicated and understood, must first be made intelligible, that is, adapted to the conditions of readability, which are, by necessity, external to that practice. There is nothing wrong in this need for human practices to adjust to external societal environment, Panagia suggests, and it is with this lens that we should cast our view on Eisenstein’s “submission to narratocracy.”

But, before I bring this part of discussion to a conclusion, let me reiterate the real stakes of the wager. The treatment of the episode of Vakulenchuk’s murder in two versions of Potemkin is indicative of the ways in which the transcription of the political into aesthetically normative regime reduces the political potential of the episode. In the original cut, the ringleader of the mutiny Vakulenchuk dies regardless of the position of that event in the overall narrative economy of the episode, Act Two, or film as a whole. In what we might term the universally political regime of art, cardinal events need no translation/transition in order to become visible: Vakulenchuk’s appearance, his actions and ultimately his death signify in their own right, by virtue of partaking in an inevitable, teleological historical process. Or, in terms of classical poetics, Vakulenchuk dies not to cathartically purify the viewer from the “emotions of pity and fear,” but quite the opposite, to retain these powerful emotional states in order to harness them, exert impact upon the viewer and incite action.

Eisenstein’s vacillating position on the question of narrative probability, which has not remained unnoticed by Eisenstein scholarship, should be likewise viewed in the context of the author’s adjustment to external normative procedures. The question then is no longer that of whether or not the historical mutiny on the imperial battleship Prince Potemkin of Tauris happened
precisely in the way it was depicted by Eisenstein, an objection voiced in some of the earliest assessments of Eisenstein’s cinematic treatment; nor is it indeed the one of Eisenstein’s compliance with what probability in the traditional sense of the word might be. The issue that should preoccupy our attention, this article has argued, is that of the interaction between Potemkin as a cinematic text and the principles that govern its emergence and transmission in various contexts of its appropriation. When, precisely in 1926, Eisenstein exclaimed “Strike is a treatise; Potemkin is a hymn”, he also drew our attention to the critical juncture of his early career in which his self-legitimate, experimental aesthetics is negotiated through its encounter with the aesthetics of narrative cinema a normative aesthetic field, the cinematic art itself.

Conclusion

This article has identified and articulated the series of specific transitions that Sergei Eisenstein’s film The Battleship Potemkin underwent in the period after its release in December 1925. These transitions took place in Eisenstein’s encounter with, and adjustment to the constantly changing social, political and cultural contexts of the film’s reception and ensuing aesthetic regimes. Each of these transitional moves, those that were mandated by various censorial bodies as well as those initiated by Eisenstein himself, involved important interventions into the visual economy, or the “regime” of the original version of Potemkin. In these multiple transitions, the world of Eisenstein’s film was made to conform to a variety of external, ethical, ideological and aesthetic protocols, or organised belief systems. In these encounters with external protocols of the visible, the semiotic repository of values in Potemkin delicately but importantly morphed: from the excessive pathos that dominates the visual discourse of Potemkin in its early-Soviet revolutionary
articulation, to the more contained visuality of the Weimar Republic; from the self-conscious resistance to narrative conventions, to conforming to the principles of Western dramaturgy. Paolo Cherchi-Usai’s suggestion about the principal openness of early films, the idea that, due to a number of factors that affect their materiality as well as their long-disputed status as an art-form, early films exist as *multiple objects*, provided an initial impulse for the re-examination of these transitions and transformations of the *Battleship Potemkin*. The interaction of Eisenstein’s film with various social stimuli not only confirmed, but also productively developed Cherchi-Usai’s conceptualization to accommodate a new hypothesis about the adaptability of the moving image to external stimuli and consequently, and the arbitrariness of any strong assumptions we might have about it. The analytical framework I have chosen for this investigation supplied my project with its most valuable critical tools, but it also set limits to it. On the one hand, the idea of the iterability of the cinematic medium provided the epistemological framework for the only possible understanding of the multiple emergences of the *Battleship Potemkin* and socio-aesthetic vicissitudes that have accompanied this process. On the other hand, the idea that early cinema operates as an unstable medium gave rise to a certain inconclusiveness of this discussion. The final outcome of this article is thus the revelation of the spectrum of mechanisms that initiate the continuous and potentially inconclusive historical re-emergence of the *Battleship Potemkin* rather than a provision of a conclusive answer about the “meaning” of Eisenstein’s film. Within this remit, the article has charted some new territories for Eisenstein studies: it has identified a specific historical, socio-political, and aesthetic transition that Eisenstein’s key early film has traversed in its varied “cuts”, but it also illuminated the affective spaces that emerge in these transitional moments as the sites of extremely dense encounters of seismic historical processes, individual creative aspirations, and circumstantial occurrences. Out of this inquiry, Eisenstein’s film, in
through all each of its historical incarnations, appears as a multiple object, a resultant of complex factors, which govern the structuring of the film as such and set the rules for our engagement with it.

**Filmography:**


Notes


3 For the Italian semiotician Umberto Eco “openness” is the fundamental quality of modernist art in general. See Umberto Eco, *The Open Work*, Trans. by Anna Cancogni (Cambridge, MA: Harvard UP, 1989), especially pp. 1-24 and 44-83. On the now widespread concept of unfinalizability [*nezavershennost’*, *nezavershimost’*], which was put forward by the Russian critic Mikhail Bakhtin to suggest that the artistic production in the form of novelistic discourse, just like the human existence, is an ongoing and inconclusive process, see Mikhail Bakhtin, *The Problems of Dostoevsky’s Poetics*, ed. and trans. by Caryl Emerson (Austin: University of Texas Press, 1981), p. 117, *passim*.

4 An acronym for Proletarian cultural-educational organisations [Proletarskie kul’turo-prosvetitel’nye organizatsii], Proletkult [proletkul’t], a semi-official umbrella organization active in the period 1917-1932, aiming to promote new, revolutionary mode of cultural expression.

5 The Left Front of Art [Levyi front iskusstv] was an association of the futurist wing of Russian avant-garde writers, critics and visual artists. Founded and presided by the revolutionary poet Vladimir Mayakovsky, the association was active in Moscow in the period 1922-1928.

6 The Association of Revolutionary Cinema [Assotsiatsiia revoliutsionnoi kinematografii], or later, The Association of Revolutionary Workers in Cinema [Assotsiatsiia rabotnikov revoliutsionnoi kinematografii] was founded in 1924 in Moscow in reaction to/resemblance with the literary movement RAPP [Revolutionary Association of Proletarian Writers] (see, Kenz 104-5; Kaganovsky and Salazkina pp. 84-86). Although one of its founding members, Eisenstein kept a distance from the association, which, strictly speaking, had no programme and agenda.

When the news of the postponement of the Revolution of 1905 was made in March 1905, Nina Agadzhanova-Shutko and V. Nevskee were both commissioned to produce scenarios dedicated to the events of 1905. In June, Agadzhanova-Shutko’s screenplay was still in progress, but another one by Shchegolev was also produced. In early July 1925, Agadzhanova-Shutko’s screenplay from Potemkin, which comprised 10 parts, was accepted and initial shooting started almost immediately. See N. Kleiman i K. Levina, Bronenosets Potemkin (Moscow: Iskusstvo, 1969), p. 24 passim.


Eisenstein’s first choice of cinematographer was Eduard Tisse, with whom he had collaborated on his debut film Strike. However, Tisse was at the same time working on Aleksei Granovskii’s Jewish Luck [Evreiskooe shchast’e], so Eisenstein agreed to take Aleksandr Levitskii instead. After two months, Levitskii leaves the production, and suggests Eisenstein to employ Alexandr Stanke, who happened to be in Odessa at the time, working on Vladimir Gardin’s Cross and Mauser [Krest i Mauzer]. Eisenstein seems to have been apprehensive of Stanke’s style, which was influenced by German expressionism, and replaced him first by the veteran cinematographer Evgenii Slavinskii, who also happened to be in Odessa working on Abram Room’s Bukhta smerti [The Bay of Death] and then finally by Tisse in late September 1925. See Oksana Bulgakowa, Sergei Eisenstein. A Biography (Berlin: Potemkin Press, 2002), p. 58; Rostovtsev, p. 73; Kleiman i Levina, op. cit. p. 63.

This sudden shift of direction and thorough reworking of the initial scenario led many to believe that Eisenstein was filming Potemkin without screenplay in the classical sense of the word. See Rostislav Iurenev, Sergei Eizenshtein: Zamysly. Fil’my. Metod. Chast’ perviaia. 1898-1929 (Moscow: Iskusstvo, 1988), pp. 115-6.

Potemkin pre-premiered on 24 December at Bolshoi Theatre in Moscow three days after the initially scheduled time (pace Taylor 2007, 11, Bulgakowa 60). According to Aleksandrov, by the time he dispatched the last reel to the Bolshoi on his motorcycle, the screening of the film had already begun. When the news of the postponement of the premiere for three days reached Eisenstein and his team, it came as a “lifesaver”, as the editing of the film was far from over. See Grigorii Aleksandrov. Epokha i kino (Moscow: Izdatel’stvo politicheskoi literature. 1974), pp. 84-5.

The production cost of Potemkin suggests that Eisenstein’s film was indeed envisaged as a historical monument, rather than as a commercial commodity. The overall cost of Potemkin was 100,000 roubles, which was average by the standard of the day. For example, Aleksandr Ivanovskii’s Dekabristy (The Decembrists), which entered production in 1926, cost exactly four times the amount. See Bulgakowa, op. cit. p. 62.

For a succinct but competent coverage of major events related to the popular revolution in Russia in 1905 see Abraham Ascher, The Revolution of 1905: A Short History (Stanford: Stanford University Press, 2004).

By comparison, the United Artists production of Robin Hood, featuring the undisputed king of Soviet movie theatres Douglas Fairbanks, was seen by 55,000. See Kleiman i Levina, p. 215.

In 1921 Müntzberg founded the Workers International Relief (Internationale Arbeiter-Hilfe, IAH), an organisation that initially aimed to provide help to a drought and famine hit Volga region. Workers International Relief, or Mezhrabpom, as its Soviet branch was known, went on to become one of the most important channels of cultural communication between Soviet Union and the West. A subsidiary of Internationale Arbeiter-Hilfe, Prometheus becomes the germ of what was going to become IAH’s most successful Soviet cultural venture, production company Mezhrabpom Rus’.

In response to the attempted right-wing coup on 13 March 1920 (the so-called Kapp Putsch), a large-scale armed rebellion erupted in the industrial region of Ruhr in late March. The insurgence, now known as the Ruhr Uprising involved around 50,000 workers and supporters of the German social democratic party and it spread around the Ruhr area with the aim of taking political power. The rebellion was brutally suppressed by the German Army and right-wing volunteer units within two weeks and it lead to over 1,000 casualties.

Jutzi would go on to direct the first cinematic adaptation of Alfred Döblin’s Berlin Alexanderplatz in 1931; in 1933, he would join the Nazi Party.


Taylor, op. cit., p. 100.

Naum Kleiman bases his arguments in favour of Eisenstein’s crucial input in the April 1926 re-editing on the assumption that Eisenstein and Tisse would not have been given permission to travel to Germany so promptly, if it wasn’t for such an important task. See Naum Kleiman’s commentary no. 5 to Enno Patalas’s article “Khozhdeniia po mukam”’, op. cit. p. 282. See also Patalas, “The Odyssey of the Battleship. On the Reconstruction of Potemkin at the Filmmuseum Berlin”, The Journal of Film Preservation, Vol. 70 (2005), p. 40, and Kleiman’s and Patalas’s oral
testimonies in Artem Demenok’s documentary film *Dem Panzerkreuzer Potemkin auf der Spur* (Tracing The Battleship Potemkin, 2007).

23 Patalas, who supervised the most recent and most successful restoration of *Potemkin* believes that Eisenstein was profoundly unhappy with the extent of interventions made on the original version of Potemkin in April 1926. However, Patalas’s claims that Eisenstein voiced his dissatisfaction with the April 1926 changes remain undocumented. Cf. Demenok, *Tracing Battleship Potemkin*.

24 The conversation between Eisenstein and Obolenskii, dating March-April 1922, is said to have presented Eisenstein’s first encounter with the idea of cinematic montage. See Leonid Obolenskii, “Ot chechetki k psikhologii dvizheniiia” in R. Iurenev, *Eizenshtein v vospominanitakh sovremennikov* (Moscow: Iskusstvo, 1974), p. 152. By the end of 1922 Eisenstein and Kuleshov met and established a short-lasting, but productive exchange, which was going to transform the history of cinematic art like hardly any other before or after. As Kuleshov later recalled, Eisenstein would come for months to Kuleshov’s workshop, which was located at Zon’s Operetta Theatre, sitting, taking notes and making drawings on editing practice. At one point, Eisenstein gave a talk on “physical culture”, that is, biomechanics, to Kuleshov’s amateur actors (*naturshchiki*). In return, Kuleshov lectured on cinema in the Proletkul’t theatre. See Lev Kuleshov, “Velikii i dobryi chelovek”. In Iurenev, 1974, op. cit. pp. 160-167 (161). On Kuleshov’s landmark experiments, see, for example, Tsivian, Yuri, et al. (Eds.). “The Rediscovery of a Kuleshov Experiment: A Dossier”. *Film History*. Volume 8 (1996): 357-36, and Stephen Prince and Wayne E. Hensley. “The Kuleshov Effect: Recreating the Classic Experiment”, *Cinema Journal*, Vol. 31, No. 2 (Winter, 1992); 59-75.

25 The censorship board requested the removal of the following material from Act 4 (the Odessa Steps sequence): close-up of the man who beats with the rifle another man; close-up of a shot man falling on the steps; close up of a man whose body is stomped over by the penal detachment of Cossacks; shot of a boy who is shot together with his mother; close up of the bleeding boy; close up of his legs, on which the running crowd is tripped; his body, which is stomped by a woman. See Kleiman i Levina. op. cit. pp. 223-227.

26 Beatrice Vitoldi, who impersonated the mother in the Pram episode, was to become the first permanent Soviet ambassador to Italy in 1931. In 1937, she was summoned to Moscow where she was put on a show trial and shot.


28 In the Preface to his influential collection *Vision and Visuality* Hal Foster draws attention to the ways of articulating the visual. The questions we need to ask are those of “how we see, how we are able, allowed, or made to see, and how we see this seeing or the unseen therein.” Hal Foster (Ed.), *Vision and Visuality: Discussions in Contemporary Culture*. No. 2 (Seattle: Bay Press, 1988), p. ix.


31 For abundant use of folk motifs, Kriukov’s scores were highly regarded during Stalin era and were considered a proper embodiment of socialist realist tendencies in music.

32 The exact history of the retrieval of the negative, which was sold to Prometheus in 1926, is uncertain. For the two interpretations glossed above, see, Kleiman and Patalas, respectively.

33 “Black hundreds” were paramilitary units of extreme right inclination, established in late Imperial Russia. In *Potemkin* Eisenstein adhered closely to the concept of *tipazh*, or type-casting. The idea behind type-casting was that the new, revolutionary approach to acting should be based on the representation of typical socio-cultural features, rather than on the individuality of actors (as in bourgeois acting).

34 Bund was a Russian Jewish political organisation of socialist provenience, which was founded in Russia in 1897.


36 *Tendra* (also, *Tendrovskai kosa*, or the Tendra Spit), which once used to be a small island, is now is sand bar in the Black Sea, located some 40 nautical miles east of Odessa

37 Much later, in 1939, when reflecting back on the structure of *Potemkin* Eisenstein writes that each of the five acts of *Potemkin* was intentionally divided into two equal parts. See *Nonindifferent Nature*, 17 passim.

38 The maritime historian Richard Hough claimed that the historical killing of Vakulenchuk was timed well into the mutiny and was immediately preceded by the exchange of fire between the seamen. See Richard Hough, *The Potemkin...*
s disapproved of Eisenstein's loose attitude, but to
goes to mythos brings
of attractions" appears in print for the first time. See Vladimir
ncientive for the young
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bezsiuzhetnoe kino
re in Saint Petersburg.
about a natural comparison with Bertolt Brecht's rejection of the "tragic" mode of expression. What the political


Eisenstein’s rejection of the principle of catharsis and his rejection of the submission of logos to mythos brings about a natural comparison with Bertolt Brecht’s rejection of the “tragic” mode of expression. What the political
theatre or art in general are supposed to (and, Eisenstein’s art was bona fide, a political one) is to disrupt the beautiful, but deceptive realm of the mythos, and make us face the painful truth of the logos (political ideology). It is beyond the aspirations of the present article to discuss the fertile field of continuities and differences between Eisenstein and Brecht. For some representative discussions, see Roland Barthes, “Diderot, Brecht, Eisenstein”, Screen 15/2 (1974): 33-40, Dietrich Scheunemann, “Montage in Theatre and Film: Observations on Eisenstein and Brecht”, Avant-garde 5/6 USSR (1991): 109-135.


54 During discussion of Potemkin held at the Association of Revolutionary Filmmakers (ARK) on 6 January 1926, one of the issues raised was that of the historical veracity of the events depicted in the film. Eisenstein’s response to that characteristic: “One personal observation regarding veracity: I know very well that the old lady with a goose was not present there in 1905, she is my own mother.” See Kleiman i Levina, op. cit. pp. 205-6.

55 Eisenstein 2010 [1988], op. cit., p. 69.

56 When David Bordwell reminds us that in Potemkin Eisenstein “seeks to arouse emotion and partisanship by more traditional cinematic means” [than in Strike], he points out the fact that Potemkin was structured by the social and historical mechanisms that organise the ways of seeing and being. See David Bordwell, The Cinema of Eisenstein (Cambridge, MA: Harvard UP, 1993), p. 61.