SOME ASPECTS OF EDUCATION

IN POST-WAR RUSSIA

by

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PREFACE.

It was in May, 1935, when Dr. Ewing of the Vancouver Normal School had given a lecture on Soviet Education that this subject was drawn to my closer attention.

As a student at the 1935 Summer Session of the University of British Columbia, the writer had the privilege of discussing the subject with Faculty members of the University Department of Education, particularly with Professors William G. Black and C.B. Wood.

Later findings have confirmed that there is a certain lack of detailed information on certain aspects, especially on recent changes which have taken place in the educational field in the Soviet Union. To fill up these gaps, within the frame of this work will be found utterly impossible. There is also no claim for the successful accomplishment of such a difficult task here.

The writer wishes to acknowledge his indebtedness to Professor William G. Black, of the Department of Education and especially to Dr. H.T.J. Coleman, Head of the Department of Philosophy for valuable suggestions, discussion and constructive criticism.

The writer wishes also to acknowledge his gratitude to Dr. J. Wyman Pilcher for valuable corrections and advice. Dr. Pilcher's lectures were indeed a source of inspiration for a...
psychological approach to certain aspects of this work.

He is also under heavy obligations to Mr. I. Omur of Moscow, U.S.S.R. for supplying him with latest materials, from primary sources, and information on education in the Soviet.

Expressions of thanks are rendered here to Miss M. Lanning and Miss A. Smith of the University Library; to Mr. G.H. Griffin of Vancouver Model School for reading the tables on Nature and Drawing in the Soviet School, and to Dr. W.G. Allardyce of King Edward High School for reading the table on Physics in the Soviet Secondary School.

M.J.S.

Vancouver, B.C.

April, 1936.
PART I.

Explanatory Note.

To describe a national system of education, to unfold those of its special characteristics, which explain its peculiarity and so separate it from systems of other nations, is not sufficient. Not only must one study how nations live, and think, but one must develop an understanding of the forces and factors which give to each nation its particular characteristics. It is through the study of these that one may learn how the school, the embryo of the group, has evolved.

Chapter I will attempt to trace some factors in Russian history and their natural environment; how these have influenced the character of the people and consequently their educational agencies. With this in mind, one will view the Soviet school described in Chapter II, not as a device purely of the Soviet, but as a natural outcome resulting from a long struggle of opposing forces, and conditioned by a physiogeographical environment.
CHAPTER I
EDUCATION IN INTERPLAY WITH HISTORICAL AND GEOGRAPHICAL FACTORS IN THE LIFE OF A PEOPLE.

INTRODUCTION. We are passing today through one of the greatest of crises. Never has the world been so shaken to its foundations as by the Great War of 1914. In fact, nearly two decades after the end of the catastrophe, we are still unable to pick up the threads of normal progress. Nevertheless, in the history of any race or nationality we can point to numerous examples of crises which have rocked the political, economic, and social foundations of a status quo. That these changes are reflected and expressed in educational theories and practices, is obvious to any student who has had the opportunity to observe the sensitivity of education towards the problems with which society is confronted.

It is not necessary, therefore, to go deeply into the history of education to discover the part played by social and political forces in determining the form or character of an educational system. Likewise, on reading the history of a people one can readily furnish himself with many illustrations of the interplay between social, economic, and political upheavals and education, as an instrument of social control and national reconstruction.

By analyzing the various educational systems of the nations of the world one could furnish himself with new support on the matter. The changes which take place in an
educational movement represent a long chain of causes and effects in a way that the secondary condition becomes the new or primary cause for another conditioning process. This process is inevitably subject to ramifications and to local variations but the result will always be change and improvement. #

So numerous are the examples and facts in history for the support of our contentions above, that we may accept their truth without further discussion in detail. Besides, it is our view that a further elucidation would involve a long digression, which is undesirable.

Presuming, therefore, that we are on safe ground now to permit ourselves to embark upon the main thesis of this chapter, it will be our task to demonstrate how the specific periods in Russian history with their accompanying social and political "thunders and lightnings" have transformed the life and character of the people, and how the latter, correspondingly, have moulded educational and cultural agencies. Of course, the scope and objective of this work do not permit us to dwell at great length on any aspect of Russian national history. For this, if desirable, one may refer to any authoritative historical work.

EDUCATION AND THE HISTORY OF A PEOPLE. The Slavs are not a race. They are a linguistic unit, of which the Russians may

# See I.L. Kandel, Comparative Education, Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1933, for a wide discussion on this in the chapters on France and England.
be considered as the greatest and most significant national group.

During the period of their early expansion the Slavs came under the influence of much higher civilizations and what they borrowed from them soon obliterated what each group of the unit had in common with the others. The pure cultural inheritance of the Slavonic unit was therefore very poor. The only element in common was the Slavonic language, which was intelligible to almost all. The language of the Macedonian Slavs was accepted as the "Church Slavonic" and as the literary language by the Russians.

Towards the middle of the Eleventh century the North West of modern Russia was occupied by Scandinavian groups—the Norsemen ("Variagii"). According to the "Scandinavian Theory" it is the Scandinavians who were named and called Russians. In spite of the complete military conquest, the Norse cultural influence was not deep or lasting. Except for a few place names, all traces of Norse influence disappeared entirely after 1000 A.D. Nevertheless, the Norsemen were a first stimulus to the general awakening of the country and the people. They were able to develop in Russia a civilization separated from Slavdom but in which the Norse heritage had been completely dissolved.

In the Tenth century several changes took place which

# The Finnish name for Sweden is Ruotsi. The Arab historians distinguish between the Rus and the Slavs.

## Izborsk, which has been explained as Isborg.
undoubtedly exercised their influence on the cultural level of the Russians. The formation of the "Kingdom of Russia" ("Knyazestwo"), the monarchical tendencies of the king ("knyaz"), the subjugation of minor Slavonic groups, the elimination of the Norse king on the north, the growth of cities, the formation of an aristocracy striving to separate itself from the masses ("smerdov"),—these changed entirely the inner social status of the country and from the externa created the necessity for further expansion, economic necessity being partly a factor. Society having become, then, more complex, a written law was necessary to regulate the social fabric. Thus the oldest version of the Russian Law (Russkaya Pravda) appeared at that time which may be duly considered as a CORPUS DELICTI reflecting the beginning and fermentation of a class struggle. The Russian Drang nach Osten and their spectacular exploits on the shores of the Black Sea resulting in the attack on Constantinople brought the advantageous treaty between the Kingdoms of Kiev and Byzanty. The cultural tie between Russia and Byzanty being formally initiated, everything pointed to Constantinople which from now on began to exercise a tremendous influence upon their further national, political, socio-economic, and religious developments. But on Russian soil Byzantine civilization developed into something essentially different. It was Byzantine in its roots but the bark and leaves took on a new growth, a transformation specific and peculiar but befitting the Russian soul, heart, and character.

In connection with the aforesaid, let it be understood
that Russian society at that time and for many years to come continued to be extremely individualistic. The isolated individual was the most prominent unit in the social pattern, by its preeminence obliterating or removing into insignificance any form of tribal, clan, or even family organization. The Russian Law, which was previously mentioned, can bear strong witness to the fact that the individual's right to all forms of contracting, even selling himself into slavery, was strongly protected. It is probable that from here we can trace the antithesis, the source of the violent anti-individualistic tendencies in modern Russian society.

To return to our subject, we may say that no form of education existed in Russia at that time except for weak attempts initiated by the monks in clerical institutions or monasteries. Society was too much oppressed by the rising Commercial Capital (Torgovey Kapital), so admirably termed and explained by Pokrovsky, to have its mind on cultural aspirations. Russian society consisted at that time of two main divisions, an active and passive. The first constituted the king, his following and the free city population. The passive formed the bulk of slaves (Cholopi) and the rural population. The first were the despots over the life and soul of the latter. When Russian society took on a further mercantile development and the upper classes became saturated with money and blood extracted from the passive division, the former began to educate their offspring, giving them the rudiments

of an education dictated by class distinction and economic urgency.

In the Twelfth century Byzantine influence was deeply entrenched. As the kings of Kiev began developing an organized cult as late as the eve of their conversion to Christianity, the Russians therefore had no pagan cultural tradition of their own. Whatever was theirs represented an amalgam of Norse, Oriental, Byzantine, Chazar, and some of native Slavonic elements. In spite of these favorable conditions Byzantine educational penetration was rare, and limited to the higher urban clergy, a few members of the dynasty, and the upper classes. As there were no schools, the liberal arts were unknown. The church, which practically monopolized education, transmitted to the Russians only those elements of Byzantine culture which were necessary for its own workings. It consisted in combating the military and pre-Christian mentality of the Russian aristocracy which was still trying to keep a foot-hold of independence from the encroaching church dominance.

With the invasion of the Tartars in 1240, Russia definitely ceased to exist as a political unit and dissolved into two main branches, the north-east, the future Muscovy, and the south-west, White Russia and Ukraina.

# Chazar - Chazar state on the Caspian Sea. The capital was Itil near the modern Astrakhan. Before the coming of the Norsemen Kiev was a dependency of Chazar. The Chazar kings and aristocracy adopted the Jewish faith. Eventually they were overcome and destroyed by the Russians.

## The Ukrainian vocabulary differs from the Great Russian mainly by its high percentage of Polish words, many of which are themselves of German origin.
The Tartar Period (XIII - XIV centuries) left a deep impress on Russian culture and civilization. By many historians the "Tartar Yoke" is reported as an impoverishing influence. That this is greatly exaggerated because of the opposition of the Russian church, which regarded the Tartars as "Godless creatures", is obvious. In many respects, especially in the political and economic spheres, the Tartars were greatly superior. So different were the Tartars that due to this and to their long reign, they have undoubtedly impregnated the Russian mind and character with "Oriental traits". Still these infiltrated traits cannot serve as an explanation for the harsh ways of Russian life; more sterility and cruelty could be found at that time in Germany, France and Byzantine, Russia's neighbours to the west and east.

Although the "Tartar yoke" left its influence in Russian life the main cultural force continued to be the Byzantine. The Turkish oppression of the Serbs and Bulgars caused a mass immigration of the latter to Russia. A great number of Byzantine educated Serbian and Bulgarian clerics soon found themselves at the head of the Russian church. At the beginning of the Fifteenth century a Serb named Cyprian, became the Metropolitan of Moscow. With his name is associated the reform of the Russian literary language. New standards were set up in literature and the provincial simplicity gave way to a highly elaborate style permeated with a deep religious humility. Not only did cultural life centre in the monasteries of Moscow, Kiev, Pskov, Novgorod, but it is also
during the Cyprian period that a great impetus was given to art. Russian painting at that time was in no way inferior to the highest Byzantine achievement but it flourished mostly in the monasteries. Only a few names of painters were handed down by continuous tradition because the old Russian painting was not an individual art. The names of the individual painters were effaced for reasons that the collective work of the church replaced the old Russian individualism. At the beginning this "Golden Age" Russian art devoted itself entirely to sacred painting (ikonopis) but later, under the European influence, this gave way to realistic painting (zhivopis).

In the middle of the Seventeenth century there were still no schools in Moscow. All literary and general knowledge was transmitted by the clergy. Books for reading were few and the reading public consisted of the clergy and the upper classes of urban society. Despite the fact that printing was introduced to Russia in the Sixteenth century (the first printed book appeared in Moscow in 1563), only books for the daily use in the churches were published. The most ambitious works were the official history of Russia (Book of Degrees) and the Saints' Calendar.

In 1633 Peter Mojila founded, with the blessings of the Church, an Academy in Kiev, which was destined to become the mother of formal education in Russia. In addition to the ecclesiastical subjects which occupied most of the curriculum, the classics, philosophy and rhetoric were also taught. A quarter of a century later Moscow invited three monks from Kiev.
to translate the New Testament from Greek into Slavonic and simultaneously two schools were opened there with monks as teachers.

Secular civilization had its first success in 1672 when German players produced for the Tzar the first theatrical production ever given in Russia. A few years later romantic fiction was imported from the East and West, circulated in manuscript in very clumsy Russian translation, and finally transformed into fairy tales to suit the Russian reader.

But a real new page in the history of Russian civilization was opened by Peter the Great who, on his return in 1698 from England, had by drastic reforms destroyed the Russian theocratic civilization. From now on the secularization of the state was accompanied by the secularization of culture. The church lost its grip on education and instead secular schools, mostly technical, were founded. Even in language a reform took place when Russian replaced Church-Slavonic as a literary medium.

The long war with Sweden (1700 - 1721) produced a change in the financial and administrative status of the body politic and a shift in the social structure of the country. On the one hand, under the guiding influence of Peter, one could see the industrial expansion of the Russian state, but, on the other, the economic growth resulted in an unlimited exploitation of the peasant class. The subsequent conquest of the Baltic states opened the door for Western influence, especially that of Germany, whose efficient bureaucratic spirit,
through a considerable German immigration encouraged by Peter, began to influence the inner administrative policy of the Russian government.

Peter's interest in education was mainly utilitarian and industrial; it was not intended for the masses. At the end of his reign there were only one hundred and ten elementary schools in all of Russia. Some historians suspect that a great number of them existed only on paper like the "Dead Souls" of Gogol. Even in the University of Moscow, opened in 1755 during the reign of Catherine I, there was not attempt to organize a national education until the time of Alexander I. During the latter's reign and those of the other tzars who have followed him periods of educational progress were followed by periods of dark reaction. In fact, the whole reign of Nicolas I was directed to block the flow of new ideas into Russia. But fortunately the Russian territorial expansion defeated its own ends. The effect was to increase greatly the European character of the Empire and consequently the infiltration of Western ideas.

In order to characterize the different phases of civilization which Russia, in its contact with foreign races, was trying to absorb, let us quote the great Russian scholar Mirsky:

Russian interpretation of European civilization passed through several phases. Under Peter and his first successors Europe was the home of higher techniques, and higher forms of economic life; education was technical and practical, and the countries most imitated were Holland, Sweden and Germany. The age was secular and utilitarian, inspired by a real will for enlightenment and progress. It was prepared to
admit a reasonable Christianity but was fundamentally undenominational and non-mystical.

Under Elizabeth and Catherine II Europe became primarily the land of elegance and pleasure, of the arts and of literature. Useful knowledge became the exclusive property of specialists and French the language of Civilization.

The work of the French philosopher Voltaire, English liberalism with its House of Commons, Adam Smith's economic ideas, Byron's Weltschmerz have all been reflected in the educational ideas and poetry of Russia in the first quarter of the Nineteenth century.

In opposition to the new liberalism a conservative body of opinion was growing in the upper and some of the middle classes of Russian society, schemingly directed from higher quarters who detested the Europe of the Revolution.

To quote again:

This "official nationalism" placed Russia above Europe, because the Russian people had better preserved the old virtues of faith and obedience than any other, and because the national spirit was a spirit of devotion to the monarchy and of detestation for all innovation.

The National Church was restored to honour as the guardian of the people's conservatism, "Orthodoxy, Autocracy and Nationality" became the official formula expressing the "Russian idea".

No wonder that the government turned for inspiration to Germany, a land of absolutism and militarism with a kindred touch of an idealistic state philosophy. It is from Germany that the Russian bureaucracy borrowed a policy transplantable to the Russian soil for the furtherance of new colonial and

3. Ibid.
cultural aspirations. From that time two movements began to play their part in Russian intellectual life: Slavophilism and Westernism. Both had many points of contact but differed on the central point of orientation. The Russian monarchy accepted the former.

Tempora mutantur, et nos mutamur.

As long as Europe was, like Russia, a land of privileged absolutism, Russia had no difficulty in being European. But since two great revolutions, the French and the industrial, had produced a new Europe, European ideals ceased to be acceptable to the ruling classes, new European techniques could no longer be introduced into a country where labour was servile, ignorant and oppressed. Russia remained on the level she had reached by 1800. But forces were maturing under the archaic crust that would inevitably break it.

From the preceding, one would conclude that intellectually Russia borrowed heavily from foreigners. Nevertheless, from the Eighteenth century on Russia began to produce its own Newtons, Byrons, etc. First, let us name Lomonosor (1711-1765), a chemist, the father of Russian literature. He left many successors in the respective fields, as the chemist Zivin and the mathematician Tobachevsky. To enumerate here the lengthy list of Russian writers, poets, and scientists would be for various reasons impossible and undesirable. We will attempt, however, to describe the emergence of a new class which was destined to play a prominent part in the events to come.

Due to specific Russian conditions a slight account of which, within the space of this work has been given, a new

4. Ibid.
"Intelligentsia" was in the process of creation. It was an amalgam of two social groups: first, educated young nobles as personified in Turegenev who were unable to adjust themselves to the bureaucratic regime, and, second, the enthusiastic "raznochinstsy", as represented by the influential literary critic Belinsky, sons of priests, small officials and "samoutoky" who were trying to earn their living by journalism and private tuition. The ranks of these intellectual proletariat were constantly recruited from artists and actors whose social status was that of servants for those "in power to be". The "raznochinstsy" were to play an important part in the coming upheavals, until the landless peasants and the industrial workers became class conscious for the great struggle.

Alexander II abolished serfdom in 1861. Let us see what the government did to improve the lot and the educational status of the "free slaves". We may summarize by stating that the freed serfs formed a class, a "sostoyanie", distinctly marked off by law and restricted in their personal rights from the general population.

After the emancipation, the Tzar and his minister made only weak attempts at promoting universal elementary education. When the Zemstvos (elective provincial assemblies) began to promote and organize elementary education in rural Russia, the government proclaimed their schools as expensive and inefficient, and so in many cases they ceased to exist.
Nevertheless, even here the reducing of illiteracy had created only a new class of "semi-intelligentsia" composed of schoolmasters, accountants, clerks (volostnoi pisar) many of whom joined the rank and file of the "raznochinstsy".

The emancipation of the peasants created another problem. The communal village could exist no longer. Designed at first for the preservation of the old faith and the avoidance of a land problem, it had not only defeated its own claims but even made things worse and more complicated. The land hunger of the "Bezzemelniki" and the resulting social unrest prompted the Russian government to promote peasant emigration into Siberia.

Further expansion, the annexation and "Russification" of the Pacific maritime provinces taken from China, the completion in 1903 of the Far Eastern Railway, brought the Russian colonization schemes in conflict with the land of the "Rising Sun", Japan. But here Russia's imperial ambitions were frustrated. The lack of a near military base; the Slavophils' orientation resulting in a relatively slow adoption of Western military technique; the tremendous industrialization of the country by foreign capital and the creation of a new urban proletarian class; the activity of the enthusiastic raznochinstsy all played havoc in the strain and stress of the war. The war was lost.

EDUCATION AND THE STRUGGLE FOR SELF-GOVERNMENT.

The Revolution of 1905 had failed but had not been in vain. A greater determination fired the peasants, the
workers and other social classes, described elsewhere in this work. Experienced leaders, as might be expected, immediately resumed the struggle when the opportunity arose.

Educationally the Revolution of 1905 brought another renaissance exemplified by the Zemstvos and the Co-operative Movement which tried to educate the peasant. But this educational expansion was followed by another government reaction which again effectually checked the process of its growth.

Nevertheless, we must not forget the great educational work accomplished, under indescribable conditions, by many educational workers, pioneers in the New School movement. A necessarily short account will be given here of those sincere men and women who sacrificed themselves on the altar of enlightenment and education.

The names of many will never be known: individuals and groups of the intelligentsia who sacrificed everything worth while for individual happiness to the cause of education for the common men. Unnamed as they are, they will always serve as an inspiration to the numberless educational workers in Russia and other countries who toil under adverse conditions.

"THE HOLY CAUSE".

Many of those workers took active part in Tzarist educational institutions of wide repute. Take, for example, the Russian secondary schools, well equipped and splendidly manned, which were world famed. They provided, however, an education for the few, the elite, an education possible only
for selected groups. Great credit must therefore be given to the educated Russian youths who, in spite of the privileges attached to a secondary school graduation, have remained true to the toilers and the tillers of the soil, those millions who were kept in darkness and ignorance. That this devotion of youth was the result of the self sacrificing guidance of the idealistic teachers is obvious. How vivid and touching are, therefore, the words of an American scholar who in speaking of education in the modern day once wrote:

"Education has thus now become the chief problem of the world, its only holy cause. The nations that see this will survive and those that fail to do so will slowly perish. . . . There must be re-education of the will and of the heart as well as of the intellect, and the ideals of service must supplant those of selfishness and greed. Nothing else can save us."

That innumerable Russian educators at present, as well as in the past, are working on the "chief problem of the world, its only holy cause" with a devotion which is unsurpassed in history is well known. Names like Lunacharky, Shatzky, Krupsky, Pistrak, Blonsky, and many others, are now on the lips of many students in education. Any account and discussion of Russian education must, in a sense, interpret it as an unprecedented movement, planned, shaped and guided by the workers whose names are mentioned above.

THE PRESENT.

A few remarks on this topic in our unfolded drama, will, we think, suffice here. The First Revolution took place in February 1917. The republican regime of Kerensky followed.  
By this time the strain of the war was telling upon the population. To education and schools the government paid scant attention.

The continuance of the war, enforced upon the Russian people by the Allies, and the resulting hunger and food riots made the sufferings of the people unbearable. The inefficient Kerensky government was courageously attacked by the deep forces of a profounder revolutionary movement, the "social revolution". In 1918 the Kerensky government was overthrown and the Soviet government was established in its place.

On October 29th, 1917, the Soviet government announced its educational program. The work was interrupted by the civil war, the period of militant communism, etc. The program was further defined by further elaborations in 1926, 1927, 1931, 1933 and so on. It will be our problem, in the terms of our thesis, to touch upon these changes and educational reorganizations in the chapters following.

**EDUCATION AND GEOGRAPHICAL FACTORS.**

This subject will be dealt with very briefly for obvious reasons. First, many points relating to this subject were touched on in the previous pages of this chapter. Second, a glance at the map of Russia will enable one, without necessarily going into details, to infer the bond existing between education and geographical factors.

Russian civilization and education are, more than those of any other country, a product of its physiogeographical background. By its geographical location it was always between Scylla and Charybdis, East and West, Europe and Asia.
For ages Russia spent much blood upon costly efforts to reach "Warm Waters" and their failure constitutes still one of the greatest handicaps of the U.S.S.R.

We are accustomed to thinking of Canada as a land of enormous proportions, yet Russia is two and one half times as large as Canada. In fact, Russia contains one-seventh of the terra cognita. The Russian steppes and tundra, because of similarities, can easily be pictured by any Canadian who has lived within the Arctic Circle, at Fort Churchill on the Hudson or on the Western Prairies. Consider the various races, groups and nationalities inhabiting these gloomy Russian regions and we can realize how the character and the socio-educational institutions were inevitably influenced by the natural surroundings and their productive factors. Being secluded from the world and left to themselves, the Russians have always acted according to a pattern, which often looks grotesque to any outsider.

The specific conditions created a complexity which has reflected on education and given to its external pattern a duality of character, half Asiatic and half European. After deeper study one can conclude, however, that it is based on realism which is Western and European.
CHAPTER II

THE SOVIET SCHOOL: ITS THEORY AND BASIS

In our first chapter we merely glanced at an analysis of the several main factors in interplay with national education. If in our discussion of the geographical factors we were successful in avoiding the acceptance of a definite ruling or theory, as of geographical determinism, or materialism, or pessimism; likewise, if in our discussion of the historical factors we have suggested the view that in its historical struggle a nation is not the creature of a blind destiny,—we have accomplished our purpose.

Thus, in the unfolded mighty social drama the nation finally came out purified, imbued with noble experience and inspired by a great ideal for social betterment. With this in mind let us embark upon a discussion of some aspects of one of the main agencies for social progress, reconstruction and stabilization—the school.

THE NATIONAL AND REVOLUTIONARY CONCEPTS OF THE SOVIET EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM.

We feel justified in covering the first point of our subheading by quoting one of the greatest authorities in comparative education, Dr. Issac L. Kandel.

# We regret the necessity of omitting the discussion of the several periods like the World War, the First Revolution, the Kerensky Period, the October Revolution and its subdivisions, and how these have influenced education. This would require a work in itself. A short treatment would sound superficial and vague.
a system of education may be defined as national if it provides a well coordinated and carefully articulate gradation of educational opportunities free and open to all and maintained at public expense. If articulation and integration of educational opportunities be employed as a test, then only the Soviet and American systems could be pronounced truly national. ¹

Moreover, in the light of a discussion which will follow in a later chapter, one will have to assume that the educational opportunities in this country do not begin to reach those developed in the U.S.S.R. today. We are, however, in a fortunate position to declare that this fault does not rest with our educationalists or educational organization but it is found within another realm on which education is largely dependent.

In order to secure the revolutionary character of education as well as of other fields of Soviet activity, a deliberate effort is made to fashion their development in the light of certain controlling ideas. In the words of Professor George S. Counts:

Five great concepts occupy such a dominant position in the revolutionary movement that no list could be regarded as complete without them. These are: dialectic materialism, collectivism, equality of nationalities, equality of sexes, industrialization.²

For the sake of brevity and assuming also that the last four concepts are easily comprehended and therefore do not require further elaboration, we will attempt to elucidate the first concept, namely dialectic materialism, the one specifically

characteristic of Soviet general and educational theory.

Confessing, however, our meagre knowledge on this subject and its newest interpretation, we are forced to accept in full value the explanation given to it by the same author in the following quotation:

The Russian Communists reject the ancient dualism of mind and body, spirit and matter, God and Nature, and stoutly affirm their faith in the essential unity of all things....To them matter is the foundation of all existence, and the external world rather than the data of individual consciousness is the fundamental reality. .......All phenomena are manifestations of one basic substance in process and that even life and mind are but functions of certain extremely delicate and complex forms of matter. .........There is no God, no supernatural realm, no world of pure spirit. In the words of Engels, "Matter is not a product of mind but mind itself is only the highest product of matter".  

Applied to the evolution of culture dialectic materialism gives the economic interpretation of history. "The ultimate cause and great moving power of all important historic events is the economic development of society and its changes in the modes of production and exchange."

On perceiving this, let us begin a discussion of the Soviet general educational theory with a consideration of two divisions in the process of education, as distinguished by the Soviet theorists.

NURTURE AND INSTRUCTION.

The Soviet pedagogy distinguishes between two divisions in the process of education, a distinction which has failed to be recognized in the English language and consequently has not the exact equivalents. Two terms, namely nurture

3* Ibid., pp 19ff.
and instruction, are used arbitrarily for the designation of the two educational phases.

In the words of Pinkevitch:

Nurture, may be regarded as the prolonged action of one or more persons upon another for the purpose of developing his native biologically and socially useful qualities. 

And by the same author:

Instruction, may be defined as the systematic and prolonged action of one or more persons upon another for the purpose of creating in him a complete and definite outlook upon the world.

Now this "action" of the double educational process is mainly due to the teacher who may be an individual person, or any institution or organization which exercises an educational function. But this is only a part of the story. As it develops we meet another factor which also contributes its part in the educational process.

EDUCATION AND ENVIRONMENT.

The following are the environmental factors which lie outside the sphere of pedagogical influence. First we may refer to early childhood and the period of infancy, when the child lives his life beyond the reach of the school and is influenced by stimuli, which from an educational standpoint are often detrimental. During this period a growth may be accumulated negative to the future action of the educational process. Second, the influence of physical environment expresses itself in multiple ways. Character and location of dwelling, food and clothing, periods of illness,—all affect the attitude of the child and his responses even when a

5. Ibid., p. 4.
master-teacher "touches the keyboard". Thirdly, we may agree with Huntington who, in his illuminating book "Civilization and Climate", contends "that the phase of racial character which expresses itself in differences in energy, initiative and the power of achievement is closely correlated with differences in the physical environment". Soil, water, air, light and warmth, plants and animals are all sources of stimulation upon the mental and physical growth of the child. And last but not least, is the social environment which creates and modifies the psychological and cultural personality of man. How manifold are the contributing factors in the social environment! Take for example the family. How beneficial is the influence of the harmoniously functioning family and how degenerating is the influence of the family in a state of disintegration! Of no less significance are the community, the group with its folkways and mores, the theatre, and the church. It is the latter, according to this theory, which has in the past cooperated most laboriously with the state in promoting their common interests—those of the ruling classes.

THE SCHOOL AND STATE.

As the contemporary state is an organization of class interests the state always strives for the supremacy of the class which for the time is in power. The teacher (the individual or institution) works in a particular society and for a particular society for the purpose of preparing citizens for future life. Therefore, as long as the schools exist, they will never be free from politics. Says Pinkevitch:
The present Russian state, which is transitional between capitalism and socialism, places political power in the hands of the workers and the peasants. The Revolution was made, and its principles are now being enforced by the proletariat. It is quite natural, therefore, that the authorities should bring into the foreground the cultural problems of the laboring classes and the working peasantry.

THE SCHOOL AND THE CHURCH.

The soviet pedagogy is emphatically opposed to any bond between the church and education because the former supports a regime rooted in the exploitation of the poorest element of the population and also because of its explicit "cultivating in the children a slave-like servility".

THE AIMS OF EDUCATION.

The first task of the communist state consists, therefore, in developing a new ideology, a new outlook on the world. Such a gigantic enterprise requires the enlistment of the whole mechanism of the proletarian state, and the aim of education is as follows:

The aim of training and education in the U.S.S.R. is to bring up fighters for the workers cause and builders of the Socialistic state; men who have an all round development, are well informed, skilled, physically strong and healthy, filled with collectivistic habits and the joy of living.

Consequently, it is the aim of the school worker (shkolny rabotnik) to inculcate in the growing generation socialistic ideas and thereby to multiply the rank and file of the fighters for a classless society.

But how could this be accomplished? Cela va sans dire, through the Soviet educational institutions.

---

THE CORES AND THE SYNTHETIC THEME.

The Soviet pedagogy is in agreement with John Dewey that the school is a society in miniature,—the microcosm of a macrocosm. The Soviet pedagogy does not support the thesis that the macrocosm, the existing society, can be changed through the school. The microcosm, or the school, or the society in miniature, could not become the embryo of a future socialistic order because as a part it cannot live an independent life apart from the whole. The situation is changed, however, when the environment and society at large are saturated with the revolution, with the victory of the toilers. Vigorously life "flows" then into the school and the school "flows" into life.

THE SOVIET LABOR SCHOOL.

The school, therefore, reflects the life of the existing environment, which in loco parentis interplays with its child, its own flesh and blood, for the common objective, the preservation and transmission, securing and improving of the victories of the Revolution. (Pabiede Revolutzii.) The essence of the school is socialism and labor. Such a school could exist only in a society which bases itself on the ideals of socialism and useful labor. Such a society and its school must also take into consideration the tremendous part played by the productive natural forces in the promotion of progress and advancement.

The central theme of the Soviet school is labor. To make things clearer let us use the old method of comparison
and contrast, and present here the Soviet understanding of what a labor school is, as distinguished from other schools similar in name. First, it differs in aim,—quo animo. Second, the Soviet school is characterized by its attaching great importance to the study of the social role of labor. The following table may illustrate the differences in aim and attitude to labor of the various schools. Respice finem!

**TABLE I**

The Soviet Labor School as distinguished from other schools bearing the same name.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Distribution according to aim.</th>
<th>A. Reactionary bourgeoisie</th>
<th>B. &quot;Democratic&quot; bourgeoisie</th>
<th>C. Petty bourgeoisie and communists.</th>
<th>D. Proletarian pseudo-socialists</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes towards labor:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Labor is given the same place as other methods</td>
<td>Nevendorf, Lay, sharrelmorn, Gansberg.</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>Kershensteiner, Ertli, Sikinger, Pobst.</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Practical-theoretical study of social role of labor is made central theme.</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Russian communists: Kalashnikov, Blonsky and others.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

# After Pinkevitch, The New Education in the Soviet Republic. (John Day Co., New York, 1929.)
The fundamental scheme for organizing the curriculum of the Soviet labor school is a threefold concept of nature, labor, and society. These could be interpreted as "productive energies" or "productive relations". The synthetic theme running through all these cores is human labor.

A discussion of the curriculum will be given in the chapter on primary and secondary schools. The objectives of the Soviet labor school will be brought out immediately after a short description of its organization on the following page. As only a few minor changes have taken place recently a table showing the general scheme of the system will suffice for our purpose.

TABLE II.

The System of Public Education in the U.S.S.R.#

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Above 22 yrs.</th>
<th>Research Institutes and Higher courses.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>17 to 22 yrs.</td>
<td>Universities and Higher Schools Communist University.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>15 to 17 yrs.</th>
<th>Second yars.</th>
<th>Division of Secondary Schools and Special Courses</th>
<th>Soviet Party Wor-Ad-School of Kers ult Second</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12 to 15 yrs.</td>
<td>First Division of Secondary Schooling App- Peasant ties sec- Soviet and Party Grade School of First Grade</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Vocational of Work- of ul- of School ship</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE II. (cont.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>School Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8 to 12 yrs.</td>
<td>Primary School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 to 8 yrs.</td>
<td>Kindergarten and Pre-School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under 3 yrs.</td>
<td>Nursery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adult School of Political</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Literacy of First Grade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>School of Liquidation of Illiteracy.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

AIMS AND OBJECTIVES.

The following are the main and basic principles governing the system of the Soviet schools, as they are given in the latest official announcement.

a. The aims of the school are uniform, i.e. communist education of pupils in all grades and the passing of the pupils from grade to grade (from the primary school to the incomplete secondary and thence to the complete secondary school).

b. The schools are maintained by the state and are free for all pupils.

c. The schools combine general education with industrial training and acquaint the pupils with the simple implements of labour and with the main branches of industry.

d. Apart from instruction great attention is being paid by the Soviet governments to school discipline and education with a view to training the young generation and make them conscious and active participants in the work of Socialist construction.

This educative process must be oriented toward the three elements of the complex, labor, nature and society, which present a unity, a wholesome structure as given in Marx's definition of education.

By education we mean three things: first, mental education; second, physical training as given in schools by means of gymnastics and military training; and third, technical education which introduces the prospective worker to the general principles of all the processes of production and at the same time gives to children a practical information regarding the use of various working tools.9

But the main task of communist education is to prepare the future communist citizen. It is because the school is kept so constantly in close touch with its environment—"the concrete historic environment of today"—that Soviet education succeeds in setting up the ideal agency for moulding its citizens into builders of socialism. Education alone cannot achieve this; likewise, environment without education is powerless to attain it. The Soviet school has therefore undertaken to educate its future leaders and citizens through a process of "conditioning" by surrounding them with an environment, physical and cultural, material and intellectual, to which they can respond in only one way. The Soviet educational policy presents a marvelous consistency in a unified S R process from environment to education, and vice versa.

From such an interplay of forces a new society is bound to emerge. The new men of that society will think and act differently. In a word, they will be men with a new mind.

As described by Professor Thomas Woody,

The new citizen believes in, and can justify by Marxian dialectic the dictatorship of the Communist Party, or as is generally said, the dictatorship of the Proletariat. He is militant in his defense and advocacy of it. He must be an activist. Though it seems a paradox at first glance, he is to be class conscious; yet he is to become, at the same time, a classless mind. He believes in universal labor, holds the laborer in high regard, and the exploiter in greatest contempt. His mind must be secular (dominated by science) and atheistic, political, collectivistic and non-nationalistic, and positively international. He must be healthy in the physical sense, a sound mind in a sound body. He is to be a sexless mind, i.e. recognizing no preferences based on sex. He who possesses these is the new man. 10.

PRO AND CON.

It is not our task here to predict the failure or success of that mighty challenge which the Soviet has given to the world. Whether the Communists succeed or fail in their efforts depends on many other factors, the discussion of which is certainly beyond the scope of this work. It is difficult, however, for anyone, to contemplate the Soviet experiment without feeling profound emotions. It is because there were liberated new forces that have altered and are still changing the psychology of the masses, millions of humans irrespective of race, nationality, religion and geographical location, that we may expect an unprecedented upheaval in mankind’s multi-structure. And, as we read the story of man, a question horrible and frightful arises in our minds: Who could be more inhuman to man than man himself?

PART II
Explanatory Note.

Chapters III and IV deal with the Soviet primary and secondary schools. The growth of the Soviet school has proceeded at a rate which has no parallel or precedent.

Each unprecedented growth calls for description, and the tabulation of many facts and figures, if we are to appreciate its depth and vigor.

Also, there have taken place only recently many changes in Soviet educational thought and practice that may easily have escaped the attention of the foreign student. It is our hope, that these chapters will throw some light upon these newer developments.

The discussion of the primary and secondary schools will culminate with an examination of several new and interesting aspects of the Soviet higher educational institutions.
CHAPTER III

PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN THE U.S.S.R. GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION.

During the last decade national education in Soviet Russia has grown to such proportions that the U.S.S.R. has become one of the leading countries in the field of education.

The following figures may give a general picture of the growth and progress in education in that country:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Percentage of people able to read and write</th>
<th>Number of pupils in Primary and Secondary Schools</th>
<th>Number of students in universities, technical colleges, workers colleges, factory schools and other technical trade schools</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1914-15</td>
<td>22% (1913)</td>
<td>7,800,000</td>
<td>390,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1927-28</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td>11,200,000</td>
<td>630,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1934-35</td>
<td>92%</td>
<td>26,000,000</td>
<td>2,527,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thus, out of a population of over 170,000,000, about 45,000,000 children and adults go to schools. In addition, many others take various courses and attend various circles of a supplementary nature.

The following figures will illustrate this latter fact:

Number of people in other courses................. 10,000,000.

1. Primary and Secondary Education in the U.S.S.R. (Vosk, Moscow, 1935.)
2. Ibid.
Correspondence courses....................2,000,000

Outside of our scope of interest for the purpose of this chapter but important for consideration, are the figures given for pre-school institutions. As the kindergartens, créches, etc., are the first steps in the educational ladder and likewise the entrance chamber of the primary school, a general table indicating their growth and development for the years 1924-1925 - 1930-1931 will be given here:

**TABLE III**

Growth of Pre-School Institutions (kindergarten, créches, etc.) for the years 1924-25 - 1930-1931.³

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Children</th>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Children</th>
<th>In absolute</th>
<th>In % to preceding yr.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>number</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(%) relation to the preceding yr. accepted as 100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1924/25</td>
<td>1139</td>
<td>60,196</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>24.5</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1925/26</td>
<td>1369</td>
<td>72,685</td>
<td>29.0</td>
<td>29.6</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>12,489</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1926/27</td>
<td>1666</td>
<td>86,509</td>
<td>35.3</td>
<td>35.2</td>
<td>297</td>
<td>13,824</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1927/28</td>
<td>2132</td>
<td>104,386</td>
<td>45.1</td>
<td>42.5</td>
<td>466</td>
<td>17,877</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1928/29</td>
<td>2517</td>
<td>129,259</td>
<td>53.3</td>
<td>52.6</td>
<td>385</td>
<td>24,873</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1929/30</td>
<td>3358</td>
<td>173,548</td>
<td>71.1</td>
<td>70.7</td>
<td>841</td>
<td>44,289</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1930/31</td>
<td>6574</td>
<td>366,236</td>
<td>139.2</td>
<td>149.2</td>
<td>3216</td>
<td>192,688</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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³ After Mass Education in U.S.S.R., (Ogiz, Moscow, 1933) Section V, p. 84.
must be emphasized here for the sake of clarity and general appreciation.

1. Difficulties resulting from the deplorable legacy in the field of education from the old Russia.

2. Material difficulties, as lack of schools, buildings, appliances, etc.

3. The need for large money investments for education in a country exhausted by the Great War, revolutions, and subsequent civil wars; interventions, famines, etc.

In 1914-15 there were 106,400 primary and secondary schools with 7,800,000 pupils on the territory of the present U.S.S.R. Of these 7,230,000, or 92 per cent., received primary and 570,000, or 7.2 per cent., secondary education. Obviously only one-thirteenth (1/13) or 7.8 per cent. of the children who went to primary school went on to secondary education.

The principal type of primary school for the masses was the parish school with two and sometimes three years’ training. The program of studies laid stress on the three R's and religious instruction. Consider that these schools were inadequate in number, often far away from the village or town, and that a large percentage of the children lacked food, clothing, etc., and you will gain a useful picture of the deplorable situation.

5. Chapter I, passim.
In the outlying and vernacular districts the illiteracy was indescribable. The percentage was higher than 80 per cent. for Mordovia, 98 per cent. for Yakutia, 99 per cent. for Chechnya. These figures speak for themselves and no further elaborations are necessary.

Regarding secondary education, with all respect for the high standard achieved, it was nevertheless available only to children of the well-to-do and of state officials. The compulsory expensive uniform, the high tuition fees, and other expenses in connection with the special social status attached to a secondary education, made it very difficult and often impossible for people even with moderate means to join the ranks of the "gymazeety" or the "realeesty", etc. Moreover, a large number of these schools had their doors open for the offspring of the nobility only.

In 1913 Lenin wrote:

......nearly four fifths of children and youths in Russia are deprived of education. With the sole exception of Russia nowhere in Europe is there to be found so savage a country where the masses of the population are to such an extent robbed of education, light and knowledge.

With the slogan "to take and to overtake" ("nagnati i peregnati") the Soviet government declared war on this ignorance and embarked upon a new educational policy, a description of which follows.

7. Chapter I, passim.
THE SOVIET POLICY IN THE MATTER OF PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION.

According to many sources the policy which the government accepted with regard to primary and secondary education may be outlined as follows:

1. Compulsory, free, general, and polytechnical education for all children of both sexes up to the age of 17.

2. A uniform, secular, co-educational labor school.

3. Supply at the expense of the state to all pupils of food, clothing and school appliances.

This policy could not be introduced immediately after the Revolution. Many barriers had to be surmounted before the minimum program could be realized. In addition, the government took immediate steps for the liquidation of illiteracy among the people, illiteracy being considered the greatest obstacle to the socialistic construction.

UNIVERSAL EDUCATION.

In 1930 the Council of the People's Commissars published a number of decisions:

1. In 1930-31, in all parts of the U.S.S.R. universal compulsory education (not less than four forms of the primary school) shall be introduced for all children (boys and girls) between the ages of 8 and 10. In compliance with this all children of this


10. Chapter II, passim.

age not attending schools shall be admitted to school in the autumn of 1930. As from 1930-31 the study of the whole curriculum of the primary school (the first four forms of the labour school) to be obligatory for all pupils of these schools irrespective of their age.

2. Compulsory education of children between the ages of 11 and 15 with accelerated tuition to be introduced in 1930-31.12

Measures were taken towards the realization of seven years of education for children of workers in industrial towns and factory districts; a speeding up in the educational program for a seven-year primary school in the districts of all-round collectivisation. The most remarkable measure was that "the parents of children for whom education is compulsory shall be responsible for their children attending school....".13

To insure the material side of the educational program an appeal was made, followed by a remarkable response, that the working masses as represented in the economic trade unions, and other public organizations, take part in the educational construction. Needless to say, the authorities pursued their policy with great vigor, equal in force only to the drive for the country's industrialization and the development of resources.

POLYTECHNIC EDUCATION.

As education in the Soviet state is bound up with productive labor,14 measures were also taken to create a material basis for technical education. Agreements were therefore made


13. Ibid.

with factories, state farms, and tractor stations, to provide opportunities for technical training. To make such training still more concrete and broader from an educational viewpoint, different technical museums, libraries, etc., were attached to many schools and the cinema was also utilized.

FURTHER CHANGES AND DEVELOPMENT.

In the concluding pages of our first chapter we promised to touch upon the changes in education which were recently introduced by the Soviet in order to remedy the existing defects. It was natural that such a gigantic task should here and there lag in efficiency and that in the midst of general enthusiasm work should be performed detrimental to the educational process. In analysing the situation the Central Committee of the Communist Party offered severe criticism with respect to the primary and secondary school.

We will quote some parts of the criticism of the situation as well as remedies proposed.

The Central Committee considers that what is fundamentally wrong with the schools at the present moment (1931) is that their curriculum does not provide sufficient general knowledge and that the task set before the schools of turning out pupils thoroughly versed in the principles of Sciences (physics, chemistry, mathematics, grammar and composition, geography and so forth), so that they could enter colleges and technical schools, is not being satisfactorily carried out. As a result, the introduction of technical education is in many cases reduced to formality and does not prepare the children to take their place as fully developed builders of socialism who combine theory with practice and master-technique.

In other words, the Central Committee criticized the

15. Chapter VI, passim.

school at its most important point, a point which makes the Soviet labor school distinct and differentiated from similar institutions in other countries. The Soviet labor school must lead to socially useful labor. It must produce a man not only grounded in theoretical knowledge but also very well grounded in the practical application, the actual applying of knowledge acquired. How could the school be made so synthetic that its pupils should achieve this most cherished Soviet objective? There is a great danger that one phase may be exaggerated at the expense of the other. There is also a second danger that neither phase may be achieved because of overstocking, overburdening or overtaxing the educational possibilities. A third danger which has proven to be so critical in other educational enterprises, even in many advanced countries, is the "inflating" of the curriculum.

That the situation was even worse than described above and also that many newly baked pedagogues took to "frivolous project mongering in methodology", trying to achieve ends through methods not verified in practice, may be judged from measures adopted to fight these defects.

In 1932 (August 5 and September 25) the CPSU (Central Committee of People's Commissars for the Soviet Union) proposed the following:

.. . . . . . to arrange for a scientific Marxist study of the syllabus in which provision must be made for a definite cycle of systematized knowledge (native tongue, mathematics, physics, chemistry, geography, history) . . . . . . To draw up measures for the preparation of Marxist-Leninist methodologists . . . . . .

. . . . . . To get the proper research institutes 17 to

17. On these see Chapter V under the captions of "Academic Degrees" and "Scientific Centres".
concentrate their activities above all on the study and the generalization of experience gained by practical educationalists.

...To set up a body of instructors in the system of national education... in order that the teacher may receive regular practical assistance in his daily work at school.

To draw up a scheme for the increase of the pay of the teachers... to draw up a scale of differentiated teacher's pay... according to qualification and quality of teaching... to develop by all possible means socialist competition and shock work, giving every encouragement to best (udarniks) teachers.18.

In order to gain full insight into the development of Soviet education for the last decade we will have to divide our discussion into several parts, namely,

1. Liquidation of Illiteracy, on which the registration in certain kinds of primary and secondary schools is largely dependent.

2. Book Publishing, which will show the actual growth of culture interested persons and also the degree of correspondence with the growth of the student population in the various schools, courses of primary and secondary school level.

3. The growth of the primary and secondary schools, student population, etc.

LIQUIDATION OF ILLITERACY.

According to latest figures19 there were 8,752,910 students in 269,878 schools in 1930-31 in comparison with 1,305,114 students in 41,445 schools for the liquidation of illiteracy in 1927-28. The following table will clarify the

---

19. Mass Education in U.S.S.R. (Ogiz, Moscow, 1933) Section VII
situation.

TABLE IV

Number of schools for the liquidation of illiteracy and their students for the years 1927-28 to 1930-31. ²⁰

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Urban</th>
<th>Rural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number of schools</td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>Number of schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1927/28</td>
<td>41,445</td>
<td>1,305,114</td>
<td>6,141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1928/29</td>
<td>48,964</td>
<td>1,648,591</td>
<td>10,830</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1929/30</td>
<td>172,975</td>
<td>6,277,453</td>
<td>38,373</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1930/31</td>
<td>269,878</td>
<td>8,752,910</td>
<td>62,772</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With these figures in mind, let us acquaint ourselves with the percentage in literacy for the last few years since the launching of the Five Year Plan. The steady growth in the provision of schools paralleled with an increasing registration has resulted in a considerable growth in the general literacy of population as witnessed from the table on page 43.

As the figures in this table show, the literacy of the population, for which statistical figures were obtainable, has nearly doubled in the five years mentioned. The percentage in literacy for the same years and population has risen, for the urban 10.3 per cent, and for the rural 26.8 per cent.

BOOK PUBLISHING.

The following table (TABLE VI on p. 44) will explain ²⁰ After Mass Education in the S.S.S.R. (Ogiz, Moscow, 1933), Section VII, p. 115.
TABLE V.

Literacy of Population between 16-50 years of age according to the 1926 census and statistical figures for 1930 and 1931.21

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Population (in thousands)</th>
<th>Literate (in thousands)</th>
<th>% of literacy in both sexes</th>
<th>% of literacy of each sex</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>Total Urban and Rural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1926</td>
<td>717,425</td>
<td>398,276</td>
<td>319,149</td>
<td>71.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1930</td>
<td>801,783</td>
<td>539,295</td>
<td>262,488</td>
<td>83.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1931</td>
<td>814,328</td>
<td>646,248</td>
<td>168,080</td>
<td>90.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The general development in the number of published books as well as their distribution according to fields or specialities. In studying these tables one should judge the percentage of books published in a particular branch in relation to others for the same year as well as the differentiation in the same branch distributed from 1924 up to 1931. One must be well acquainted with the general development of many other factors in Soviet life to make due account for these variations. Unfortunately the description of these factors falls beyond the scope of this work.

The efforts for the liquidation of illiteracy through the establishment of schools for that purpose has resulted in a higher percentage of literacy among the general population. This has resulted in a high demand for literature as witnessed

TABLE VI

Distribution of Published Books in S.S.S.R. according to various fields of literature.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kinds of Literature</th>
<th>1924</th>
<th>1925</th>
<th>1926</th>
<th>1927</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Child &amp; Youth Lit.</td>
<td>717</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>1592</td>
<td>6.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Mass Literature</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. School texts &amp; Lit.</td>
<td>931</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>2027</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Sc. Literature</td>
<td>342</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>375</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Program &amp; Methodology</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Offic. docum. &amp; Lit.</td>
<td>1353</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>2734</td>
<td>11.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Inform. Literature</td>
<td>631</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>1511</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Other Literature</td>
<td>9152</td>
<td>69.1</td>
<td>16028</td>
<td>64.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total per year</td>
<td>13126</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>23267</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1928</th>
<th>1929</th>
<th>1930</th>
<th>1931</th>
<th>1932</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Child &amp; Youth Lit.</td>
<td>2750</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>3222</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Mass Literature</td>
<td>13605</td>
<td>39.8</td>
<td>18174</td>
<td>44.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. School texts &amp; Lit.</td>
<td>3369</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>5182</td>
<td>12.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Sc. Literature</td>
<td>6046</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>4703</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Program &amp; Methodology</td>
<td>2350</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>2061</td>
<td>6.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Offic. Docum. &amp; Lit.</td>
<td>3000</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>4321</td>
<td>10.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Inform. Literature</td>
<td>2436</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>2668</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Other Literature</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total per year</td>
<td>34156</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>40871</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table VII

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Includes:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Insti-Tea- Stu- Workers' Peasants' Evening Higher Others</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tution- chers- Courses- Courses- Youth Sch. Type</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insti-Stu- I.S. I. S. I. S. I. S.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>it- i- den-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1927/28</td>
<td>1414</td>
<td>8094</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1928/29</td>
<td>2062</td>
<td>10919</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1929/30</td>
<td>2530</td>
<td>14148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1930/31</td>
<td>2471</td>
<td>16378</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After Mass Education in S.S.S.R. (Ogiz, Moscow, 1933) Section VII, p. 120.

The number of schools has increased from 8,094 to 16,276.

In the steady growth of mass literature, the introducing of the printed word to wide masses, hitherto illiterate, awakened a desire for more knowledge and education. Consequently, in compliance with its policy for mass education, and also with the new demand, the Soviet government opened a number of schools and courses for general education of adolescents and adults. The table above will illustrate the steady growth of these institutions.
That many students of these schools, courses, etc., have continued their education beyond the level of the schools mentioned is obvious from the following tables given here. Otherwise we could not explain the miraculous growth of the primary and secondary school among a population hitherto ignorant, backward and illiterate.

THE GROWTH OF PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

The growth of these schools can be judged from the following tables.

**TABLE VIII**

Development of Primary and Secondary Education after the October Revolution. 24.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Pupils in both Primary and Secondary Schools (In thousands)</th>
<th>In Primary Schools</th>
<th>In Secondary Schools</th>
<th>Percentage of Pupils (1914--100) In Primary and Secondary Schools</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1914/15</td>
<td>7,800.6</td>
<td>7,236</td>
<td>564.6</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1920/21</td>
<td>9,781.2</td>
<td>9,206.8</td>
<td>574.4</td>
<td>127.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1928/29</td>
<td>12,074.8</td>
<td>10,468.4</td>
<td>1,606.4</td>
<td>144.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1930/31</td>
<td>17,656.2</td>
<td>15,609.1</td>
<td>2,047.1</td>
<td>215.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1932/33</td>
<td>21,813.4</td>
<td>18,179.4</td>
<td>3,634</td>
<td>251.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1934/35</td>
<td>25,600</td>
<td>18,862.9</td>
<td>6,746.1</td>
<td>260.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE IX
Percentage of Increase in Primary and Secondary School Population as compared with the Preceding Year.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Number of Pupils in Primary Schools (In thousands)</th>
<th>Percentage of increase as compared with the preceding year</th>
<th>Number of Pupils in Secondary Schools (In thousands)</th>
<th>Percentage of increase as compared with the preceding year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1928/29</td>
<td>10,468.4</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>1,696.4</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1930/31</td>
<td>15,669.1</td>
<td>149.1</td>
<td>2,047.1</td>
<td>127.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1932/33</td>
<td>18,179.4</td>
<td>116.5</td>
<td>3,634.1</td>
<td>177.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1934/35</td>
<td>21,000</td>
<td>115.4</td>
<td>6,700</td>
<td>184.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figures obtained from other Soviet sources compare favourably with those given above. The increase in school population of the primary schools for the years 1931-34 inclusive, totalled 2,700,000 or 125.5 per cent. In the incomplete secondary school (5-7 classes) the enrollment has increased by 1,600,000 or 307 per cent., and in the complete secondary schools (8-10 classes) by 150,000 or 358 per cent.

PEDAGOGICAL, ADMINISTRATIVE AND DISCIPLINARY MEASURES.

In compliance with the decisions adopted by the Central Committee of the Communist Party on September 5, 1931, special measures were taken for raising the standard of school education. The most fundamental measure was the establishment of model schools. These were opened in every district, placed in more favourable material conditions, and provided with the

best teachers. These schools provided the stimulus and opportunity for the masses of teachers and others interested in education to learn in practice "how to build up the polytechnical school".

At present (1935) there are about 2,600 model schools in R.S.F.S.R. alone. They claim to be models in respect to teaching, discipline and general educational methods.

The most difficult problem was to find teachers for the schools, a problem intensified by the introduction of universal primary education. This problem was solved in several ways:

1. Many teachers were sent from towns to rural districts where they were needed most.
2. The organization of a mass movement among youth for joining teachers training colleges.
3. The establishment of special short training courses for teachers.
4. Voluntary help given by the intelligentsia in town and country, etc.

According to latest figures there were in the U.S.S.R. in 1932, 623,257 teachers as compared with 336,021 in 1927.

We will turn our attention to Soviet expenditures on education. The cost of public education has risen unusually high in the last few years. In the U.S.S.R. it has risen from 7,000,000,000 rubles in 1933 to 8,400,000,000 in 1934. In R.S.F.S.R alone the expenditure in 1934 was 3,600,000,000

as compared with 1,300,000,000 in 1931. In 1934 the expendi-
ture for education amounted to 31 rubles 21 copecks per head
of the population as compared with 11 rubles 87 copecks in
1931. The cost of each pupil was 69 rubles in 1934 as com-
pared with 31 rubles in 1931 in the primary school, and 177
rubles as compared with 102 for the same years in the second-
ary schools.

With the introduction of universal compulsory ed-
ucation the educational authorities met new difficulties on
account of the scarcity of school buildings. Accordingly,
thousands of new schools had to be built for the accommodation
of all, including the children of the "hewers of wood and
drawers of water". According to latest figures 30 the cap-
acity of the schools in 1934 equalled 120 million cubic metres
as compared with 60 million cubic metres in 1927. During the
period of 1931-34 6,757 new schools were built in the R.S.F.
S.R. In the U.S.S.R. budget for 1935 provision was made for
school accommodation of 500,000 pupils. For the Second Five
Year Plan (1933-1937) 2,180,000,000 rubles were assigned for
the building of schools in the Union. Despite these efforts
the number of schools is not sufficient to give the proper
accommodation for all pupils in primary and secondary schools.
It is probable, that if the building of schools continues at
the same pace full accommodation will be achieved by 1945.

In connection with the aforesaid, let us mention the
public contribution 31 towards the building of schools, etc.

A few (1935) will be enumerated here:

1. 7,500,000 rubles in the Black Soil region.
2. 4,900,000 rubles in the Gorky region.
3. 2,300,000 rubles in the Leningrad region.
4. 2,500,000 rubles in the Bashkir Autonomous Republic, etc.

On September 19, 1933, the Council of People's Commissars of the R.S.F.S.R. revised the regulations previously adopted by the Central Committee of CPSU, concerning the structure of the Soviet primary and secondary polytechnical school.\(^{32}\)

Recognizing the social value of pupils' self-government which could be utilized as a help to school authorities, measures were taken with a view to tightening school discipline and to concentrating authority in the hands of the school master and teachers. This did not mean that discipline was to be strengthened by punitive measures but by developing in the pupils a strong sense of duty and responsibility, and by encouraging methods of socialistic competition.

The method of shock work and socialistic competition is used extensively in the Union. Competitions take place between individual pupils, groups, schools, masters, school authorities, etc. The questions on which they compete are discipline, study, culture, etc. The competitors draw up a socialistic contract which is checked at given intervals, and, at the end of the term, the extent to which it was carried out by both sides is determined by authorities and sometimes the

result is also checked publicly. Money orders, red challenge
banners, and other prizes are given as a reward, from special
funds set up by the government, to those who have fulfilled
their pledges.

There are several organizations, attached to and
within the Soviet schools, which play an important part in
promoting communist education among pupils. A very short ex­
amination of these will probably suffice here.

1. The school council, an organization exercising
proletarian control over school work. The
council consists of representatives of the
local Soviet, trade union of education workers,
local party and Young Communist League, faculty
committee, collective farm organizations, pion­
eers detachment, and parents meetings.

The questions discussed by the Council are those
which pertain to school life, the school's educational work,
and general efforts and measures directed towards the improve­
ment of the schools educational and material status.

The School Council meets four times a year, hears
the reports of headmasters and teachers and passes resolutions
on all questions discussed.

2. Parent Meetings—called at least twice a year.

3. Aid Committee, elected at parent meetings, helps
to find the necessary means for the feeding of
the children of the school, organizing summer
camps, etc.
4. Pupils organization.
5. Pioneer detachments.
6. Young Communist League.

It is considered that through these organizations the Soviet school will be drawn into the social and political life of the country and will be in a better position to integrate with the "Sovietized" environment.

Summarizing this chapter, we would say that the Soviet school has developed and taken shape only in the last decade. Its growth quantitatively and qualitatively has been so unprecedented that we doubt if any other national system of education has ever proceeded at such a rapid pace. Beyond doubt the educational challenge of that country has also discovered new possibilities for the mighty force—education.

In embarking upon the educational task the Soviet government accepted the fundamental human movement towards a better life for all as one which must permeate the school system. On one hand, imbued with a great ideal the school proceeded with such might and force that it is utterly impossible to give account of all its phases and its steady growth and expansion. On the other hand, the clouds of passion which envelop everything done and offered by Russia create the danger that the least sensational features of greater value may easily escape our attention.

This chapter has been an attempt to present the features and figures most indicative of the growth and development of the Soviet school as it has presented itself through
primary and secondary sources to one to whom the ingenuous and sincere character and aspirations of the Russian people are familiar.
CHAPTER IV
PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS. CURRICULUM.

Every Soviet school has its own syllabus for the year. It is based on the general programme adopted by the People's Commissar of Education; but the details are drawn up by each teacher for his class and in large schools by the assistant headmaster of the educational section with the approval of the headmaster.

THE POLYTECHNICAL SCHOOL.

The Soviet school stresses, as the centre of its activities, socially useful labor. The polytechnical nature of the school is thus defined by Krupskaya:

This does not mean a school in which one studies several trades, but rather a school where children learn to understand the essence of the laboring processes, the substance of labor activity of the people, and the conditions of success in work. It is a school where children learn to know the extent of their powers. 1

CURRICULUM OUTLINE.

In chapter II of this work we have shown how the course of study, instead of being organized in the traditional fashion, by subjects, is developed round central themes. The following scheme gives the general outline of the elementary curriculum.

**TABLE X.**

The Plan of the Program of the Elementary Schools.  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Nature</th>
<th>Labor</th>
<th>Society</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Seasons</td>
<td>Immediately surrounding labor life of both village and city family.</td>
<td>Family and school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Elementary observations (information) in physics and chemistry, nature of local region; life of human body.</td>
<td>Economics of local region.</td>
<td>Provincial, social institutions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Geography of Russia and other countries. Russian Republic Life of human body. and other countries.</td>
<td>Organization of state in Russia and other countries. Pictures of past of humanity.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This plan is divided into a larger number of themes and topics which constitute the course of study. To describe the course in full would be a task beyond the scope of this chapter. We will limit ourselves, therefore, to the description of one or more subjects as given in some of the latest programmes of study.  

Omitting much of the detail, we will limit ourselves to the shortest outline only. This will suffice.

2. Ibid., p. 305.

3. Courses of studies in the various subjects for the elementary schools in Moscow, 1935-36. Detailed references given in the pages following and in the bibliography.
give a fairly clear view of the situation.

On the subject of Nature we find the aims and objectives are as follows:

1. Departing from primitive presentations of life, nature, and natural phenomena so characteristic of the period of childhood, one must remove the misrepresentation of religious and primitive character; widen the horizon of pupils with new knowledge of facts in living and inorganic nature.

2. To discover, on the basis of concrete material, the simple lawful development in nature.

3. To illustrate through the process of socialistic construction, man's conquest of natural forces and elements.

4. To awaken the interest for the study of nature and to arm the children with constructive habits for investigation and exploration of the natural elements.⁴

Nature⁵, therefore, could be utilized as a mighty weapon by millions of children,—the atheistic warriors and future workers for socialistic construction.⁵.

The aim of drawing and moulding in the elementary school is to give the pupils those skills and habits and attitudes which are necessary for the expression of their

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⁵ The term for Nature in Russian is "yestestvoznanie" which means "knowledge of nature."
⁵ Ibid.
TABLE I.

A Schematic Outline of Curriculum in Nature in Elementary Schools.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade I. (First Year)</th>
<th>Grade II. (Second Year)</th>
<th>Grade III. (Third Year)</th>
<th>Grade IV. (Fourth Year)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>A. Autumn.</strong> Changes in nature and in man's activity. Introducing the Autumn weather calendar. Distinction of the most familiar trees in the region. Autumn colors of leaves. Familiarity with tree seeds and berries. Preparation of food for domestic and useful birds. Migratory birds. Winter preparations of wild animals. Preparation of materials for winter work and class decoration. Three excursions to the forests and fields.</td>
<td><strong>A. Gardens or Park.</strong> Final touches on the summer projects (Grade I). Use of vegetables. Significance of vegetables as food for the tillers. Weeds, how to destroy them. Insects—struggle with. Minimum excursions or observations. Fruits, uses or, care of and the struggle with the enemies of fruit trees as the caterpillar, rabbit, etc. Some birds—friends of the garden. A minimum of excursions and observations.</td>
<td><strong>A. Soil and Its Useful Minerals.</strong> The several important layers of soil (upper layer especially). Heat and cold. Expansion and contraction of solids. The formation of soil and lime. Salt and its formation. Coal and gas. Metals; brass, iron, gold, silver, etc. The importance of minerals and metals for the country's industrialization.</td>
<td><strong>A. Animal Life.</strong> Invertebrates; appearance and mode of life. Fishes—vertebrates, appearance and mode of life. Fishing and the fishing industry. Amphibians and reptiles; appearance and mode of life. Birds—vertebrates. Their ability to fly and mode of life. Mammals and their mode of life. Apes and monkeys: appearance and mode of life. Lantern slides and films for the illustration of above.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>B. Winter.</strong> Further changes in nature, occupations and activity. Domestic animals and their protection from the cold. Feeding of birds in winter. A minimum of excursions and observations.</td>
<td><strong>B. Domestic Birds and Animals.</strong> The cat and the dog—their similarity with some animals of the forest. The dog of the north. Other kinds of dogs. The cow, the horse, the pig. Domestic birds. How all these were domesticated by man. A minimum of excursions.</td>
<td><strong>B. Water.</strong> Water above and under ground. Evaporation and its results. The destroying power of water. Exploitation of water by man (Dneprostroy, etc.). The three stages of water. A minimum of excursions and experiments.</td>
<td><strong>B. The Structure and Work of the Human Body.</strong> The appearance of man in comparison with other animals. The soma and the viscera. The importance of nutrition. How do humans breathe? The brain and the nervous system. Sight and hearing. The absurdity of the religious teaching of the god-like appearance and creation of man. A minimum of practical work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>C. Spring.</strong> Observation of spring changes in nature: lengthening of the day, melting of snow, etc.; the work of water, sand, lime, etc. First arrival of birds and building of nests; insects—origin and life; animals in spring. The appearance of buds, flowers; the growth of spring vegetables. A minimum of excursions and observations.</td>
<td><strong>C. The Lake and River.</strong> The coming of spring and the corresponding changes. Further observations as continuation of preceding grade. Life in the lakes and rivers. Water plants and animals. The eel and the mosquito—methods of struggle with. Aquarium making and development of. A minimum of excursions and observations.</td>
<td><strong>C. Air.</strong> Air—gases; how to detect it. Winds. Causes; and the construction of a weather-vane. Winds and their work in nature. Air and its composition. A minimum of experiments, most simple, indoors and outdoors.</td>
<td><strong>D. The Manifestation of Electricity in nature.</strong> Storm: thunder and lightning. The construction of a lightning conductor.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>D. Summer project.</strong> Free drawing of animals living in water; insects in the garden, most important trees. Collecting and the gathering of stones and metals. Taking care of plants and gathering for future study in Grade III. Taking seeds in the school garden or elsewhere.</td>
<td><strong>D. Summer Project.</strong> Collection of branches of trees; in water; insects in the garden, most important trees. Collecting and the gathering of stones and metals. Taking care of plants and gathering for future study in Grade III. Taking seeds in the school garden or elsewhere.</td>
<td>**<em>Cited pp. 4-19</em></td>
<td><strong>Cited pp. 4-19</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

Note: The table is designed to outline a curriculum in nature that progresses through the seasons and years, covering various aspects of natural science and environmental education at different grade levels.
knowledge and perceptions in concrete form. Drawing and moulding are given as systematic independent subjects according to a definite program, not merely as an auxiliary method in the course of other subjects.

In the preparatory classes drawing, moulding and labor occupations are the best means for the all-round development of the child. They are instrumental in the development of his organs of reception, response and his creative abilities; they supply the child with various means and powers to reflect his life experiences in various ways and materials; they introduce the child to the nature and use of the most common materials; they strengthen the power of observation and orientation in relation to form and color of objects; they develop skills and abilities in ease and handling of simple instruments; and they also inculcate in the pupils habits of cultural labor, such as order, organization, collectivism in work, etc.

Drawing, moulding and labor occupations are nearly related to each other. They are in substance, the child's inventive activity, in which by means of various materials he expresses his impressions of life. Therein lies their unity so emphasized in the new program.

With a child of seven the desire to do, to mould things out of different materials is still very great. Therefore, one third of the total time allotted to drawing is given

    Also, Forbush, W.E., Manual of Play, Macrae Smith, Philadelphia, 1914, p. 16.

7. Pishchalyaya i zemelnye model'nye i model'nye klassy (Moscow, 1917).
## TABLE XII.

**Program in Drawing and Moulding for Elementary Schools.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade I</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Free hand drawing (8 hrs.) (on themes selected by children after class-discussion) Some of the themes: 1. Interesting moment in children's life during vacation. 2. First day at school. 3. Summer works in a Kolchoz. 4. Village or city. 5. First snow. 6. October demonstration. 7. May demonstration, etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade II</th>
<th>Grade III</th>
<th>Grade IV</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Free hand drawing (6 hrs.)</td>
<td>A. Free hand drawing (4 hrs.)</td>
<td>A. Free hand drawing (2 hrs.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Decorative work (8 hrs.)</td>
<td>B. Decorative work (4 hrs.)</td>
<td>A. Drawing from nature or observation. (Group objects)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. Moulding (4 hrs.)</td>
<td>D. Moulding (4 hrs.)</td>
<td>D. Moulding (4 hrs.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. Skills and habits.</td>
<td>E. Skills and habits.</td>
<td>E. Skills and habits.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9. op. cit. pp. 9--18
at this age, to free creative expression. The remaining two thirds of the total time are given to so called "organization-al" drawing—"to unite the children on common, collective work, common themes, organizing their creativeness and activity in a direction desirable to us."

As aforesaid, we are concerned here with the most simple analysis of the new curriculum. To go more deeply into this subject would require a volume and more. We will attempt therefore, to give the final touches to our description.

Accordingly, the study of drawing and moulding could be classified as follows:

A. Thematic drawing.
B. Free drawing.
C. Drawing of separate objects and group objects according to observation and from nature.
D. The composing of most simple patterns for the practical acquaintance of children with the basic peculiarities of color.
E. Poster work and lettering.
F. Moulding.

The course of study for the second grade school, as drawn up by the State Scientific Council, represents a synthesis or complex around (a) nature (b) labor; and (c) society.¹⁰

As the complex follows the same developmental lines as for the elementary schools, we will attempt, only through the following tables, to present a general scheme of subjects in the

last two years of the secondary school. From there we will proceed to the description of one subject, namely, physics in a Soviet second grade school.

**TABLE XIII**

Subjects of the First Three Years in a Soviet Second Grade and Number of Hours Assigned.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>V Year</th>
<th>VI Year</th>
<th>VII Year</th>
<th>Total for the whole course</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social Science</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>408</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rus. Lang &amp; Lit.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>476</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>442</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural History</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>372</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chemistry</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physics</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>408</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geography</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For. Languages</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>306</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labor</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>306</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plastic Art</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singing &amp; Music &amp; Rhythmics</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>$1\frac{1}{2}$</td>
<td>$1\frac{1}{2}$</td>
<td>170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Culture</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>$1\frac{1}{2}$</td>
<td>$1\frac{1}{2}$</td>
<td>170</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The curriculum in the last five years is divided between general subjects and the subjects of the specialized courses—pedagogical, cooperative and Soviet administration.

The whole work of the school is directed by the dominant drive—socially useful activities. To strengthen the polytechnization of the schools two measures are urged:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>General Course</th>
<th>Special Subjects</th>
<th>Gen.Course</th>
<th>Spec.Course</th>
<th>Total for Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VIII</td>
<td>IX</td>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>Pedagogical Course:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Science</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>306</td>
<td>a. School division</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rus.Lang.&amp; Lit.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>272</td>
<td>b. Pre-school division</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>272</td>
<td>c. Political Enlightenment division</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural History</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>Cooperative Course:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>a. Agr.-Econ cooperative division</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>b. Consumer's cooperative division</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Soviet admin. Course:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>a. Financial-taxation division</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>b. Insurance division</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>c. Administrative division</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In number of hours assigned physics occupies the second place on the curriculum after Russian. The following discussion will attempt to present the importance attached to this subject in the Soviet secondary school and also its method of presentation in the classroom.\(^\text{13}\)

It is assumed that graduates of the incomplete secondary schools should receive knowledge not only in a part of physics, but also a definite amount of information from all fundamental branches of the subject. To use Russian terms, "the subject of physics of the incomplete secondary school should represent the first concentrate."

The selected parts of physics for the first 'concentre' should not be presented at random but systematically. The aim of teaching physics is to provide with such knowledge on the subject as will serve as a powerful weapon in the hands of the future builders of socialist society.

The "Engels" system of classification, in order of increasing complexity, is suggested for the study of physical manifestations. The order would be: mechanics, heat, electricity, light. Moreover, the teacher should always present his subject in a way which can be understood by the pupil and which will awaken his interest.

So, in mechanics, for example, the teacher should not begin with the teaching of the simple and less concrete concept of motion but with the concept of weight and its action on

\(^{13}\) I.I. Socalov and others, Physics, Note for teachers. (Moscow, 1935), passim.
on solids, gases, etc.

Second, the dialectic principle of unity in theory and practice should serve as a constant guide in the Soviet pedagogy. Applied to the teaching of physics the dialectic principle treats it from three aspects:

(a) The connection between physics and technique.
(b) The accentuation of technical achievements by the laws of physics.
(c) The conditioning of the general advancement of the science of physics by economic interests in their historical development.

If this "principle of unity in practice and theory" should lack expression in the programme of the first "concentre", the teacher can give it additional stress and further emphasis in his method of presentation. The practical work in the shops and factories; compulsory excursions and visits to industrial plants, etc., a minimum of which is prescribed in the programme will be instrumental in the application of this principle to the teaching of physics.

The mathematical aspect is of minor importance in the presentation of physical problems at this stage. The formulae should help in the solution of problems of the simplest, most real and most concrete character. The aim of physics is to teach physics.

The following is an attempt to present schematically the program of physics as given in the 6 and 7 years of the unified labor school.
TABLE XV.
Program of Physics in the 6th and 7th years of the Soviet Second grade school 14.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Divisions</th>
<th>Class hrs.</th>
<th>Lab hrs.</th>
<th>Divisions</th>
<th>Class hrs.</th>
<th>Lab hrs.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VI Year.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>VII Year.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Division I Mechanics: Levers, pulleys</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Heat (continued)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influence of Gravity on bodies</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Melting, laws of</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Measurement (length, volume, weight)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Boiling, law of</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metric system</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Heating machines</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specific Gravity</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>Law of transmission and conservation of energy</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pressure</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>Special demonstration of models</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pressure in liquids</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>The invention of the first steam engine</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excursion.</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Atmospheric Pressure</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Excursion.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Action of liquids and gases on immersed bodies</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Levers and pulleys</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mechanical Motion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inertia</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>Electric current</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dynametre... (Dynes)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>The Laws of Electric Current</td>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friction</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Laboratory.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td>Excursion.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>Electric magnetism</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple Mechanisms</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Electro magnetic induction</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Division II. Heat-Energy</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td>Excursion.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sources of</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expansion</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Division IV. Light (some information)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Measurement of heat</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Manifestations of light</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Review</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td>Spectrum.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excursion.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Excursion.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total for each</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>Total for each</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total for class and laboratory hours</td>
<td>109</td>
<td></td>
<td>Total for class and laboratory hours</td>
<td>109</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Comparing table XV given on the preceding page with
the table as given by Kandel\footnote{Kandel, I.L.: Comparative Education (Houghton Mifflin, New York, 1933), p. 782.} there appears to be a slight
difference in the number of hours devoted to physics in the respective grades. According to Kandel, the total number of hours\# in physics is 136 which is 27 hours per year more than
the figure given here. Obviously, from 1933 on, changes took
place in the curriculum and in the hours assigned to the various subjects. Further research probably would reveal many other
interesting points on the matter.

It will be well, we think, to close our discussion with
some notes on the teaching of physics in the higher grades
(Eighth, Ninth and Tenth Years) of the Secondary school.

The aims and objectives of the second "concentre" in

1. The completion, enrichment, and deepening of system-

atic knowledge in the subject acquired by the students

in the incomplete secondary school.

2. On the basis of planned experiments, to lay the

foundations (obsnovati) for a theory of physical

phenomena, helpful to one's acquirement of a

Marxian-Leninistic world view.

3. To explain the achievements of modern civilization

through a scientific physical study of natural

phenomena.\footnote{\textit{Ibid.}, p. 19.}

\# School year being of 36 weeks duration.
As mentioned elsewhere, it would be beyond the scope of this work to describe a curriculum in full. To give a general discussion would imply repetition of what has been said by others and in standard texts. We have adopted a form of exposition, therefore, according to which, following a short general description or schematic table, as a point of departure, a discussion of the curriculum in a particular subject is given as an illustration.
CHAPTER V.

UNIVERSITIES AND HIGHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS IN THE SOVIET REPUBLIC

LOOKING BACKWARD.

The first Russian university was opened in Moscow in 1775. Thus while university teaching began in Italy in the Eleventh century and in France in the Twelfth century, in Russia it originated seven centuries later.

The Derpt University was opened by the Swedes in the Seventeenth century, closed in the middle of the Eighteenth century, re-opened by the Russian government in 1802, and re-named Yuryev University in 1892.

The Kazan and Kharkov Universities were established in 1804. The Petersburg Pedagogical Institute was opened in 1879 and later reorganized as the Petersburg University.

When the February Revolution broke out in 1917, out of a total of 91 higher educational establishments there were 12 universities in the territory of the present R.S.F.S.R.

SOME OBJECTIVES OF THE OLD UNIVERSITIES.

As the universities were opened by Tzarist governments their aim was the training of civil servants. The dominating faculty was that of law and it had the greatest number of students. Other faculties comprising the universities were the physico-mathematical, historicco-philological and the medical.

UNREST IN THE UNIVERSITIES.

In the Nineteenth century the situation in the
universities was intolerable. There was great unrest among students followed by repressive measures. Many restrictive measures were decided upon and carried out, the most notorious being the restriction of the number of students in any university to 300 and the raising of the fees (1850); incarceration and forcible enrolling of students implicated in the disturbances as common soldiers in the army (1899-1901).

Said Lenin in connection with this:

The government was firmly convinced that it was surrounded by inflammable material and that the tiniest spark, a protest against incarceration, was enough to cause conflagration. Now, that is so, then it is clear that exemplary punishment must be applied; hundreds of students must be forcibly enrolled as soldiers! Let them have a corporal for a Voltaire.

After the Revolution in 1905 the Tzarist government exiled many prominent professors because the latter did not wish to be governed by the policy of government-subsidized Black-Hundreds, a notorious reactionary union (Tchernosotentzy).

According to figures recently issued, the composition of the student body in Russian universities in 1913 was constituted as follows:

From Bureaucracy, nobility and clergy...........45.6%
From merchants and factory owners..............35.2%
From tradesmen..................................14.5%
From foreigners..................................3.2%
From workers and peasants.......................1.5%

# The utterance of Skalozub in Griboyedov's famous satire, "Misfortune from Wisdom" ("Gorye Ot Oma")
2. Univ. in the U.S.S.R. (Vosk, Moscow, 1935).
THE OCTOBER REVOLUTION AND THE UNIVERSITIES.

In the new conditions created by the October Revolution the universities could not retain the old order and traditions. From the very beginning the Soviet government proclaimed their policy as follows:

a. All that was valuable in the university was to be retained.

b. The universities were to be reorganized in the light of new conditions in the Soviet state, in accordance with the interests of the proletariat.

c. New sets of students and new sets of professors were to be trained in order to ensure the success of the reorganization.

The most important measures were: free education, inclusion of students in the administrative board of universities; duties of the universities to be also the spreading of education among the toiling masses, granting of special stipends to students of proletarian and poor peasant origin; and the establishment of Workers' Faculties whose task would be the training of the best men of the working class and the poor peasantry for the universities.

During the civil war and the period of militant communism the reorganization went on at a slow pace. In 1922 more energetic steps were taken in this direction and in 1925 the main course of the development of the externa and the interna of the universities was completely mapped out and took final shape. From here we come to a period of expansion which in
the history of Soviet education is called the Period of Reconstruction.

**THE PERIOD OF RECONSTRUCTION.**

On the eve of the Reconstruction Period there were 136 universities and colleges with 163,000 students as compared with 91 universities and colleges with 124,700 students in the Pre-revolutionary Russia.

With the beginning of the Reconstruction Period when the state embarked upon its plan to lay the technical foundations of socialism, productive relations of the entire national economy had to be reorganized. The main problem was the training of fresh contingents of specialists. Special technical, agricultural and other faculties were to be opened and put on a working basis. Out of the twelve universities which existed at the beginning of the revolution on the territory of the U.S.S.R., forty-five universities and colleges were established and reorganized for pursuing specialities such as technical, agricultural, medical, etc.

The success of socialistic construction, the need of mastering new industries, the development of the inexhaustible natural resources of the country created the necessity of training an enormous new body of research and scientific workers. New universities were, therefore, opened in many of the outlying districts of the federated republics.

At the existing universities new colleges were established. Space does not permit us to give a full description and therefore only a few of the most important will be mentioned.
At Moscow University a new chemical college was opened; chemical and geological colleges were opened at Leningrad University; aero-dynamic and soil colleges at the University of Kazan; new colleges were opened at the University of Saratov; in 1934 new historical faculties were opened at Moscow and Leningrad and in 1936 new historical faculties will be opened in many other universities.

NUMBER OF UNIVERSITY STUDENTS AT PRESENT.

There are at present in the Soviet Republic 25 universities and 721 other higher educational institutions with a total enrollment of 470,000 students. Of this total the 25 universities have 22,000 students as compared with 6,500 in 1930.3

UNIVERSITIES FOR NATIONAL MINORITIES.

In pursuance of the national policy laid down by Lenin, the Soviet government opened new universities in the regions inhabited by national minorities. The government has also opened, wherever advisable, faculties devoted to the study of minority language and culture at the old existing universities. The following may give a general idea of what is and has been done in the field. A detailed account, would be beyond our scope.

At the beginning the work encountered great difficulties: Laboratories and student hostels had to be built; professors and lecturers had to be invited from distant parts of the Union; it was also difficult to get students from an illiterate population. (In 1926 70% of the Kazakston (population)

3. Ibid.
were illiterate).

In spite of all these difficulties the University of Samarkand in the Uzbek of S.S.R. was opened in 1933 and in 1935 it numbered more than 1,000 students, of which more than half belonged to local nationalities. The instruction is in the Uzbek language in 71% of subjects taught.

In 1918 the Central Asiatic University was opened in Tashkent. In 1929 fourteen independent higher educational institutions originated from this university. From 5% of Uzbek students in the basic faculties and 30% in the worker faculties in 1927-28, there were 60% and 40% in the corresponding faculties in 1935. In social origin, the student body was drawn 40% from the working class and 40% from poor peasantry. In addition, on professor, eleven assistants and twelve teachers of the university in 1935 were Uzbek.

The Kazan University, the alma mater of a number of great men of science, which was nevertheless one of the most reactionary universities in Russia, is now a training centre for the native population in the newly created Tatar Socialist Republic. There is a special chair of the Tatar language and literature and special attention is also paid to the creation and improvement of a Tatar scientific terminology. The Tatar students receive instruction in their native tongue and their number now (1935) make up 21% of the general student population as compared with 13.7% in 1930.

With the work described above, the Soviets are realizing their most sacred ideals to fill the university with sons
and daughters of the proletariat and to create an intelligentsia among the national minorities.

**IMPROVEMENT IN THE STANDARD OF LIVING AND THE EDUCATIONAL LEVEL.**

A few years ago the universities had difficulty in enrolling students. The prospective candidates had to be trained in special courses or rabfacs (workers' faculties) attached to the universities. The situation has lately changed. Due to improvement in the standard of living, great advances in education have been made by youths who obtained a secondary education and entered the universities. Lately, in order to improve upon the students' preparation, the seven years course of the secondary school has been changed to ten. Nevertheless, the workers' faculties still prepare the more capable toilers and collective farmers for the universities. The increase in the number of students eligible for university study and consequently the increase in university registration was first noticed in 1934-35. In 1934 the social origin of students in the universities was as follows: 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Origin</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Workers and workers' youth</td>
<td>45.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collective farmers</td>
<td>6.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual peasants</td>
<td>6.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers, children of specialists and toilers</td>
<td>11.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>29.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**THE TEACHING STAFF.**

The number of professors and their assistants in the

---

4. Ibid.
U.S.S.R. is approximately 3,000. A considerable shift in the social origin of the employed professors has taken place: of the above number 18% of professors, 48% of lecturers, and 30% of assistants have graduated from Soviet universities. In the last few years alone sixty new professors graduated from the Soviet universities.

The overwhelming majority of the professors of Moscow University are of international fame. For obvious reasons only a few will be mentioned here: Academician Zelinsky, who has published over 300 scientific works on organic chemistry; Academician Trumkin, renowned lecturer in electro-chemistry; Professor Arbuzov who created a school of his own in the chemistry of organic combinations of phosphorus. Others of equal fame are teaching at the Universities of Leningrad, Voronech, etc., as Professors Rakonsky, Zaradovsky, Landsburg, and many others.

AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE SOVIET STATE UNIVERSITIES.

The following is an outline of objectives as given in the University Statutes:

1. To train qualified specialists for general scientific research work and also teachers for the higher educational establishments.

2. To train highly qualified scientific forces for independent scientific research and pedagogical work in scientific research institutions and higher educational establishments.

3. The organization of scientific research work in accordance with the requirements of social construction

5. Ibid.
and the concrete peculiarities of the region in which the university is situated.

4. The spread of scientific, technical, and social-political knowledge among the broad masses of the toilers in order to raise their industrial and political activity and cultural level.

Regarding the preparation of science teachers, the universities "are to train research workers, qualified teachers and to equip them with the scientific method of research and with the Marxist-Leninist methodology".

AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE HIGHER PROFESSIONAL INSTITUTIONS.

The technical, agricultural, medical, chemical, etc. colleges and institutions prepare and train engineers, agronomists, doctors and various specialists for the many branches of the Soviet economic structure. It is here that most attention is paid to the various subjects needed for the speciality with so much stress on general subjects as needed to support the special ones.

REORGANIZATION OF UNIVERSITIES ACCORDING TO FACULTIES.

In 1932, by a special decree of the All Russian Central Executive Committee, the universities were reorganized on the basis of faculties with various special sections. The following table may elucidate our point. (on p. 76).

METHODS OF TEACHING AND STUDY.

The curriculum, methods of teaching are planned by the professors and take final shape at meetings of the teaching

# See some ch. III.
### TABLE XVI

**THE STRUCTURE OF SOVIET UNIVERSITIES AND THE SUBJECTS THEY SPECIALIZE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Faculty</th>
<th>Subjects and Specialities.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>II. Physical</td>
<td>(1) Theoretical physics, (2) experimental and technical physics (thermophysics, physics of metals, electro-vacuum physics, the physics of vibration).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III. Chemical</td>
<td>(1) Organic chemistry, (2) inorganic chemistry, (3) analytical chemistry, (4) physical chemistry, (5) colloid chemistry, (6) electro-chemistry.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV. Biological</td>
<td>(1) Bio-chemistry, (2) anthropology, (3) physiology of labor, (4) physiology of animals, (5) zoology and comparative anatomy of invertebrates, (6) genetics and selection of animals, (7) hydro-biology, (8) ichthyology, (9) histology, (10) dynamics of development, (11) the anatomy and physiology of plants, (12) microbiology, (13) geobotany, (14) genetics and selection of plants, (15) morphology, and systematism of higher plants, (16) agro-chemistry, (17) citology.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. Soil Sc. and Geography</td>
<td>(1) Soil-science, (2) physical geography, (3) physical features of countries.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI. Historical</td>
<td>(1) History of primitive society, (2) ancient history, (3) history of middle ages, (4) history of the peoples of the U.S.S.R.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

# Table compiled after Universities in U.S.S.R. (Vosk, 1935), passim.
No figures and exact data could be obtained for the Faculty of Arts on subjects as philosophy, psychology, philology, etc. There are a number of independent higher educational institutions for the study of above. The writer refrained from repeating what has been described in standard works. He hopes to enlarge upon it, with newer findings, at the first opportunity.

are planned by the professors and take final shape at meetings of the teaching staff of the various subjects. Methods of teaching are adapted with regard to the nature of the subject and other educational factors, but the basic method is that of lectures followed by practical work.

On the average the lectures take up nearly 30% of the time allowed for the syllabus. This percentage can be increased or decreased according to situations and requirements. About another third is taken up by group study, when students gather in groups and study the subject matter of lectures under the guidance of assistants with whom the material is elaborately studied. The remaining part of the student's time, after he has acquired the necessary knowledge and the habit of independent work, is devoted to his private work and study in the reading room, special study room, or laboratory, the latter being of most practical importance. In the more advanced courses the student's practical work is in the nature of research.

When a student reaches this stage he is appointed to a research institute, factory or mill, outside the university, where at first he is engaged in research work of an auxiliary nature
and later independent tasks. Having completed this, he submits his results to the chief in charge who passes his judgment on the accomplishments.

**ACADEMIC DEGREES: SCIENTIFIC WORKER AND CANDIDATE OF SCIENCES.**

Generally speaking, the regular tests during the year and general proficiency plus examinations at the end of the winter and spring terms determine whether a student is to be promoted or to receive his degree.

When graduating from the university the student must write and defend a dissertation in the nature of research, which is given to him for preparation a year before graduation. This is done at an enlarged session of the particular department to which specialists and interested organizations are invited. The graduate is then given a diploma with the title of Scientific Worker.

The higher title is Candidate of Sciences. The procedure is as follows: the most capable graduate students inclined to take up a scientific vocation are retained in the scientific research institutes which are usually attached to universities. The University of Moscow, for example, includes about thirty scientific research institutes. The students of these institutes are called aspirants.

The training of the aspirant consists of several phases:

(a) Studies. The aspirant has to take a number of courses not included in the university syllabus but which are necessary to enrich his knowledge. These courses may be in
the form of lectures or collective study under proper guidance.

(b) Scientific research work. Simultaneously the aspirant prepares certain themes of scientific research included in the syllabus of the scientific research institute. The third year is devoted to a completed scientific work and defending a dissertation.

(c) Dialectical materialism. The study of Marxian philosophy is essential to an aspirant "to help him to master and study the particular science in the light of the Marxist-Leninist theory enabling him to expose the idealistic and vulgar materialistic tendencies and critically to test modern bourgeois science."

(d) Scientific assemblies. The aspirant is encouraged by all means to take part in scientific talks and conversations by reading papers or by bringing himself into touch with other scientific workers in order to broaden his scientific outlook.

If the aspirant intends to teach he is directed to take a course in pedagogy and methodology of the particular subject. Successful aspirants are granted the title of Candidate of Sciences.

There were 1,500 aspirants in the Soviet universities in 1934. In regard to social origin about 75% were either workers or collective farmers. They came to the university straight from the mills, factories, or collective farms. The Soviet literature expresses pride in this fact and mentions the names of many who have acquired world fame. Only a few names
will be given here so as to verify our statement above.

A.P. Helfond, professor of mathematics, thirty years old, who, in 1929, when he was at the Scientific Workers training course, solved Gilbert's transcendency problem and obtained world fame.

A.N. Kolmogorov, completed his course in 1929; through his works on the theory of probabilities he has become a most prominent world mathematician.

C. Kh. Kashay, a Tatar, worked as a horse driver and porter, now professor of chemistry and director of Kazan University.

S.I. Dvatchkovsky, formerly a coal miner, now professor of the Gorky university. It is a Soviet claim that cases like these could happen only in a system of education like theirs and nowhere else.

SCIENTIFIC CENTRES.

Recently many of the Research Institutes were changed into so-called Scientific Centres. This implies, that while administratively they constitute a part of the University, they are given certain independence for deeper scientific research and the right to associate themselves with other scientific bodies and establishments for common scientific-exploratory work.

Of these, the most prominent are the Physical Institute and the Mathematical Institute of Moscow University. Professor Landberg and Professor Mandelstam of the above institutes have discovered the phenomenon of the combinational diffusion of light. Professor Akulov discovered the law of onisothropy and
introduced his method of structural analysis by magnet making possible thereby the determination of the crystallic structure of metals.

There are other contributions and scientific discoveries, the number of which in the last few years has grown considerably. We hope, that the few mentioned will suffice for our purpose.

THE UNIVERSITIES AND MASS EDUCATION.

We will turn our attention now to a point of utmost interest, i.e., the participation of universities in the field of mass education. The spreading of scientific knowledge among the masses constitutes one of the most important aspects of the educational work of the Soviet universities and their personnel. Great work is done in the field of mass education in Soviet Russia which merits our description.

On this matter some light may be thrown by a brief reference to conditions prevailing in this respect in Canadian universities. To cite one case: during an extension course planned and mapped out by the appropriate university authorities, several senior professors and their assistants made a short tour of extension work in the outlying districts of the Province. These educationalists have given up, temporarily, the comforts and pleasant atmosphere of a university campus in order to bring joy and culture to the people, who are in need of such essentials and to whom we owe it, as a social duty. To show their understanding and appreciation the student publication attacked these "innovations" motivating such behaviour by an earnest desire to "retain the professors and teachers in the lecture
rooms for students who pay the university and tuition fees”. To say that such an unsocial attitude, especially from the country’s future intelligentsia and spiritual leaders, deserves the severest condemnation would be a mild way to express it. That a like attitude could be taken by a similar body at other educational institutions under our methods and ways of social thinking and behaviour does not wholly excuse the offenders.

To return to our subject: under the Soviets every university has a special section for educational and scientific work among the masses. We have touched previously on the work done and accomplished by the universities in the basic and workers’ faculties for training scientific forces from the ranks of toilers and farmers. To raise the educational level of the leading workers on the farms several universities have also opened collective farm universities in their regions. The results of these educational efforts have been so magnificent that this work has been extended to regions never before touched.

Another phase of mass education is the university extension work. The Leningrad University, which has a special section for such work, may serve as a good illustration for our purpose. This section, which has on its staff 147 scientists, organizes popular lectures in Leningrad and its outlying districts. In the course of last year (1935) these scientific workers delivered 283 lectures on geography, 109 lectures on chemistry, 105 on biology and physiology, 74 on geography and geology, etc. Altogether about 100,000 toilers attended these lectures. In addition, special lectures (100 lectures in 1935)
were organized for secondary school teachers and high school students of the higher grades. Similar work was done by the Moscow University.

Now in the Soviet Union, the doors of the university are wide open to the children of the great majority of the population. Moreover, the prospective students are provided with all that is necessary to enable them to make use of this right. This does not mean, however, that every toiler or every member of his family who makes an application is immediately admitted to the university. In fact, every educational establishment, every faculty has its plan and its quota of students, beyond which no students will be admitted. The best students are chosen, therefore, and other conditions being equal, preference is given to industrial workers, their children and members of other classes placed on equal footing.

The following are the conditions which make it possible for the poorest toiler to avail himself of his rights to a university education:

a. free university education.
b. stipends.
c. free living quarters.
d. free use of libraries, laboratories, and study rooms.
e. free medical service and attendance.
f. dining rooms, sports, etc.

About 80% or 90% are provided with stipends, others are provided with living quarters. The amount of stipends de-

6. Ibid., pp. 18ff.
pends on the progress made by the student and the number of years spent at the university; at the higher courses the stipends are higher. The amount of the stipend varies from 80 to 200 roubles a month for students and from 200 to 300 roubles a month for aspirants. These amounts are sufficient to satisfy all material needs of the students or aspirants, and enable them to devote their full time to study.

Students live in university hostels, two or three to one room. The hostels are provided with all conveniences. If a student is married he is provided with larger living quarters and he can send his child to the hostel kindergarten, etc. The student quarter in Moscow, called Stromynka, has a population of 3,000 who live in hostels.

Students who are in poor health are placed under special care and conditions, equal to those prevailing in sanatoriums. Some of them are sent for a cure to rest homes or sanatoriums, and the cost is charged to the social insurance fund.

Social work constitutes a very important part supplementing the university studies. It is always borne in mind that the Soviet student, as a future specialist or scientific worker, will have to take part in the socialist construction and therefore it is his duty to familiarize himself with the practical work of such construction while he is at the university. To provide the student with the proper guidance for his social work many industrial and educational circles, societies and clubs, which are in close contact with the party or trade union organizations, are attached to the university. The
students take active part in the above organizations and so prepare themselves for the creative socialist construction in the country as a whole.
PART III

Explanatory Note

With the tremendous development of schools, the liquidation of illiteracy and general improvement in the economic standard of the masses, leisure begins to occupy a prominent place.

It is the duty of the state to see that its citizens occupy their hours, free from economic production, with socially useful occupations of a higher value and worthy aspiration. Therein lie the security of the social order and the happiness of the people. Aesthetic appreciation and production, the development and fostering of talent from among the masses of the people is one of the main objectives of the Soviet. Accordingly, the following pages will attempt to illustrate some phases of the Soviet work in art education.
CHAPTER VI

ART EDUCATION FOR CHILDREN IN THE

SOVIET REPUBLIC.

OBJECTIVE.

Why art education, in the appraisal of educational trends in Soviet Russia, should be assigned a special chapter, we hope will be understood from what will appear in the pages following.

On the objectives of art education of children we may quote from official sources:

Art education is an inseparable part of the communist education which endeavors to create a thoroughly developed, harmonious personality capable of appreciating and understanding art, and possessing a definite amount of artistic culture and a developed artistic taste.¹

According to Soviet pedagogy art education must constitute an integral part of education and training, of mass education in a state where all are given an equal opportunity for the development of talent and natural gifts.

To afford to every gifted child the possibility of developing its talent to the utmost is one of the basic tasks of art education.²

To the same effect we read recently in the New York Times:

To bring all knowledge and all art to her children from the Baltic Sea to the Pacific was one of the Gargantuan tasks self-imposed by the Soviet from the beginning. On her program it was subordinated only to the struggle for national stability and economic progress. Now that those primary objectives are being vigorously pursued,

². Ibid.
she has begun to prosecute the cultural campaign with every means at her command; from radio broadcast to travelling puppet show. She also uses these vehicles to spread the Soviet philosophy and increase Soviet morale.

For the first time, a great State is spending substantial sums in an attempt to act on the theory that education is more than school. 3

The Soviet is spreading art education among all the children of all the people, practically from the cradle to full maturity, but especially among the young, the future toilers and leaders. According to Soviet ideology, art education is indispensable in a state which strives to dispense with mere routine and mechanical dullness in life as imposed by capitalist civilization. With the coming of a greater leisure the masses must be trained how to fill their free time with values of a higher and worthier nature.

Art education is indispensable for the future toilers because leisure and relaxation, with the economic progress of the country, are taking in the greater part of the day in relation to the working hours; and these hours of recreation can be filled with joy and beauty when children, the citizens of tomorrow, possess certain abilities that are acquired only through art education. To recapitulate,

Wide dissemination of the culture of art, the discovery of artistically gifted children and the utmost stimulation of their abilities, creation of prerequisites for cultural recreation: — such are the principal tasks of art education in the Soviet Union. 4.  

Art education must be sponsored from early childhood, and,

consequently, it occupies a prominent part in pre-school education.

**ART EDUCATION IN THE KINDERGARTEN.**

It is in the kindergarten that the foundations for the child's art education are laid. Play is the principal form of activity in the life of a child of 3 to 7 years of age. But playing is closely associated with the impressions obtained by the child from the surrounding life. Note what are the possible impressions of a child obtained from art images in a book, music, picture, puppet play and the cinema. As these means of artistic influence necessarily contribute to the child's development, they must form an important part of the kindergarten program. Consequently the program in the field of playing includes:

1. Studying the influence of art factors, given above, on the child.

2. Toys and play equipment and methods of guidance in games.


One of the basic forms of art education of the pre-school child is musical rhythmical work which consists in singing, listening to music and rhythmic exercise. Singing is conducted with due regard to the age and interests of the child according to projected themes, as songs of revolutionary celebrations, songs associated with phenomena of nature, comic songs, etc.
In listening to music the children are trained how to listen; they are thereby acquainted with musical fragments of vocal and instrumental character and they gradually begin to distinguish the basic forms and character. Fragments from the works of Beethoven, Mozart, Schubert, Schuman, Rimsky-Korsakov, Tchaikovsky, and Kalinnipov are used for the purpose, as well as the works of the modern children's composers: Alexandrov, Krasov, and Rouchwerger.

The training in simplest form of rhythmic motions also occupies an important place and teachers with special musical rhythmical education are employed for this work.

In the field of pictorial art, work is conducted as follows:

1. Fostering the artistic perception and taste in the child. An effort is made to introduce a harmonious unity in the kindergarten so that furniture, murals, toys and materials might assure the development of artistic taste in the child.

2. Organization of artistic creation by the child itself. The work of the teachers is to help develop in the child creative initiative so that the child should construct things by its own creative imagination.

The methods of pictorial work in the kindergarten are based upon blending the elements of play, industrial art, and pictorial work.
In consideration of the interests of the children and to assure the creative character of the pre-school exercises the following innovations have been introduced lately:

1. Children's radio-listening hour—the repertory program of artistic recitation drawn up by the Pre-School Sector of the Central House of Children's Art Education.

2. Puppet theatre, simplified and conducted by teachers and even by children of school age. Thousands of sets of puppets and screens for puppet theatres are turned out and easy playlet adapted to the puppet sets are distributed by the Puppet Workshop of the Central House of Children's Art Education.

3. Table-puppet-theatre, to be played by little children, has been introduced lately.

4. Special films for pre-school children such as films on the monkey ("Adventures of a Monkey"), on the bear cub from the Zoological Park, ("A Glass Breakfast"), and the reformation of Vanya, a boy of bad habits ("The Dirtiest Child").

5. Pictures of customary surroundings of children, directly in the kindergarten—the performance being given by a special film field-brigade consisting of a pedologist, a musician, a storyteller, and a cinema operator. The shows last no longer than 20 minutes.
Considerable extension in the activities indicated above is taking place today.

**ART IN THE SCHOOL.**

Art education in school is conducted mainly in two fields:

A. Music.

B. Pictorial Art.

A. Music. The following subjects are included:

- Choral singing, rhythmics, listening to music (acquaintance with musical literature), musical literacy.

Choral singing and listening to music are parts of the program of the first grades of the elementary school. Rhythmic motion is complete in the third grade. Musical note reading begins with second semester of the second grade. In the first and second grades the children are taught various songs that form part of playing, dancing, etc. During the "music listening" hour, songs of more complex form and content than those they sing themselves are played.

In the third and fourth grades children are introduced to revolutionary songs and various forms of dancing music.

In the secondary school the musical material is grouped around themes, as "Folk music", "Songs of struggle and construction", "M.I. Glinka", "P.I. Chaikovsky", "Post-October music in the U.S.S.R.", etc. On graduation from the secondary school the student is expected to possess the following abilities:

1. To sing from notes.

2. To listen intelligently to music, with discernment of the elements of musical speech.
To know the life, creation and period of a given composer and certain traits of his style.

Music teachers are trained in the Musical Education Department of Conservatories of Music, in Musical Technicums and also in the Musical Pedagogical Technicums.

SCHOOLS OF MUSIC FOR GIFTED CHILDREN.

There are 102 schools of this type in the Soviet Republic. Instruction in this school includes violin, piano, cello, and theory of music.

During the first two years a general course in musical education is given. Beginning with the third year special subjects of musical theory are introduced. In the senior year accompaniment and ensemble classes are introduced.

Graduates of these schools may continue their musical education in the secondary musical school, in the musical pedagogical technicum, and then in the higher musical school—the Conservatory and Higher Musical Institutes. At the Moscow Conservatory there has been organized a "Meisterschule", where musicians continue with their studies in piano, violin, cello, harp, singing, etc.

B. Pictorial Art. This work comprises a systematic course aiming to give the children a definite amount of knowledge in drawing.

Pictorial work is obligatory in the first seven grades. In the elementary school teaching is done by the teacher. In the secondary school the work is directed by an artist—pedagogue.
Much attention is devoted to graphic literacy, the ability to draw objects correctly in the different positions from different angles. The aim of elementary and secondary school is to teach the pupils to depict accurately any objects with pencil and in colors.

The programs and methodical materials are drawn up by the Pictorial Sector of the Central House of Children's Art Education, the members of which visit classes, arrange exhibitions, displays and give written and oral advice to teachers. For the deepening of the work and further realization and appreciation, periodic excursions are organized to museums, exhibitions, meetings with artists, etc.

For further popularization of pictorial art, various pictorial circles are organized as a help to the regular class hours. Special correspondence courses are organized for the preparation of Pictorial Circle leaders at the Krupskaya Art Centre at Moscow and in many other cities.

**ARTISTIC SELF-EXPRESSION.**

Children's artistic self-expression circles are organized in the school and their expenses are covered by the state or the Trade Union. Reviews of children's self-expression circles of a given town or district are held systematically. These reviews and olympics attract the attention and enjoy the support of the state and its manifold educational, professional and industrial organizations. They are instrumental in inspiring millions of children to artistic self-expression.
THEATRICAL SELF-EXPRESSION.

The work on children's theatrical self-expression is carried on along the same lines. The Theatrical Sector of the Central House of Children's Art Education orders special plays which are distributed among the theatrical circles. The senior dramatic circles of the school produce, however, fragments of entire plays from classical literature and dramatized versions of classical works of fiction.

MUSICAL WORK OUTSIDE OF SCHOOL.

Musical and choral circles are organized in addition to musical lessons in class. The aims of these circles are:

1. To raise the level of musical culture.
2. To organize the leisure time of school pupils and pioneers.
3. To prepare pupils and pioneers for the organization of children's performances of self-expression in the school, in the home, playground, etc.

The result of this work is the qualitative and quantitative growth of the musical circles and growth of artistic self-expression among children.

OTHER CIRCLES FOR CHILDREN'S SELF-EXPRESSION.

Along the same lines and with similar objectives various circles are organized for literary self-expression, pictorial self-expression, rhythmic circles (rhythmics, gymnastic motion, art gymnastics), etc.

GAMES.

Because of great attention devoted in the Soviet Union to children's play a paragraph or two, despite the lack of space,
will be devoted to it here.

In all schools and children's clubs there are circles of physical culture. Special circles of "Zatemiki" are organized whose work consists in organizing games. The most popular games are group games, mass games, table games, mass dancing, mass dramatic games, etc. In these circles the children are trained to aid the pedagogical leaders in the organization of mass games at the children celebrations at schools and on the playgrounds. Such celebrations are organized several times a year. These are held in parks of culture and rest, children's stadiums, and pioneer camps.

There is an extensive network of courses for these circle leaders. These courses are attended by many factory and office workers in their spare time. Full-time students receive their wages during the entire study period.

**ARTISTICALLY GIFTED CHILDREN ARE STUDIED AND ANALYZED.**

The Soviet Republic pays special attention to those children who manifest special abilities in any field of art. For that purpose the Pedologo-Pedagogical Department of the Central House of Children's Art Education engages in the study of artistically gifted children—future painters, sculptors, musicians, writers, etc. First, the works of gifted children are analysed by specialists and after due research and analysis the department proceeds to the individual study of the child. Let us learn the steps taken in this particular study.

1. Investigation is carried out with regard to the child's
a. Heredity.

b. Childhood history.

c. Special and living conditions.

d. Sphere of interests and cultural aspirations of the child in various fields of art, science, public life, etc.

2. Characterization of child obtained from school.

3. An experimental psychological study of child's mental development and specific abilities, emotional depth and creative imagination.

Let us quote the authorities on this subject:

In order to establish the level of development of a given artistic talent in the individual child, the Pedagogical Department of the Central House of Children's Art Education has elaborated a series of tests. After having obtained the above information a thorough study of the talent is made and the conclusion is drawn as to pedagogical steps to be taken for its further development: whether early professionalism is admissible, to what extent the child needs special education above the general school, what particular pedagogical care should be accorded to the child in the family and in the school, and so forth. Advice is then given accordingly to the parents and to the teachers of the school.

When exceptional gifts are apparent, the Central House of Children's Art Education secures for such children special education in the corresponding field of art and creates especially favourable conditions for development of talent. Such children are transferred to metropolitan centres and given substantial state scholarships. They are given systematic instruction in the special children's studio at the Art Sector of the Central House of Children's Art Education where prominent

artists follow closely their development. According to the information given by the Pedological Department about 150 children were examined in the course of five months in 1935. Among them many were found to be gifted, especially in the fine arts.

Due to accumulated experience the Soviet educators found it possible to draw conclusions as to the (1) development of artistic gifts in children, (2) general pedagogic principles for educational work with artistically gifted children.

THE EFFECT OF ART ON CHILDREN.

It is most unfortunate that the limitation of this thesis, and especially of this chapter, prevents us from a detailed discussion on the subject. We will, accordingly, limit ourselves to general conclusions.

In order to learn the effect of art on children we must bear in mind the reactions of the child to theatrical performances, moving pictures, etc. As contemporary science (pedology, child psychology) is nearly silent on the subject, the Pedologo-Pedagogical Department of the Central House of Children's Art Education resorted to investigation methods. Armed with necessary equipment and tests, and having on its staff trained pedologists, psychologists and physicians, the above department proceeded

...to study the attitude of children towards various forms apart, to study the effect of specific educational experiments, i.e., how they are perceived by children of different ages, what their emotional influence is on the child.6

As each children's theatre and cinema has its own pedologist who studies daily these relating questions and problems, results could be compiled and classified. The following tables will speak for themselves.

### TABLE XVII

**Interests of children in various fields of art differ with their age.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Period</th>
<th>Interest.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Early age</td>
<td>Games and &quot;minor&quot; forms of art as singing, drawing and modeling.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Older children and adolescents</td>
<td>Theatrical self-expression and theatre attending.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adolescents</td>
<td>Visiting museums. Diminishing of interest for the cinema and increase for the theatre.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE XVIII

**Interests of children in various kinds of films.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Historical films</th>
<th>Science, travel &amp; technical development films</th>
<th>Revolutionary heroism &amp; civil war films</th>
<th>Love-theme films</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11-12 yrs</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13-14</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-16</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

# Compiled after Art Education in U.S.S.R. (Vosk, Moscow, 1935) passim.
The following table may indicate the reaction of children at different plays:

**TABLE XIX.**

Certain characteristics of children's reaction to plays in the theatre and cinema as revealed by a pedological study of the Central House of Children's Art Education in the Soviet Republic.#

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Approximate</th>
<th>Reactions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Up to 10 years</td>
<td>External perception of situations and movements; unexpected reaction of the child spectator entirely irrelevant to situation. Story and plot nearest to child's perception.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beg. 13 year</td>
<td>Perception of psychological experience of the heroes in connection with the beginning of abstract thinking of the child.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 to 15 years</td>
<td>Beginning of perception of the production, scenic designs and quality of acting.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As a result of these studies it was possible to draw up an age differentiation regarding performances for children. At present every playwright and producer takes into consideration the age peculiarities of the young spectator.

**CHILDREN'S THEATRE.**

The significance of children's theatres was understood from the beginning of the revolution. The Moscow Theatre for children was opened in 1921. The Leningrad Juvenile Theatre was opened in 1922. These have become a model for many others all over the country. In 1930 there were twenty-six and in 1935 fifty-seven children's theatres in the Soviet Republic.

# Compiled by the writer.
The juvenile theatres cater to children of school age from 10 to 16 years. For pre-school and junior school children there is a network of puppet theatres, fifty-four in number (1935). Among the best are the Central Puppet Theatre at the Central House of Children's Art Education under the direction of Honoured Artist of the Republic O.V. Obrastsov, and the Leningrad Puppet Theatre at the Leningrad Juvenile Theatre, under the direction of Honoured Artist of the Republic E.S. Deimen. Children are not admitted to the work in these theatres for they are strictly professional. For them there are organized semi-amateur theatres all over the country which receive considerable subsidies from the national budget and public organizations. There is a very reasonable admission charge and there is no box office sale of tickets.

In the course of fifteen years the repertory of the juvenile theatres has increased tremendously. The plays vary according to genre and structure, comprising dramas, historical events, comedies, plays of adventure. The most popular plays are: Krohn's "Rifle No. 49216", "Aul Gidge", "Far Away", and "Brother"; Shestakov's "Treasure"; Schwartz's "Timothy's Mine"; and Makarov's "Rebels".

The repertory of the juvenile theatres includes dramatization of classical juvenile and adult literature, as "Don Quixote", "Uncle Tom's Cabin", "Free Flondrians". Numerous folk and classic stories are also dramatized, such as works of Pushkin, Andersen, Grimm brothers and so forth. To help the school in the study of literature plays of Ostrovsky,
Gogol, Moliere, Calderon and Schiller are presented. Despite all efforts the numerical growth of the theatres lags behind the growth of the demand. To fill this gap the Commissariat of Education ordered all theatres to give matinee performances according to the approved repertory at reduced rates, 50 per cent. of the usual charge. We will attempt to give here a short sketch of the matinee repertory.

1. Russian classics: Gogol, Griboyedov, Ostrovsky, ("Private Settlement", "Lucrative Place", "From Poverty to Affluence"), Suchovo Kohilin's "Kretshinsky's Wedding", Maxim Gorky's "Lower Depths" and "Enemies".

2. Foreign classics: Shakespeare, Moliere, Schiller, Beaumarchais, Goldoni.

3. Contemporary Soviet plays: Veshnevsky "First Cavalry"; Furmonov "Chapaev"; Kershon "Bread" and "The Wonderful Alloy"; Afinogenov "Fear"; Zarkhi "Joy Street"; Slavin "Intervention"; Pogodin "My Friend" and Aristocrat"; Brustein "To be Continued".

Other innovations in the theatrical field are the travelling theatres of collectives and state farms, pedagogical sections at the theatres consisting of pedologists and pedagogues (because "children's theatres as art educational institutions cannot exist without a close contact with the school"), a theatrical technicum for the training of actors. Besides several such schools at Novosibirsk and Archangel, such a school was opened last year at the Leningrad Juvenile Theatre.
and in January 1936 a theatrical technicum is to be opened at the State Central Juvenile Theatre in Moscow.

**CHILDREN’S CONCERTS.**

Concerts stimulate the musical development of a child, but they must be children's concerts, of interest to children.

The organization of children's concerts is conducted by the Music Inspection Commission of the People’s Commissariat of Education and by the Central House of Children's Art Education. The practical work, however, is entrusted, for example in Moscow, to the Moscow State Conservatory of Music, to the musical technicums and schools, to the concert brigades of the House of Art Education of the city of Moscow, to the Children's Theatre, and to the Symphony Orchestra of the State Juvenile Theatre. In the provinces the concert work is managed by concert bureaus, technicums, schools and conservatories of music. The program includes: Haydn, Mozart, Beethoven, Schubert, Schuman, Grieg and a number of Russian composers as Glinka, Rimsky-Korsakov, Moussorgsky, Borodin, Tschaikovsky, Balakirev, Liadov. A number of contemporary Soviet composers are also included: Shechter, Chemerdji, Biely, Davidenko, Koval, Shestakovitch, Knipper, Myaskovsky, etc. The program is built on themes of instrumental and vocal composition of a certain composer as "Art in Music", "Dance in Music", "Folkstories in Russian Music", "Folkstories in Western Music", etc.

The Moscow Philharmonic gave twenty concerts attended by 20,000 children from October 1934 till July 1935. The concert brigade of the Moscow House of Children's Art Education
during the same period gave 210 concerts attended by 35,000 children. The Moscow Children's Theatre gave twelve concerts during the autumn period of 1934, which were attended by 6,000 children, the program being chiefly of Polovinkin's works, written and adapted for children. The Symphony Orchestra of the Central Juvenile Theatre gave seven concerts for the same period attended by 2,000 children. In addition to classical music the program included the work of the Soviet composer I. Kovner. The field brigades of the mentioned institutions in association with local organizations organize similar concerts all over the country.

CHILDREN'S CINEMA THEATRES.

The first cinema theatres for children were established in 1932 in Moscow. In 1932 there were fifteen children's cinema theatres. In 1933 the Soviet government assigned a number of cinema theatres to serve children. This stimulated their growth and in 1935 there were in the Soviet Republic one hundred children's cinema theatres.

The production of films for children began in 1923. At present about sixty of them are shown. Since 1933 a special monthly cinema journal for children entitled "Pioneria" is published by the Soviet Film Chronicle.

The principle genre of children's films is based on stories. There are, however, films of adventures, comedies, etc. Other films deal chiefly with the life of children: "Children in our Country before the Revolution", "Children in the Period of the Civil War", "Children in the Revolutionary
Movement Abroad", "Life and Study in the Soviet Schools", "Children Inventors", etc.

In the foyer of these theatres there is a stage for performances by the circles of self-expression, for puppet shows, cinema exhibition, and wall newspapers. Some theatres are provided with reading rooms well stocked with children's literature, periodicals and games. A special staff is appointed to look after these activities.

**RADIO FOR CHILDREN.**

Whoever is acquainted with the way children's programs are arranged in this country may be interested to learn how the same is done in Russia. The writer knows a number of parents who are contemplating parting with their radios as an entertaining factor because of the detrimental influence of some programs on their children.

The radio stations of the Republic are divided into All-Union, Republican, Regional, Provincial, etc. At all these radio stations there is a Children's Broadcasting Department which organizes radio-transmissions for children.

The Children's Broadcasting Department of the All-Union Radio Committee transmits over its most powerful radio station "Comintern" broadcasts for children three times daily, "Getting up Exercises", "Pioneer News", and the "Literary and Musical Hour". These are organized according to age groups: pre-school, junior and senior age children, the length of the program being 20, 30 and 45 minutes respectively.
The purpose of these children's broadcasts is to organize the free time of children, to provide artistic education for them, and to help the school in its educational work. By its content the broadcasts are divided as follows: literary, musical, scientific-technical, social-political, and entertainment. Soviet fiction, as well as Russian and foreign classics are used at these broadcasts.

The Children's Broadcasting Department of the All-Union Radio Committee has at its disposal an orchestra, a vocal ensemble, dramatic actors, juvenile writers, composers, prominent artists, etc.

At present about 20,000 schools have radio installation. The department receives from its listeners about 500 letters daily. In addition to it

Methodical and scientific research work in the field of children's radio broadcasting is conducted by the Methodological Department of the Central House of Children's Art Education. The Methodological Department studies the most efficacious forms of broadcasting for children, the process of radio listening, and practical measures of assistance to the Department of radio broadcasting for children.

STORY TELLING.

The art of story telling is gaining prominence in Soviet school life. Story telling is taking place in clubs, libraries and in schools. There are varied forms of story telling, the principal one being reading the story from texts but keeping close to the form of artistic reading, and creative story telling.

The local student in education may be interested in Russian works which are adapted for story telling. A few

will be enumerated below: Sholokhov's "Virgin Soil Upturned", Fadeyev's "Debauch", Alexei Tolstoi's "Peter I", Pushkin's "Copper Horseman", Termontov's "Song of the Merchant Kalashnikov", fragments from Gogol's "Dead Souls", from Dostoyevsky's "White Nights" and "Netoshka Nezvanova", from Tolstoi's "War and Peace", from Turgenev's "Hunters Diary", and Gorky's "Childhood" and "In Service."

In addition, great attention has been paid lately to story telling from folklore and historic biography and from materials of general educational character.

This, however, is not the full story. Great attention is also paid in the Russian schools to stories dealing with the country's industrialization and the development of its natural resources. But here and there in such stories problems of an economic and social character must be touched upon; description of and comparison with foreign social structure must be delicately handled. Then, how can the above questions be explained and popularized so that they should become intelligible to children?

"The Story of the Great Plan", by the famous Soviet school teacher M. Ilin, is known the world over. A selection from its chapter "The Two Countries" under the caption "What Happens When They Work Without a Plow", as admirably translated by Professor Counts of Teachers College, Columbia University, merits quotations in full in our chapter here:

# See also M. Ilin, New Russia's Primer, (New York, 1931), translated by George S. Counts and N. Lodge.
Mr. Fox acquires money—one million dollars. But money must not remain idle. Mr. Fox looks through newspapers, he consults his friends, he employs agents. From morning till night his agents comb the city, look about, and make enquiries. What is to be done with the money of Mr. Fox?

Finally a business is found. Hats! That is what one could make. Hats go well, people get rich.

There is nothing to hesitate about. Mr. Fox builds a new factory.

The same idea occurs at the same time to Mr. Fox and Mr. Crox and Mr. Nox and they all begin to build hat factories simultaneously.

Within half a year there are several new hat factories in the country. Shops are filled to the ceiling with hat boxes. Store rooms are bursting with them. Everywhere there are posters, signs, advertisements; HATS! HATS! HATS! A great many more hats are made than are needed—twice as many, three times as many. And the factories continue to work at full speed.

And here something happens that neither Mr. Fox, nor Mr. Fox, nor Mr. Nox, nor Mr. Crox anticipated. The public stops buying hats. Mr. Nox lowers his prices 20 cents, Mr. Crox 40 cents, Mr. Fox sells hats at a loss in order to get rid of them.

But business grows worse and worse. In all of the papers advertisements appear: you may have one head, but that does not mean at all that you should wear only one hat. Every American should have three hats. Buy the hats of Mr. Fox.

Mr. Fox offers to sell hats on a three-year installment plan. Mr. Nox announces a sale; only for one day! The advantage of this opportunity!

But this does not help. Mr. Fox lowers the wages of his workers one dollar a week. Mr. Crox lowers his wages two dollars a week. Again business grows worse and worse.

All at once—STOP! Mr. Fox closes his factory. Two thousand workers are discharged and permitted to go wherever they please. The following day the factory of Mr. Nox stops. In a week practically all
hat factories are standing idle. Thousands of workers are without work. New machines grow rusty. Buildings are sold for wreckage.

A year or two pass. The hats bought from Mr. Fox, Fox, and Crox wear out. The public once more begins to buy hats. Hat stores become empty. From the top shelves dusty cartons are taken down. There are not enough hats. Prices on hats go up.

And now, not Mr. Fox, but a certain Mr. Doodle thinks of a profitable business—the building of a hat factory. But the same idea also enters the heads of other wise and business-like people—Mr. Boodle, Mr. Foodle, and Mr. Noodle. And the old story begins over again.

Clearly enough, to a western mind this sounds as indoctrination or propaganda. The Russians do not deny it. Propaganda to them is an educational means of enlightening the people and of enabling them to achieve the ultimate objective—the establishment of a new social order where "all life must be so organized that not only a few lucky ones but all may feel the joy of life". Moreover, it is a Russian contention that not only is propaganda, in one form or another, prevailing in every capitalist country, but it is even organized in a way that is detrimental to social welfare and happiness.

CONCLUSION.

Without any hesitation, we may state that the period since the War will stand out in the history of education as marking the beginning of a new era.

To this the Soviet has contributed a stimulus which will have far-reaching results in many phases of human endeavor. Although, as some contend, it is a far cry from theories propounded, the aim and objective set, to results actually gained, there are some values in the process of realization which merit an earnest consideration.

First, the Soviet has expanded the concept of national education in terms of its provision. The educational program of that country includes the provision of education from the cradle until senescence. For the care of the infants, it has organized creches, nursery schools, etc. In the field of primary and secondary education the authorities have provided differentiated and varied schools according to the needs and abilities of the pupils. They have taken measures for the liquidation of illiteracy and also have provided opportunities for advanced studies. In the field of higher education, they have opened wide the doors of higher institutions of learning for those who have abilities, irrespective of social standing. Ability and intellectual capacity are placed above material standing and class privilege.

In educational theory, the Soviet is still in the stage of elaborating a new pedagogy which must be earnestly accounted for irrespective of views and preferences. The new
Marxian-Leninist ideology and the so-called dialectic materialism challenge any student to whom the aspirations of education are identical with the cause for the advancement of humanity. If as H.G. Wells once said "education is a race between civilization and catastrophe", all efforts made earnestly on behalf of education must be studied in their true light objectively, and in an unprejudiced and unbiased way. After all, in a country, where prior to the revolution, educational opportunities were for the few, the Soviet has embarked upon a policy of educating all for a civilized life of joys and happiness. Already the new theory contributed by the best Soviet minds is now a product, not only of the Revolution, but also of the revolutionary mind of the new man of the new order. Today, the new doctrines are the thought of the Soviet people.

As education is a matter of vital concern to any advanced culture, the Soviet educational leaders constantly stress the influence of education in a dynamic society. Frequently we hear educationalists assault adventurers and scoundrels who make education a vehicle for the promotion of vested interests. But, as Professor Counts states it, "to insist further that the school should be placed beyond the reach of those forces which are constantly remaking the structure of society is quite another matter".

We come now to the most critical point which aroused so much controversy and intense opposition from so-called democratic thinkers. It is Soviet propaganda which antagonizes

many who otherwise would be tolerant.

But what is propaganda? Let us consult a dictionary for a definition of the controversial subject. We find the following definitions:

1. Any methods for the propagation of doctrines, principles, etc., religious or secular.

2. A society at Rome charged with the management of missions of the Roman Catholic church.  

In other words, any systematically directed effort for the gaining of public opinion for a course of action can be called propaganda.

Says Edward L. Bérnays,

...Is this government by propaganda? Call it if you prefer, government by education. But education, in the academic sense of the word, is not sufficient. It must be enlightened expert propaganda through the creation of circumstances, through the high-spotting of significant events and the dramatization of important issues............

It will be objected of course, that propaganda will tend to defeat itself, as its mechanism becomes obvious to the public. My opinion is that it will not. The only propaganda which will tend to weaken itself as the world becomes more sophisticated and intelligent, is propaganda that is untrue or unsocial.  

The question arises now if the Soviet propaganda, as given in schools and other educational institutions is social, tending for the common good and happiness, or is it spread for the satisfaction of the "ego" or of vested interests?

The discussion of the preceding pages as well as views of unbiased educational leaders reveals the sincere efforts to
give the new generation an education which will prepare it for an all-round socially useful life.
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