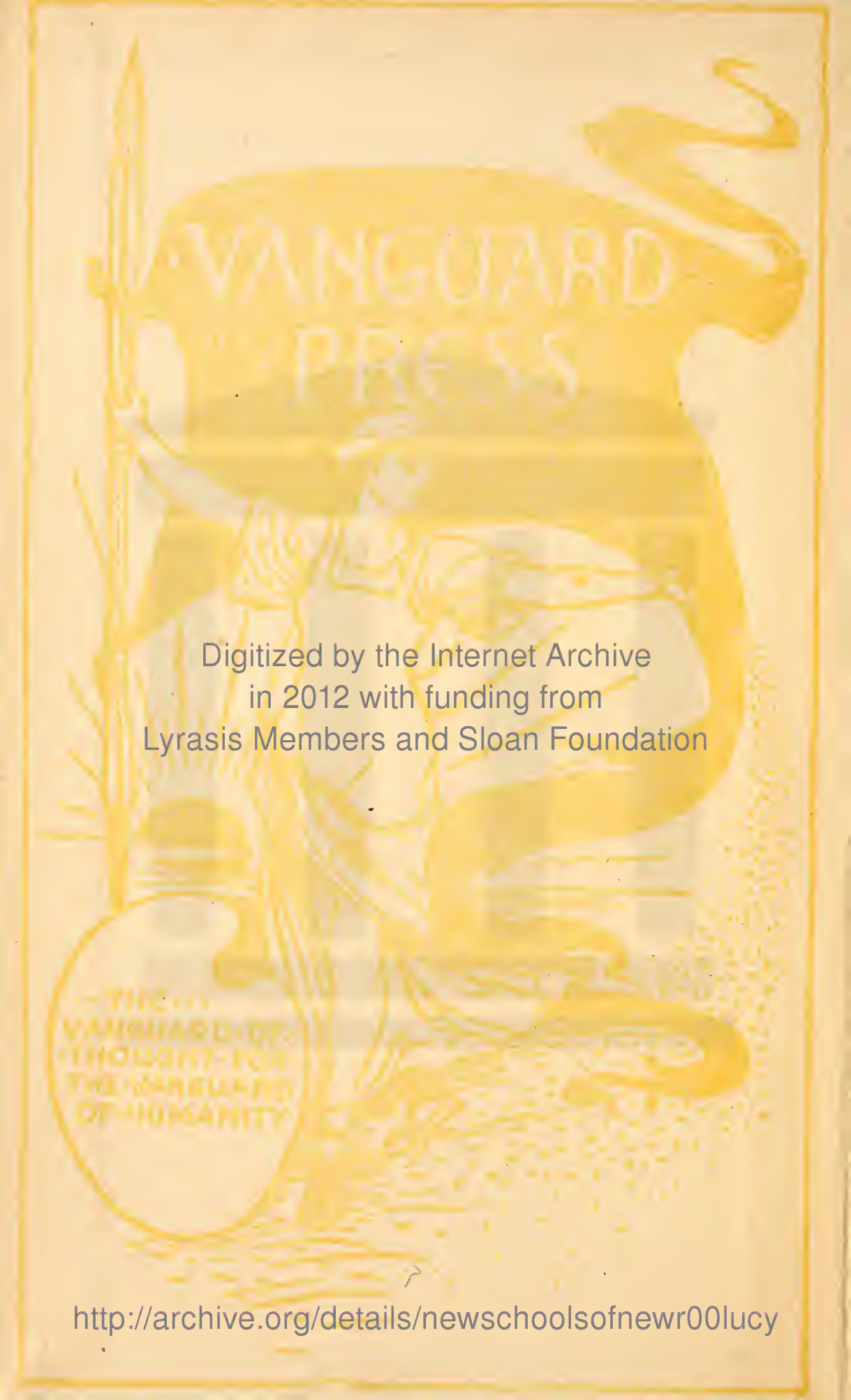


Vanguard Studies
of Soviet Russia

THE NEW SCHOOLS OF NEW RUSSIA

VANGUARD STUDIES OF SOVIET RUSSIA

Edited by JEROME DAVIS
Yale University

HOW THE SOVIETS WORK, *by* H. N. Brailsford

THE ECONOMIC ORGANIZATION OF THE SOVIET UNION, *by* Scott Nearing and Jack Hardy

SOVIET TRADE UNIONS, *by* Robert W. Dunn

WOMAN IN SOVIET RUSSIA, *by* Jessica Smith

VILLAGE LIFE UNDER THE SOVIETS, *by* Karl Borders

THE NEW SCHOOLS OF NEW RUSSIA, *by* Lucy L. W. Wilson

HEALTH WORK IN SOVIET RUSSIA, *by* Anna J. Haines

RELIGION UNDER THE SOVIETS, *by* Julius F. Hecker

CIVIL LIBERTIES IN RUSSIA, *by* Roger Baldwin

THE JEWS AND NATIONAL MINORITIES IN RUSSIA, *by* Avrahm Yarmolinsky

SOVIET RUSSIA AND HER NEIGHBORS, *by* R. Page Arnot

ART AND CULTURE IN SOVIET RUSSIA, *by* Joseph Freeman, Ernestine Evans, Louis Lozowick, Babette Deutsch and Lee Simonson

Vanguard Studies of Soviet Russia

The New Schools of New Russia

By LUCY L. W. WILSON

NEW YORK
VANGUARD PRESS

VANGUARD PRINTINGS

First—May, 1928

PRINTED IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

489

To the sincere men and women of Russia who, despite prison, exile, and death, burned out their lives trying to attain freedom, peace, and brotherhood for the common people.

BIOGRAPHICAL NOTE

LUCY L. W. WILSON

Born in New England in 1864, an eighth generation American; Ph.D. (biology), University of Pennsylvania, 1897; subsequent graduate work in different universities, in various subjects; a traveller and student of education in more than a dozen countries, in the Americas, in Asia, in Africa, in Europe; twice visited Russia with the single objective of studying her schools; for nearly half a century a teacher in all grades of public schools, from the first to and through a city training school, also in several types of private schools; since 1916, principal of the South Philadelphia High School; author of several books and articles, on many phases of education.

EDITOR'S INTRODUCTION

THE Russian Revolution startled a war-diseased world and ushered in the most daring political and economic experiment of the twentieth century. Considering the vast territory affected, the radical changes inaugurated, and the influence which has been and still is being exerted on international relations, there is probably no greater event in modern history, whether for good or evil. Most Americans forget that a decade has already passed since Lenin and his Communist followers assumed the power. The period of rapid revolutionary change has gone. Russia is painstakingly, step by step, building something different, something unique, something whose final destination is unpredictable.

America has been a land of discovery from its foundation. Not only in the realm of scientific invention, but in first attaining the coveted North Pole and in exploring other unknown areas of the world, Americans have given generously of life and treasure. Today we are uninformed about a great nation covering one-sixth of the land surface of the world. Russia is cut off by an Atlantic Ocean of prejudice, misunderstanding, and propaganda. We still maintain a rigid official quarantine about the Soviet Government. The result is ignorance frankly admitted by one "of the highest authorities in our Government," who declares this inevitable "in the absence of diplomatic relations." The late Judge Gary corroborated this verdict, "Like many other Americans, I am ignorant in regard to many

of the conditions which exist in Russia at the present time."*

Every scientist realizes that ignorance is one of the most dangerous forces in the world today. No matter how good or how bad the Soviet system, we should know all about it. Instead, we have been ruled by propaganda and hearsay.

The fact is that for the past ten years the Bolshevik government has been operated on, dissected, and laid in its coffin amidst loud applause and rejoicing by distinguished orators in all parts of the world; yet today it is stronger, more stable, than ever before in its history, and its leaders have been longer in power than any other ruling cabinet in the world. It is high time that we appraise this government as scientifically and impartially as possible, without indulging in violent epithets or questionable and controversial dogmas. Surely the world is not so abysmally ignorant that after ten years of the rule of the Soviet we cannot discover a common core of truth about Russia.

Whether the Communists are thought to be "dangerous enemies of society" or the "saviors of humanity," the facts should be known before judgment is pronounced. No matter what our conviction, we have to admit that the Bolsheviki are hammering out a startling new mechanism in the field of political control. Their experiment deserves scientific study, not hostile armies; intelligent criticism, not damning epithets.

In the past, America has been flooded with propaganda of all shades. Dr. E. A. Ross dedicates his last volume on Russia "To my fellow-Americans who have become weary of being fed lies and propaganda about

* *Current History*, February, 1926.

Russia." In his chapter on the "Poison Gas Attack" he lists forty-nine stories broadcast throughout America which have been proved totally false. Other writers have pointed out similar facts. Walter Lippman, Editor-in-Chief of *The New York World,* in his illuminating study of all Russian news which appeared in *The New York Times* in the early period of the Revolution, has proved the stupidity, inaccuracy, and falsehood of the "facts and fabrications" which have passed as news. Even those articles and books which have tried to deal honestly with the subject have usually been inadequate. They have either been too general or they have been specific but too brief to be of more than passing value. In all too many cases they are based on only a few weeks of observation in Russia by someone who did not know the native language.

The present series is designed to meet the need for reliable, accurate information on the major aspects of present-day Russia. We have tried to make it as scientifically accurate as is possible in the treatment of contemporary phenomena. It has been our aim in selecting each author to choose someone who because of previous experience and training was peculiarly well qualified as an authority on the particular subject to which he was assigned. In every case we have chosen those who either have made a prolonged stay in Russia, actually writing their volumes while in the country, or those who have made a special trip to Russia to secure the facts about which they write. We have tried to make the series inclusive, covering the more important aspects of the many-sided developments in Russia. Each volume is devoted to one major subject alone. People want detailed, accurate facts in readable form.

Here they can be found, ranging all the way from an analysis of the governmental machinery to the school system. Within this series some repetition has been inevitable. The editor believes that this is distinctly desirable since each author expounds his subject in his own way, with an emphasis original to him and in the light of his own data. No effort has been made to eliminate contradictions, yet they are surprisingly few. Where the testimony of all is unanimous, the conclusions reached are overwhelmingly strong. Where differences exist, they should stimulate the reader to weigh the evidence even more carefully.

It is probably too much to hope that propaganda organizations will not endeavor to discredit any such genuine effort to arrive at the truth. Perhaps it is sufficient to say in refutation that no similar attempt to secure the facts about Russia from trained experts has yet been made in America or elsewhere, so far as the writer is aware. There is scant ground for intelligent criticism unless similar scientific studies have been made with conflicting results; even then time alone can proclaim the final truth. No sincere and unprejudiced scientist will deplore an effort to study and describe what has happened in the first experiment the world has ever seen in applied communism, even if mistakes have been made in the analysis.

These volumes, on the whole, not only contain the most valuable data so far available, but they will probably remain of permanent worth. In the future no real historian endeavoring to master the facts about the great political upheaval in Russia will care to ignore them. Is Russia the most tyrannical dictatorship of bloody despots that the world has ever seen? Is Russia the first step in the building of a new world order

whose keynote will be industrial democracy? We do not pretend to give here the final judgment of history, but we do claim to have made a sincere effort to portray the facts.

Thanks are due to the authors who have so painstakingly sought to present the truth as they found it, to the publishers for their assistance in making this a notable and usable series, and to all those whose labor, whether by hand or brain, has helped to give these volumes to the American public.

JEROME DAVIS,
Yale University.

PREFACE

In the course of a long life, with many vacations, spent, for the most part, in travel, often in little visited countries, and, of late years, with experiences in many international congresses, I have often wondered why certains things swept quickly and easily round the world, into all classes of society. Lip stick, for example; variations in skirt and hair lengths; sports; while, at the same time really vital ideals and ideas in education, in social service, come to the few, bloom for a day, and then die, leaving scarcely a trace behind them. Across the centuries, what we choose to call the new education—the attempt to release the creative energies of the child, in an environment in which he shall be free to work, self-directed, with emphasis on right human relations—has caught the spotlight many, many times, with different groups of people, only to be lost again in the limbo of forgotten things.

Why?

Read the answer in the first page of *Prussian Education,* by Kandel and Alexander:

> "During the War and Revolution, attempts were not lacking to level to the ground the fabric of our Prussian school system. Nor were there wanting plans for a new construction on a large scale laid out in all possible styles, frequently enough, after the pattern of castles in the air. Even if the re-

sources had existed for tearing down the old construction, the resources for a new building were not available. They were not available because *the new school must rise out of the ethos of the whole people, because we are still lacking a new cultural ideal to give style and form to popular education. . . . The education of a people can only blossom forth out of the natural life and experiences of a generation.*" (Italics mine.)

And this is what makes the story of education in Soviet Russia quite different from that in any other country. For the first time in modern history, a new school has risen out of the *ethos* of the people. For the first time in history, a people has a new cultural ideal on which to build. For the first time in history, the education of a people is blossoming forth out of the natural life and experiences of a generation. And on these realities—the world of nature, the world of work, and the world of human relations—they are building their schools.

And so for the first time in modern history, education in its broadest sense, that is, "the psycho-physical moulding of a new generation," to quote one of their leaders, "is taking its rightful place as the crown of social thinking."

Nevertheless, as far as detail is concerned there is nothing in their schools that has not its basic counterpart somewhere else, in some other land, or at some other time. It is the synthesis that is new. There is much in their schools to admire, and, on the other hand, there is much in their schools, as in ours, too, to deplore—sins of omission and commission, both.

Russia is not an educational Utopia, it is an educational

laboratory, in which some—not all—of the workers are scientists, in which some—not all—of its scientists "feel the north."

We may not agree with many or any of her social objectives, but we must acknowledge that her educational program is unusually significant. No educator can afford to ignore its existence.

Philadelphia, March, 1928. LUCY L. W. WILSON

"Education has thus now become the chief problem of the world, its one 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. . . ."

G. Stanley Hall
in *The Life and Confessions of a Psychologist.*

"Russia is still primitive. She was never touched by the Crusades, or by the ideal of celibacy, or reverence for women. Her life has been heavy, barbaric, possessed by monstrous appetites and hedged about with medieval superstitions and customs. Up to now her education has never fitted her, either; it has been superimposed—French or German—and half the upheaval at this time [the revolutions of 1917] is due to the strain of trying to fit the old gorgeous material to shallow modern patterns. *When the Slav's education fits him, who knows—he may develop a culture founded on a far deeper reality than ours, and, therefore, more sincere, more profound, and more lasting. You can stiffen the will by training the imagination, but you cannot by training cast a man in a heroic mould. And that is what the Russian has by heritage—immensity. . . . I frankly confess that I do not understand Russia, but to my mind she has a wide angle on truth.*"

Olive Gilbreath in *If Today Have No Tomorrow.*

CONTENTS

THE NEW SCHOOLS OF NEW RUSSIA

CHAPTER I

AFTER TEN YEARS

EDUCATION in Soviet Russia in still inadequate, at least quantitatively, to its great and self-recognized needs. In buildings and other material equipment, in the number of children in school, in the number of teachers employed (very particularly in the salaries paid them), in spite of great progress, especially during the last five years, she is still behind other European countries. Nevertheless, her actual accomplishments, not only in education but also in the allied fields of state medicine and child hygiene, make an inspiring story. In all these enterprises, remarkable organization abilities, intelligent dependence on expert and scientific advice, and spiritual quality are very evident. They ought to help us to make some allowances for her many mistakes, even if we cannot forget her folly, her cruelty, and her almost fatal superstitions. The recognition and the remembrance of her failures and her errors will be more helpful to her than to us. What we need is the knowledge of the things in which she has been successful and right.

In the last ten years, Soviet Russia has fundamentally reorganized her entire educational system. She has successfully launched a new educational program. She has

created many new types of educational institutions. And, in addition, she has made remarkable material gains.

REORGANIZATION OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Formerly there was a dual system: elementary schools, largely religious, for the people; middle and higher schools, including colleges and universities, for the gentry. Now there are unified secular coeducational schools for everyone, including even the classes at first discriminated against, i.e., the children of the former bureaucracy, bourgeoisie, and intelligentsia. True, when there are not enough places in the secondary schools for all who apply, preference is given to the children of workers and of the non-propertied or small propertied peasants. But in five more years, according to the program, there will be room for all.

Pre-schools, technical and professional schools, and schools for adults are now integral parts of the new system.

This fundamental reorganization includes not only education in Russia proper, but also in the other five Republics—White Russia, the Ukraine, Trans-Caucasia, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan, and their more or less autonomous dependencies—and embraces, for the first time in Russian history, literally thousands of schools in scores of non-Russian languages.

THE NEW EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

Soviet Russia is actually giving to the masses in its state supported public schools the kind of education that progressive private schools in this country and in Europe have been striving earnestly to give to the relatively few who come to them.

The tools for the accomplishment of this great enterprise are its curricula and its courses of study, both of them fundamentally new, together with a remarkable series of experimental schools, numerous enough for real and vigorous educational guidance.

The principle of self-activity dominates all their methods of learning. Collectivism in the form of student participation in school government, in group work in the class room, in youth organizations both within and without the school, is well developed. It carries over into the community of which the school is a vital part. The interrelation between the school and the everyday world is very close. Probably no other nation takes education so seriously or sees more clearly that the world of tomorrow is being made in the schools of today.

Aim of the New Program

The aim of Soviet education, determining its program, is formulated by Pinkevitch, Director of the Second Moscow University, as follows:[1]

> "To promote the all-round development of an individual who shall be healthy, strong, active, courageous, independent in thought and action, with a many sided culture; an efficient person striving for the interest of the working class, which is ultimately for the interest of the whole of humanity."

New Institutions

These are very numerous and are fully described in the body of this book. Among them may be listed village playgrounds, schools for peasant youth, factory

schools, professional schools, technical colleges, *rabfacs* (workers' colleges), communist universities, stations for the liquidation of illiteracy, general education schools for adults, political schools and courses, Soviet and party schools and courses, reading rooms, peoples' houses, clubs, red corners, travelling libraries, wall and radio newspapers. In addition, drama, moving pictures, music, art, museums, and other scientific institutions, publishing houses, and the like are now dominated by the Commissariat of Education in order that all the doors of life may be opened to all the people. In Russia, education means, literally, life more abundantly.

Material Gains

In comparison with ante-bellum days, in spite of terrible poverty, nearly 37 percent more children are in the elementary and 39 percent more in secondary schools; nearly 900,000 are in classes for illiterates; nearly 62,000 in general education adult schools; more than 200,000 in political, Soviet and party schools and courses, and there are literally thousands upon thousands of new libraries, reading huts, clubs, and peoples' homes.

New and up-to-date school buildings are being erected in town and village; new and beautiful text books are being written and printed; salaries are being increased.

Intellectual and Spiritual Gains

One of these is negative, namely, decreased intolerance. In the early days of the revolution, this deadly spirit invaded even the field of education. It still exists, as everywhere else in the world, but it is now less dominant in the schools. Education is no longer denied

on the basis of class distinctions. Anti-religious propaganda is no longer a part of the School Program.

Another intellectual and spiritual gain is positive. It shows itself in an increased desire to know all sides of any truth and to understand relationships. This new scientific spirit has its most conspicuous development in that remarkable institution, the State Planning Commission, but it exhibits itself, also, in every phase of educational activity, from those guided by the Commissariat of Education to those directed in the class room, sometimes by the teacher, often by the children.

The attitude of Soviet Russia toward every educational problem is intensely scientific. This is shown in the staffing and the conduct of experimental schools, schools for the deficient and the delinquent, schools for those with special or unusual ability, schools with an emphasis depending upon local needs and conditions, in the establishment, also, of various types of teacher-training institutions, as well as various schemes for training those already in service.

Soviet Russia, in beginning her educational experiment, had the advantage of being able to strike while the iron was hot, and the still further advantage of working by and with and through and upon people of "intense nature" (*sherokaya natura*), of fierce enthusiasms, eager and willing to learn. She had the additional advantage of working in the midst of an old and real culture, already expressed in literature, in science, in art, in music, in the dance, in artisanship. Not only is hers the rich heritage of a past, but, more successfully than the people of any other nation, in spite of her isolation, she is reaching out to other lands, to get and to assimilate the treasures which the rest of the world is discovering.

Soviet Russia has shown remarkable ability in the organization of education, making it dominatingly national, yet with adequate local autonomy. This organizing skill seems to reach down into the four walls of the class room, accounting partly, perhaps, for the extraordinary success of the excursion method, the Dalton laboratory plan, the socialized group—or collective—plan, the Complex, the Young Pioneers, the League of Communist Youth, natural history circles, school museums, and a long list of other achievements, born from the *rapport* which exists between the teacher, the pupil, the community, and the everyday work of the school. Is it organizing ability or is it spiritual insight and artistic skill? I do not know. I only know that in Soviet Russia, *something* has put Youth and the Future upon pedestals. Can she keep them there?

The last ten years answer *yes*, but——

CHAPTER II

OUT OF THE PAST

THE mother of education in Russia was the Church and its birthplace, Kiev. In 1633, Peter Mojila founded there an Academy in which were taught the classics, theology, philosophy, rhetoric. The orthodox hierarchy had been stimulated into intellectual activity by the missionary activities of the Jesuits! A quarter of a century later, Moscow invited three monks from Kiev to translate the new testament from Greek into Slavonic. Later, two schools were organized in Moscow, each with learned monks from Kiev for teachers.

PRE-REVOLUTIONARY EDUCATION

Peter the Great, his interest in education as utilitarian as his interest in industry, sowed the seeds of technical education by importing foreigners wholesale and sending Russians west to be educated. He then created secular schools. These were, first, for the gentry, to whom either civil or military service was obligatory, and whom he would not admit to this service unless they had attained a definite educational standard; and, second, for the serving class who must have a certificate not only for work but also for a marriage license—at least, such was his dream. At the end of his reign, however, there were only one hundred and ten elementary schools in all Russia.

The University of Moscow was founded in 1755, in the reign of Catherine II, but there was no attempt to organize national education until the time of Alexander I. From then until the 1917 Revolutions, periods of educational progress were succeeded by periods of reaction. One of the worst of these followed the Dekabrist outbreak on the accession of Nicholas I. Driving past the University of Moscow, one day, he said, "There is the Wolf's den," and one of his first acts as Czar was to abolish the teaching of philosophy there.[1] His Minister of Education wrote:

> "The younger generation can be turned into useful and zealous instruments of the government, if thoughtful guidance be brought to bear on the development of their spirit and attitude of mind. . . . They can be led into a mood of devoted and humble love for the existing order."

The guiding principles of this unhappy period were Orthodoxy, Autocracy and Nationality. The constant aim in education was to construct dams to hold up the flow of new ideas. In every school the following catechism was taught:

> Q. What does religion teach us as our duty to the Czar?
>
> A. Worship, fidelity, payment of taxes, service, love, and prayer; the whole being comprised in the words worship and fidelity.

After the Crimean War, there came a renaissance in education as well as other reforms. Autonomy was restored to the universities. No longer restricted to

small numbers, their doors were opened to private individuals, unclassified people, and even to women. It became the fashion in Moscow and St. Petersburg to give entertainments to raise funds for poor students. The University youth, in their turn, took an active part in establishing Sunday Schools, popular libraries, and similar educational institutions. Real Gymnasia offering science and modern languages, and real and classical gymnasia for girls were established, both leading directly to the University. Half a dozen years after the opening of the first gymnasia for girls, ninety-nine of them were in operation.

After the emancipation, the Czar and his ministers twice considered the problem of universal elementary education, but it was only when the Zemstvos (elective provincial assemblies) began to function, that there was any real effort to promote education in rural Russia. "It is no exaggeration to say that in the thirty-four provinces in which they functioned, there would have been scarcely a village by this time without some form of a school house, if the government had not incessantly interfered with their efforts," writes Hindus.

The government proclaimed the Zemstvo schools expensive, insufficiently patriotic and religious, and, finally, forbade the Zemstvos adequately to increase their taxes. Failing in an effort sufficiently to revive the parish schools, government schools, modeled on Zemstvo lines were built. The teachers in these schools were poor, professionally, economically and socially. However, both they and the textbooks were "safe," a bit difficult, in a country where schools were sometimes closed because they overstepped their limits and unpatriotically taught fractions.

Even before the assassination of Alexander II, another

period of reaction had begun. It lasted practically until the 1905 revolution. The universities, in particular, were made completely subordinate, even in academic affairs, to the government. Examinations were taken from the professors and handed over to a commission. Only a small percent of the students finished on time, and large numbers of them, 63 to 79 per cent, were rejected. As Milyukov said in Chicago:[2]

> "I know cases where lads were excluded from school for having dared to look into the works of our best literary critic, Belinsky, or for having come to a public library to take a book for their relatives. For a student to be at a meeting of a learned society, or to visit the theater, the permission of the head master was required. Neither was this system of close observation restricted to the college walls; it followed the pupil into the street, even to his own home."

The Real Gymnasia were demoted into Real Schools with a narrow and technical curriculum which no longer permitted the graduates to enter the University. "The children of coachmen, servants, cooks, laundresses and such like people should not be encouraged to rise above the sphere to which they were born," wrote Delyanov, the Minister of Education. Primary education which had made rapid strides under the Zemstvos was again put into the hands of the busy and unwilling clergy. No new Zemstvo school could be established except with the consent of the bishop. Any one approved by the Church might teach in the parish and so-called reading schools. Like Gogol's "Dead Souls," schools and school children existed often only on paper.

THE REVOLUTION OF 1905

Again came another educational renaissance. In spite of government hostility the Zemstvos renewed their activities and accomplished much in primary education. They planned a vast network of four-year schools within a two mile radius of even the remotest village. In addition, before the Great War, they had added more than eighty agricultural stations with model farms and with research and advisory departments. The Co-operative Movement, also, was doing much to educate adult peasants. But the expansion of Zemstvo schools was again effectually checked by the government prohibition that forbade them to raise an adequate tax for their educational work.

What was the net result of these conditions? Among other things, unbelievable illiteracy: only 22.9 percent literates in Siberia; 12.3 percent in the Caucasus; 30.5 in Poland; 71 to 80 percent in the Baltic provinces; 40 percent in Moscow; and 43 to 53 percent in St. Petersburg.[3] The universities, higher technical institutes, and the various types of gymnasia and technical high schools were well-equipped, well-manned, but inadequate in number. As far as popular education was concerned, probably Krupskaya's sweeping condemnation is not far from the truth. She says: "The public school was under the strict surveillance of the priest, the tight-fisted rich peasant, and the policeman. The teacher was always under suspicion. Prayers and religious instruction filled most of the school-time. Icons were the principal equipment. All the text books were permeated with a spirit of bigotry. Histories were written in servile loyalty to the authorities. Discussion of the re-

alities of life was taboo. Nature-study was viewed with suspicion.

"Half the population of the Russian Empire consisted of non-Russian nationalities who often had no knowledge of Russian at all. The Czar's government assumed the task of 'Russifying' these nationalities. Many of the Oriental nationalities were without a script of their own. There was no literature nor were periodicals printed in the languages of the national minorities. No school was conducted in any language except Russian."

Nevertheless, there was much that was admirable in education in Czarist Russia. It began in the home with a foreign tutor or tutors, governess or governesses, who at least succeeded in giving their little pupils the gift of tongues in addition to distinctive manners. To this day a foreigner who speaks French elegantly is at once judged to be Russian. The Gymnasia, Lycées, Universities, were well equipped and splendidly manned. Russian scholars had won world recognition in almost every field of professional work and investigation. Across the years, in the pages of romance, the Russian student is an engaging figure. But it was an education designed for the few and, indeed, possible only with selected groups.

NEW SCHOOLS IN OLD RUSSIA

Here and there we read of schools with other ideals and for other people. Ernest Poole, in *The Village,* tells the story of a schoolmaster, near Schlusselburg, who, in the eighties, succeeded in making his school the real center of the neighborhood, by helping the children learn practically, as well as theoretically, the meaning of gardens and orchards and bee-hives and cooperation. His final success was so great that he was looked upon

as a dangerous reformer and transferred to another village!

And we must not forget the dozen schools established by Tolstoi, one of which still survives and still is a New School.

In many places, too, there were groups of *Intelligentsia* deeply interested in the welfare of the masses and, therefore, in better education for everybody.

In Leningrad, for example, the present Pedagogical Institute for Elementary Teachers, with laboratory classes, a remarkable museum of Child Life before School Age, research and propaganda bureaus engaged in scientifically investigating and then promoting the best educational methods for little children, was born before the World War, under private auspices, functioning successfully, as the Society for the Furtherance of the Education of Children. It was adopted by the Soviet Government in 1918.

THE SETTLEMENT IDEA

In Moscow, what is now known as the First Experiment Station,[4] with its first beginnings in pre-revolutionary days, represents the salvage of something worthwhile and something that has kept on growing and developing. In its evolution, it has exercised a very considerable influence on post-revolutionary education.

This is its interesting history:

In 1904, Alexander Zelenko, by training an engineer, by birthright a musician, a dreamer of dreams, returned from his first visit to America where he had lived for a time at Hull House. He endeavored to inspire others in Moscow with the settlement idea of social reform through friendly cooperation with the workers and brotherly living together. Louise Schleger, a kinder-

garten teacher, and Stanislaus Shatsky, responded at once and enthusiastically to the call. Shatsky had given up a promising musical career to enter the Academy of Rural Economy to prepare himself actually to help the peasant.

The next summer, in the suburb Shelkovo, a kindergarten was opened for fifteen children of poor workers. In the autumn children's clubs were organized. In the spring they were serving one hundred and fifty children, and the following summer an additional playground was opened in town.

In the meantime the organization grew. Its members paid dues, many of them, $50 a year. Others—masons, plasterers, wood workers—contributed work. Zelenko himself was the architect and master builder of the castle-like building which in the autumn of 1906 became the First Moscow Settlement. It had workshops for carpentry, locksmithing, and sewing, and ample accommodation for the clubs of a clientele that had grown in a single year from one hundred and fifty to nearly five hundred children.

The next year, an experimental school with the definite objective of the social education of the community was so successfully established that it attracted the constant surveillance of the police. Finally, before the end of the school year, it was closed by order of the Czar. Both Zelenko and Shatsky were arrested, accused of "trying to plant socialism in the minds of little children."

After the settlement had been closed for a year, the society was revived under a new name, with permission to continue its work with children but with none over fifteen years of age. Teacher training courses with emphasis on the newer methods were organized.

Three years later, 1911, one of the wealthy Morosoffs established a summer camp for the children on one of his summer estates. Its singularly forward-looking motto was "Children are the Creators of the Future."

During the Great War, the work continued to grow both in Moscow and in the country colony. The Moscow Council was asked to give support to the Experiment Station in a report which told the story of its accomplishments under private support. But it was not until after the Revolution that it was actually re-organized under the title of First Experiment Station. Under it is now included, in Moscow, the first two floors of Zelenko's original building where are located a series of charming kindergartens, well equipped, with medical and dental service, still under the direction of Louise Schleger; a typical experimental Unified Labor School for children from 8 to 17 years old, with which are affiliated fifteen other schools in the district; a Pedagogical Technicum in which Zelenko and Shatsky teach, with a Pedagogical Library, including an unusually complete foreign section, of which Kiritchko, another of the Old Guard, is the able librarian. In the country, Kaluga Gubernia, in addition to the colony "Cheery Life," with an experimental secondary school, there are now seven kindergartens, thirteen elementary schools (one of them newly consolidated), an additional secondary school, serving thirty-five villages scattered over about seventy-two square miles of territory. These schools house almost all the children and in most parts almost all the youth. There are thirty-four teachers for six hundred and seventeen pupils.

Shatsky is now the managing director of both plants. In the beginning, in order to plan the curriculum intelligently, he made a thorough social and economic

study of both the regions, one industrial, the other agricultural. One of his present duties is to so inspire the rural and the city teachers that they in their turn study and continue to study both the environment and the children that they may intelligently and continuously recreate their curricula. Mrs. Shatsky, a fine musician, is in full charge of the secondary experimental school in the colony.

Another of Shatsky's self-imposed duties is the recreation of the community, not merely through the children, but directly through the adults and the government. Fire guard, building, water, roads, electricity, cooperatives, and budgetting have been added to his repertoire!

In a little more than a score of years, he has run through a whole range of rich pedagogical and social experiences. Out of these has developed, inductively—through working with the teachers, with the children, watching both of them at work, at play, at home, and in the community—a philosophy, an art and a science of education that is now quite definitely Shatsky's very own: In education these things are basic: (a) the study of the actual environment of the children in relation to and in addition to the study of the individual child; (b) intelligent selection from this environment of something so vital, that it will act spontaneously as a unifying educational force; (c) release of the creative energy of the children so that they individually, and collectively, will press forward to theoretical and practical solutions of problems, acquiring *en route* much worthwhile knowledge and skill; and, lastly, (d) a fine art of guidance insuring good workmanship all along the line. In brief, the Complex. (See pp. 49, 51-52, 65-67.)

The Project? In a way, yes; but its roots are deeper, the plant stronger, the fruit greater in quantity, richer in flavor. But the greatest differences between the Project and the Complex are due to the fact that in the development of the Complex method, theory has followed instead of preceding practice, and, therefore, now guides practice with a master hand. The Complex seeks for workers, calls them to work. Its stimuli are real.

Altogether, the First Experiment Station has made a contribution not only to the groups of teachers with whom it has come in direct contact, but, also, indirectly, through the Program, to the teachers of the Soviet Union, perhaps of the world. During 1925-26, it was visited by nearly 5,000 people, including foreigners from Belgium, China, England, France, Germany, Japan, Poland, Spain, Turkey, and the United States.

Last summer (1927), the station received a letter from one of its former workers, now developing a children's colony at Givot Hamoreh, near Afulah, Palestine, under the patronage of the South African Jewry. The accompanying photographs and the letter itself told the story of the successful application of the principles of the Moscow Station to an extraordinarily different environment.

"How far that little candle throws its beam."

CHAPTER III

THE EDUCATIONAL LEADERS

LUNACHARSKY

THE cultural life of the Soviet Union, not merely education in its narrower sense, owes much to its first and only Peoples' Commissar of Education, Anatol Vassilievitch Lunacharsky, poet, dramatist, revolutionist, gentleman—never an educator in the technical sense of the word. Probably his greatest contribution to education has been his constantly critical attitude. Again and again his reports have given comfort to the enemy. Again and again they have been quoted to prove that Russia's educational program is still largely on paper, that she has not yet solved some of her most obvious and pressing problems—the homeless children, for example, or buildings and teachers adequate in number and in equipment. Temperamentally, he sees and succumbs to the blots on the escutcheon. Actually, to accomplish anything, he needs people with a strong sense of reality above him and at his right hand. These he has had in Lenin, and now in Krupsky and the group of educational leaders who work with her. Probably to Krupsky more than to Lunacharsky is due Russia's remarkable reorganization of education, the successful launching of its new and far-reaching program. But to Lunacharsky certainly belongs the credit for the fact that, for the first time in history, the importance of other

factors than schools in the education of all the people, has been recognized: libraries, museums, scientific museums, artistic and scientific institutions, the theater, music, art, moving pictures, books and other publications, the literature and culture of non-Russian National Minorities. Departments to secure the functioning of these activities in education—growth—are under the immediate and actual jurisdiction of the Commissariats of Education of the Union. (See Appendix, pp. 168-169.)

The story which tells how and why Lenin added these responsibilities to education throws a flood of light upon the character of both men. In the early days of the October Revolution, while the struggle for possession of the Kremlin was still going on, and the seat of the Bolshevik government was in Petrograd, a telegram from Moscow announced that the fantastic Church of St. Basil, largely built of wood, had been completely destroyed. Lunacharsky at once resigned his office, made a public declaration in an open letter to the press, saying, "What is taking place in Moscow is a horrible and irreparable misfortune," and then went to bed, really ill. Here Lenin visited him, refusing to accept his resignation, saying, characteristically, "It is a calamity, but do not be overcome by it. If the Church is destroyed, let us build a bigger and a better one." But Lunacharsky still persisted in his resignation, saying that what had been and would be destroyed could never be replaced, that the people whose *ethos* had created these structures had long since passed away.

In a few days, Lenin took the custodianship of the art of Russia from the hands of a revolutionary committee and put it in charge of Lunacharsky. Lunacharsky leaped to this opportunity, issued another pub-

lic declaration asking for the cooperation of all Russians. "Upon me," he wrote, "rests the responsibility of protecting the entire artistic wealth of the people, and I cannot fulfill my duty without your help." How well he fulfilled his duty is told by Sir Martin Conway[1] and by many intelligent travellers since 1922, when the Hermitage was again opened to the public. That winter and all during the bitter days of the fuel famine, the art galleries and public museums were heated. Immense crowds of people, in the beginning largely to keep warm, flocked into these institutions. They learned to know and to love and to understand what they saw there. It now became, not only their own property, but also an inalienable possession of their souls.

Art has been art, always, to Lunacharsky. Though a sincere revolutionist personally and politically devoted to Lenin, he saved even the Tsarist statues from destructive mobs, provided the monument was the work of an artist. Sometimes, he hid them, waiting for the calmer moment, certain to come. The great black eagles over the turrets of the Kremlin were preserved, in spite of their meaning, because they were an integral part of the old palace buildings. Under his direction not only the Kremlin but many other historic buildings have been restored to their original design. Far from religious, he has regilded many a church roof, regathered and restored to their ancient beauty many ikons, until there is no city or large town in Russia that has not a fine collection of these sacred pictures in its art galleries.

This development, especially since 1925, in the number as well as use of art galleries, museums, and other cultural institutions, together with the increase in the

number and kinds of schools, and especially in their now fairly adequate equipment—rivalling the parallel and equally rapid developments in transportation, in building, in agriculture, in industry—are a great tribute to the devotion and wisdom of Lunacharsky. Had he lived in the time of the French Revolution, how different might have been that story!

KRUPSKAYA *

Those who know Krupsky, the widow of Lenin, through photographs only, cannot possibly understand her human charm. Always plainly dressed, usually in black wool in winter and in a striped light brown cotton in summer, heavily built, heavy featured, it is not until she smiles that one gets a glimpse of this much loved and venerated woman. The universal affection in which she is held may be due, partly, to her long association with Lenin. For five years, 1891-1896, they struggled together in St. Petersburg, active social democrats, both of them, trying to unite the different circles. She went with him in exile to Siberia, she was his hard-working secretary in the days of *Iskra*. Every one of the underground workers of 1905 knew her, for she took charge of all the detail in that connection, from ciphers to people. After the failure of the revolution, she became secretary to the Central Committee, until the second exile—Switzerland, and then in England—which lasted until 1917.

During this entire period, in addition to carrying a heavy burden of detailed duty, she wrote much in reference to the work of women, and, finally, in 1916, there appeared from her pen, *Public Education and Democracy*, a crystallization of her experience in teaching

* In Russia the widow of Lenin is known both as Krupskaya and Krupsky.

and in political work, a fine preparation for leadership in helping to create the new schools in a new Russia.

Far more than most European educators, Krupsky has a very detailed and exact knowledge of our educational movements and leaders. In addition, she has what Professor Overstreet calls the "intercreating mind." Although it was she who asked me about Dewey, Thorndike, Watson; projects, project curriculums, and Kilpatrick; individualized and group work, the Platoon, Dalton, and Winnetka plans; Bird Baldwin and preschool education; continuation schools—yet I got much illumination on these subjects from her conversation, not only from her positive contributions, but even more from her attitude. It was she, too, who introduced me to the idea of *Gesammt Unterricht*—an idea which I had some difficulty in "homing" in Germany itself, the next year.

In discussing the education of native minorities, after instancing the strong affection of Tartar women for their children, the lure of drama that leads both men and women straight to the theater in spite of the Koran, the love of the Koni for the rhythmic beat of poetry, as national characteristics that should be encouraged, Krupsky added, "or sublimated, to use the English phrase, that is, promoted from the lower to the higher stage."

The following strangely impersonal words, delivered by her to the Congress of the Soviets,[2] are, perhaps, a key to her character:

> "Comrades, men and women workers, men and women peasants: I have a great favor to ask from you. Do not pay external respect to Lenin's personality. Do not build statues in his memory. He

cared for none of these things in his life. Remember there is much poverty and ruin in our country. If you want to honor the name of Lenin, build children's homes, kindergartens, schools, libraries, ambulatories, hospitals, homes for cripples and other defectives."

The finest expression of Krupsky is in the New Educational Program, not the less hers in that to it has been added the inspiration, the intelligence, the knowledge, the skill, the experience of literally thousands of others. (See pp. 67-73; 159-160; Appendix, pp. 170-216.)

SHATSKY

Shatsky's connection with the First Experiment Station in Moscow has been discussed in the first chapter. Probably his greatest contribution to education, if it can be capitalized, is his experience in the training of teachers in service. In 1911, he went abroad for a year, teaching and studying. On his return, he began training the teachers in his own colony, at first only a summer colony for Moscow children, by studying with them the physical, the social and the economic life of the villages from which the children came. This was done for the sake of understanding the whole life of the children. "What's good in it that we need to support, what's bad that we must help to change," said he. To accustom the children to hygienic habits of work and play and social understanding, rather than merely to acquire knowledge, became the paramount aim of the teachers.

After the revolution, the direction of ten elementary schools in the villages of their district became his responsibility. His first tool was mutual visits. The

rural teachers came to the Colony for a whole day. Before they left he discussed with them what they had seen, helping them to understand the pedagogical processes involved. These were the dependence of education on social, economic, and physical conditions as well as on the psychical, physical, and age level peculiarities of the individual children. Then he gave this final trumpet message:

> "Return to your schools; study your village; study the children. What must be done in *your* environment, working through the little ones, that life may be better worth living for them and for the community? Soon I shall spend a day with each of you! "

To these tools—(1), a laboratory school, with a well organized museum in which one might see, at any time, all the work of all the children, and, (2), mutual visiting and conferences—were gradually added others: libraries; clubs; *isbas* (reading huts, with newspapers and classes); a study of the heavy work carried on by the peasant women, with the idea of releasing some of this activity for cultural development; and last, but not least, actual participation in the political life of the community.

A Pedagogical Museum showing the work of the village children as well as a slowly developing Pedagogical Library are important contributions to the professional life of the village teachers. Each is in charge of a woman of understanding. Every theme, every drawing of the children is carefully examined. Whatever in either of these will help another teacher is underlined for ready reference, and then organized with other

contributions of the same kind. There is a room for the exhibition of all kinds of school supplies, and another for the exhibit of teaching devices. In the library, new books for children are studied in the light of reports from others, and submitted to the village children of different age levels for re-evaluation.

A somewhat informal Research Bureau spent two years in the study of the physical aspect of the district. It is now carrying on a study of the economics of the region, with the idea of evolving a unit plan for the education and development of this union of villages.

The teachers in these villages are of all ages, of varying ability, with varied life experiences and training. There is not one of them who lacks educational vision. There is not one of them who fails to give a human response to the child, to the community. (See pp. 47-52.)

PISTRAK

Shatsky reached his philosophy of education and life inductively; Pistrak, deductively. Shatsky did not become a member of the Party until 1925, and he was driven into it by his school experiences in practical collectivism. Pistrak, on the contrary, was an ardent Party member from the beginning. An electrical engineer by profession, it was his party conviction that drove him into teaching. He says:[3]

> "When with a group of pedagogical comrades we began our school work, we had neither program nor a precise basis of theory necessary to solve the problem. Not only did we not always know how to state and formulate the problem, but often we did not even know of the existence

of such and such problems. That which all of us had was an ardent desire to arrive at a Marxistic pedagogy, and to *educate our children in the communistic spirit. In the proportion that we followed this general aim and ran up against practical difficulties, we have seen grow in all of us a series of ideas of social pedagogy.* These ideas became more and more solid in the course of our own struggles, and from discussion with other teachers at different times and in different places —discussion that has given us valuable knowledge of other schools and of other institutions for children . . . each of my teaching comrades will be able to find here his thoughts, his words, and sometimes even his formulas" (Preface).

Out of these somewhat chaotic beginnings, consciously dominated, however, by two principles, that of a definite liaison between the school and real life, and the autoorganization of pupils, has evolved his own school, Lepeshinsky Memorial, one of the most interesting and best organized schools in Moscow. (See pp. 64-65.) His earlier methods of teacher training were by vigorous living with his associates and with the children. He has now reached the stage where he can help them best by vicarious suggestions. He chooses his leaders with excellent judgment. Each outlines his plan. Quickly, accurately, forcefully, Pistrak criticizes constructively the detail submitted to him, leaving the execution of it entirely in the hands of the one who has made the plan.

In addition to directing this school and a colony, Pistrak is now an important official in the Scientific Council of the Commissariat of Education. Here his

organizing ability will add materially to the training of teachers in service. He sees the problem as a whole and he sees it from the point of view of administration. His characteristic farewell words to me, smoking furiously the while, were:

"When you get back to the United States, do not forget that there are three things in which I am specially interested.

1. Equipment, the newest and best, along every line.

2. Home Economics "Guidance Sheets," and books and journals, especially those intended for the pupils themselves.

3. "Guidance Sheets" or plans, or students' books along the line of manual training or general—not specific nor technical—industrial training."

BLONSKY

Very different from any of the others is Paul Blonsky. Small, blue-eyed, delicate, exquisitely tempered, he is distinctly the intellectual student type that not even a revolution can break. He is the head of the largest school in Moscow, (2,000 children, from kindergarten through the second grade of the secondary school), professor of philosophy in the Academy of Social Education named Krupskaya, deeply interested in the testing program,[4] and a very important contributor to each of the numerous editions of the Program. Under his direction, the testing of the intelligence of Russian children is growing steadily. Already 10,000 children in Moscow have been tested. This year (1927-28), the Department of Health is cooperating with that of Education in testing all entering school children in

two out of the six districts of Moscow. Next year, 1928-29, tests developed by local psychologists will be sufficiently standardized to be used. (See p. 45.)

Shatsky, endowed with an extraordinary personality and wonderful gifts of expression—music, dancing, art, speech; Blonsky, exquisite philosopher, scientific always, endowed with spiritual gifts of the highest quality; Pistrak, courageous and indomitable engineer—with enough characters of this sort, Russia would progress with leaps and bounds. But there is the difficulty. Even the *élan* of the most successful and drastic revolution that the world has ever known has not discovered, or created, enough such leaders of teachers to meet the necessities of even a small part of the vast territory of new Russia.

OTHER LEADERS

Altogether in 1926 there were about three hundred and nineteen higher educational officials. In general, they seem unusually young, vigorous, enthusiastic, with a distinctly professional understanding and attitude, promising well for the future. They work too hard and sometimes are too dogmatic, but time is already rubbing off some of the angles. Less than 40 percent belong to the Party; nearly half of them are of non-peasant, non-proletarian origin; about half are university graduates, nearly all the rest have completed the gymnasium (practically our junior college); and nearly 70 percent were teachers in pre-revolutionary days.[5]

CHAPTER IV

NEW EDUCATION IN THE SOVIET UNION: AIMS, PRINCIPLES, GENERAL ADMINISTRATION

THE World War was followed in Europe by a trail of revolutions. These gave birth to many new republics. In each, education has been resurveyed, reorganized, and recreated, with the objective of laying a better foundation for a democratic state, by an endeavor to assure to all the children of all the people just as much and just the kind of education that each needs and can assimilate.

In this genuine Renaissance, the interest of laymen, even, has been keen. In Vienna recently, when it seemed possible that Parliament might reject the new Program for Elementary Education, representing three years of cooperative study with much experimentation, 250,000 people paraded the Ringstrasse, demanding its immediate enactment. True, the demonstration was in part political, but when, before the war, was a political party interested, to the point of fighting, in a curriculum for elementary education? And when, before the war, one might add, was a state program for education based on scientific study and experiment with the definite objective of educating children to responsible freedom?

In none of the other new republics, however, has there been anything comparable to the prodigious ed-

ucational activity of these last ten years in Soviet Russia. An educational system and an educational program, fundamentally new, has been successfully launched, with the primary objective of the political and social development of a whole people to a new social order.

Better than any other single country, Soviet Russia realizes that her future rests on the lap of her youth. To the service of education they have called their ablest philosophers, psychologists, scientists, pedagogues. Their educational program is a remarkable cooperative enterprise in which vast numbers, including the children themselves, have taken and are taking a vital part. Naturally, mistakes are numerous, but right or wrong, or rather, right and wrong, the facts concerning this great adventure demand our sympathetic attention and understanding.

THE EDUCATIONAL AFTERMATH OF THE OCTOBER REVOLUTION

The exaltation of a revolution makes it always a period of intense activity, spiritual as well as physical, envisaging hopefully a glorious future, widening into a heaven that while it may never be attained, nevertheless makes the ideals of the past, present and real.

> "Bliss was it in that dawn to be alive,
> But to be young was very heaven"

was just as true of 1917 as of 1791, Sorokin to the contrary, notwithstanding.

It was with this plan that in 1918, the Peoples' Commissariat of Education drew up a program for educa-

tion, making free, obligatory and universal, a pre-school education for children from three to seven years, an elementary, from eight to twelve years, a secondary, from thirteen to sixteen years, together with the pronouncement that every Russian citizen was entitled to a higher education.

Following immediately upon the revolution the years 1917 to 1919 saw a riot of educational activities. The numbers of schools, teachers and children were doubled. The whole vast territory of Russia was dotted with educational clubs, reading houses, lecture halls. "Universities" travelled by train, by boat, by aeroplane to the remotest parts of the country. The scheme was grandiose. Probably it would have come to an end by its own weight. But the inevitable collapse was hastened when the revolutionary successes were almost immediately succeeded by the terrible years of civil war; of invasions, from the north, the south, the east and the west; of famine; of fuel failure; of poverty. Schoolhouses became barracks; teachers, soldiers. There was neither the time nor the means properly to equip the schools that remained, much less to build newer and better ones, in numbers sufficient for the vast army of Russian children.

But even these years had their compensations. Coulichère, professor of mathematics in the University of Leningrad, said: "Never before—nor since—have I had such classes. Both teacher and students shivered in sheepskins. Our hands were so stiff with cold that we could scarcely write. But inside we were aglow with the fire that comes from creative thinking.

"And yet, it was a happy time. We got down to realities. We saw the whole of life. We realized that only by reviving industry could we compel the peasant

to give us food; that all other efforts were futile. We glimpsed the light and we followed it."

"Think what hunger the Russian masses had for learning," said Krupsky, "that they could grasp even this hard moment to learn to read and study." "Think what vitality the theater had to possess to maintain itself through the revolution," added Chaliapin. These statements are true, but both hunger and vitality might have succumbed to the long years of civil war, of invasion, of famine, of cold, of military communism, had it not been for splendid leadership.

The larger number of teachers belonged to the old *intelligentsia*. The more aristocratic of them boycotted the Soviet government. The Ministry of Education, for example, except for its technical staff, was practically deserted when the first Commissar of Education, Lunacharsky, entered it. The actual boycott did not last long, although to this day there are many teachers, especially among the older women, whose hearts are not with the new regime.

The first decree of the Council of the Commissariat of Education was the separation of the school from the Church; the next, coeducation; the next, encouraging non-Russian nationalities to organize schools in their own language. In this same year was developed the plan for the Unified Labor School including all children from 8 to 17 years of age.

In the first years after the Revolution there was on the part of the more revolutionary among the teachers a strong reaction against any sort of an official educational program, and an equally strong belief that the road to the new schools lay rather through the freedom of the teachers to teach just what and how they pleased. Unfortunately the teachers, mostly of the old

regime, had not been educated to freedom. Usually, they followed the lines of least resistance and taught as they had been taught. Of course there were oases. There always have been. There always will be.

Conscious that the teachers needed a point of departure at least the Commissariat of Education published, in 1920, a tentative program for the elementary schools, followed, a little later, by a similar program for the other years. Teachers were asked to study their own environment and to make a program for themselves adapted to local conditions. But the life line was not either long enough nor strong enough. A new base on which to build was needed. Probably, however, these programs prepared the way for the necessary educational revolution by helping to destroy some of the deeply rooted but false ideals of the teachers of the monarchy.

In the meantime, the members of the Scientific Council of the Commissariat were attacking the problem from the point of view of a new child in a new world which he must help to create: what habits, what skills, what knowledge he must have, and, almost equally important, how he must acquire these.

The chairman of the Council was—and still is—Krupskaya. Two of its most active members were Shatsky and Blonsky. The result of their work was the Official Program of Education for the Soviet Republic.

THE AIMS OF SOVIET EDUCATION

There is no smell of the paste pot, no hint of scissors in the Educational Program. Instead, one is conscious of a great, hopeful, vital, integrated plan, embracing

all the people in the Union—all ages, all nationalities, all needs.

The deepest, most dominant aim of the new education is to educate the children, so that, collectively, they may create a new world, in which each may live effectively, cooperatively, creatively,—leaders and followers, in accordance with their abilities and the exigencies of the situations. Theoretically, the Bolshevists may believe, as Bertrand Russell says they do, that the economic instinct is the only instinct of psychological importance, but in the very real life of the schools, biological instincts are given full play. Without doubt, the aim of their education is to make thoroughgoing communists out of the next generation. But will they? There is at least a chance, that out of it all may come something nearer the truth than either capitalism or communism.

With this end in view, the Commissariats of Education have radically revised curricula, methods, even organization. "The old mechanical ladder, created by the bourgeoisie, of elementary education (for the 'people'), secondary education (for their employees and allies), and the higher schools (for themselves)," say they, "does not fit our soviet system."

To this same end, the Commissariats of Education have also introduced various public institutions, most of them new to Russia, some of them to the world: crèches, summer playgrounds, children's hearths, kindergartens, children's homes, children's colonies, children's organizations, (the Oktabrists, the Pioneers, the Comsomol), clubs, Friends of Children Associations, Commissions for the Social Control of Children and many new types of schools.

A second dominant aim is to transform the existing

adult population as quickly as possible into a really literate, politically intelligent people, not merely able to read and write if driven to it, but eager and able and actually reading and studying widely. This they are doing not only for the purpose of raising the cultural standards of the people, but, also, quite frankly, for the sake of creating a new cultural atmosphere opposed to that of capitalism. Much emphasis, both in theory and in practice, is put upon political education.

To this second end, the Commissariats of Education have created many institutions: stations for the liquidation of illiteracy; workers' and peasants' homes, political and cultural clubs and reading rooms; itinerant and permanent libraries; self-education centers and journals; short courses (usually vocational), rabfacs, and other schools for adults; specialized scientific institutes; communist universities; socialized museums and art galleries of many types, old and new; theatres; educational posters and other publications. Many of these are entirely new departures in education.

A third aim is to develop and preserve national culture as an essential to general culture, both in the Union and in the autonomous republics and territories, by developing genuinely national schools in the native language of the people. This is being done in any and all parts of the Union, and whether the nationality concerned is a majority or a minority group.

True, other and more immediate aims and necessities often loom up, as, for example, the need to increase the efficiency of labor, to supply the incessant demands of a developing state for specialists of all kinds, and to educate adults to Party consciousness and efficiency. After the Red Army had conquered the battle front, there came a new "front" to be conquered, the econo-

mic, demanding hordes of qualified workmen. Therefore, the immediate and imperative need was for technical and professional schools, for short courses and apprentice schools for workmen and peasants, and for factory schools.

PRINCIPLES

The basic principle underlying education in Soviet Russia is that the social education of all children to the age of fifteen is the affair not of the family but of and for the state. After all, is not this the inner meaning of our compulsory education laws?

Another principle is that this education must be "collective," that is to say cooperative—the ability to give to others and to get from them, must be the goal, and not merely the acquisition, of knowledge and of individual skill. "The collective principle," says Krupskaya, "is both the point of departure and the final aim of every educational process. This principle runs through it like a red thread. Except through the collective organization of the children there is no social education. . . . This principle is its base, its essence, its content." And so say, also, Dewey and many others in the United States, Cousinet at Sedan, Petersen at Jena, Dengler in Vienna, and other leaders in the perennially new education movements.

The collective principle is used to establish cooperation not only between children and teachers, but also between children and the community, between peasants and workmen, with the Party, with the State, with the World.

Other important principles are that general education must include efficient work and active participation

in public and political life; that there must be close connection between social and vocational education; that education must conform to the habits of life of the future workers, whom it is called upon to provide, and to the particular needs of the region in which the schools are located.

MINIMUM SKILLS

In the Official Program, the following list of minimum skills, attitudes, abilities, and knowledge required of children in the elementary grades, reaffirm the aims and principles of Soviet education:

> *Orientation abilities:* Given a plan, they must be able to find any location either in the city or the country, to determine the time necessary to get there, or to execute a definite commission; they must be able to measure quantity and size; and must have a sense of the quality value of important household objects, at least. They must know local public institutions and know how to get information about state institutions. They must be able to use trollies, trains, post offices, to telegraph and to telephone.
>
> *Fixation abilities*: They must be able to draw simple objects and to make an intelligible plan of a yard, a house, a street. They must be able to give a straightforward account of work already accomplished and be able to plan intelligently for future work. They must be able to write reports of any simple occurrence, to keep simple accounts, to budget, and to bulletin.
>
> *Knowledge of the physical care of human beings, including their clothing and shelter:* They must

know and practice personal hygiene and first aid; ventilation, disinfection, and proper cleaning of a building; repair, cleaning and laundry of clothing; preparation of an everyday properly balanced meal.

Practical abilities: They must be able to make small repairs in the house to furniture, to dishes, using simple tools. They must be able to use electricity and irrigation devices, including ability to repair the latter. They must be able to take apart, clean, and put together again such simple machines as a meat cutter, lamp, burner, etc.

They must be able to take ordinary care of domestic plants and animals and to work in the field, orchard, and vegetable garden in accordance with their years and strength.

Above all, they must develop intelligence and initiative shown in the acquisition of the following abilities: to make systematic accurate observation; to gather together the different factors involved in the study of a single subject; to use the dictionary, catalogues, newspapers, journals, the directory, and the like; to use a museum, exhibitions, archives, etc.

And then, the final test: They must be able to take part in the community life, actively participating in meetings, leading them, taking and writing minutes. They must have to their credit some individual achievement on a "commission" and in group work, as well as in the organization of something—it may be a group, a club, an association, a celebration, a recreation.

As Krupskaya, 1920, said to the League of Communist Youth:

First, the school must develop in a child an active interest in phenomena of nature and of public life. Second, the school must teach the child to seek scientific answers to his questions in books. Third, the school must develop in children the habit of studying and working in groups.

Besides those educational principles, the school must supply her pupils with certain knowledge and methods which are necessary to help them to function in civilized society and will be of value to them in their further self education.

Given students thus equipped with what should be common sense and what should be every day knowledge and habits, what might we secondary school teachers in the United States of America be able to accomplish in our high schools?

But is it real, or only on paper?

It is almost unbelievably real, for we must remember that such education in Soviet Russia is very young and carried on under circumstances of unusual difficulty. Nowhere else, except in progressive private schools and in experimental public schools of Germany, have I ever seen as large a proportion of capable, happy, and eager children.

GENERAL ADMINISTRATION

The administration of education in each of the six republics of the Union of Socialist Soviet Republics, U.S.S.R., formerly the Russian Empire, is under the direction of a Peoples' Commissariat of Education, each with complete autonomy. This is in agreement with the first section of the constitution "that this union is a voluntary union of equal peoples; that each Re-

public is secured the right of freely withdrawing from the union . . . that the new united State is a worthy crown of the foundations laid in October, 1917, of the peaceful dwelling together and brotherly collaboration of peoples."

Nevertheless, educational programs and educational policies are conspicuously in harmony, one with another, due to the fact that the important things are decided by the Communist Party, an inter-republic organization, and that there are periodical conferences between the Commissars for the discussion and harmonization of details.

The Commissariat of Education of each Republic in the Union has local departments (gubernia, county, township, village) attached to the executive committee of the local soviet. Moreover, each local soviet has a special committee on national education so that the watchwords of the leaders are relatively easily launched. They in their turn are able to respond to local needs and aspirations. The local departments also secure the greater part of the necessary money. (See Chap. XVII.)

The Commissariat of Education is subdivided into eleven different departments including among others a Scientific Council, a central organ for the study and administration of methods and curricula; a Board for Scientific and Art Institutions, directing the work of scientific societies, observation centers, research institutes, museums, art and musical institutes, and state theaters; a Board for State Moving Picture Enterprises; a Board for Literature and Publications; and a State Publishing Agency. (See Appendix, pp. 168-169.)

In addition to formal educational work directed by the Commissariats of Education very important educational work is being carried on by the various Youth

Associations, by the Red Army, by the Trades Unions and Artels, and by Cooperative Shops and Societies. Moreover, literally millions of people take an active part in educational work through such societies as *Down with Illiteracy*, the *Childrens' Friend*, and many others.

A whole nation is at school.

CHAPTER V

RURAL EDUCATION

In all the larger cities of what was once European Russia, elementary education at least has been made universal. There is a seat for every child. The situation in the country is less fortunate. The desire for education, slow in coming, has been awakened, but in spite of the fact that the peasants themselves are constructing schools with their own hands,[1] there are not even buildings enough, suitable or unsuitable, to accommodate those who seek admission into the schools. The problem is one that only time and money can solve.

Nevertheless, the situation is not nearly as black as it is often painted by those who knew conditions five years ago. "The schools have no books, no paper, no pencils, nothing—only bored children and unhappy teachers," is a statement frequently heard from people who still live in Russia, but have not been inside a school building since the famine. Doubtless, there are many unhappy teachers, many bored children—certainly there are many others who are finding school a great and happy adventure—but the schools are now reasonably well equipped, and attractive school books are abundantly in evidence even in small villages. Here as elsewhere shining faces and school bags bear witness to the most important daily occupation of the children.

Even among the National Minorities, in the Tartar villages along the Volga for example, there are books

for the children, not only in Russian, but also in their own beautiful script.

The problem everywhere is the same. All children need kindergartens, hearths, playgrounds; elementary, secondary, and vocational education. There must be opportunity for the gifted, for the defective, and for those whose earlier education was neglected. But the difficulties in the way of a practical solution of the problem are more numerous and harder to overcome in the village than in the town. About eighty-two percent of the population is rural and scattered, so that equal educational opportunity under most favorable conditions will cost much more than in town.

RURAL EDUCATION IN PRE-REVOLUTIONARY DAYS

Education in rural districts before the revolution was extremely meager. The first elementary schools for all classes of people were the Arithmetic Schools established by Peter the Great in 1714, but at the end of the eighteenth century there were no schools for peasants except a few private and secretly conducted ones. Education was for the privileged classes only. At the beginning of the nineteenth century the Ukase of Alexander I, reaffirmed by Nicholas I, forbade the admission of peasants to schools higher than parish and district schools. Later, they were restricted to parish schools.

> "Knowledge is useful only when, like salt, it is used and offered in small measures according to the people's circumstances and their needs. . . . To teach the masses of the people, or even the majority of them, how to read will do them more

harm than good," said the Minister of Education to Alexander I.

The first national schools were developed in 1830 on crown lands with the idea of educating a large army of clerks to look after the interests of the imperial family. Soon primary schools were built on state lands and parish schools on private estates. In all of them emphasis was put on religion and the Slavonic Church language (two-fifths of the time), Russian (one-third), and the four fundamental operations in arithmetic (a sixth); no geography, no history, no science, not even fractions! Never were there schools enough and they were always overcrowded. Moreover, they were so ineffective that large numbers of their graduates soon lapsed into illiteracy. When the *Zemstvos* (village councils) came, they organized new schools offering three and four years of elementary education. Again there were not enough to accommodate those who wished to attend them, and when in 1902 the Zemstvos planned to introduce universal elementary education, the government made it impossible for them to get the necessary funds. Small wonder that at the beginning of the World War at least half the Russian peasants were unable even to sign their names.

POST-REVOLUTIONARY RURAL EDUCATION

In 1926, when for the first time universal education was attained in the larger towns, less than half the village children were given the same opportunity.[2] Even in the Ukraine, advanced though that state is, they are expecting to educate not more than sixty percent of the village children, in 1927-1928.

These are the low lights, less discouraging to those

of us who remember the slow development of rural education in our own country than to those whose horizon is bounded by the knowledge only of compulsory education in northern Europe and in our own large cities, of more recent date. In the Russian picture there are high lights: the base on which they are building is sound. According to the Binet-Burt tests, peasant children in elementary schools rank higher in intelligence than town children. In other words their life experiences, particularly their first-hand contact with nature, have served admirably as the first school for their mental development. Moreover, the curriculum with which they are working, is so organized as to fit the work to the local environment with the definite aim of its constant improvement; and the scheme for supervision and guidance is excellent. In each rural district (*volost*) there is an experimental school, with curricular and organizational freedom, whose duty it is to help all the teachers in the same region by mutual visits, conferences, and in other practical ways. Of course the success of this scheme depends upon the human variable of the quality of both groups of teachers.

Very illuminating are the differences between two stories of night pasture, the one told by Turgenieff, and the other by Hindus (see bibliography). Both are exquisitely written by men sensitive to human values as well as to the beauties of nature. In the Turgenieff story, the boys are full of fears and superstitions. They talk only of house sprites, water fairies, the Evil One, ghosts, Triska (the Anti-Christ), and forest demons. In *Broken Earth,* Mr. Hindus rides to pasture with the boys and girls of his own village to which he has returned after an absence of nineteen years in the United

States. The lads were anxious to get him away from the old people who had learned little from the great events of recent years. They told Hindus that the younger generation was very different, for they had been in the Red Army, they had read books, and they had listened to lectures. None of them, not even the little ones, believed in ghosts or spirits, water nymphs or house goblins. Such beliefs, they said, had come from the priests who kept the peasants ignorant so that they might sprinkle holy water on the house to drive away the spirits, receiving in return rye and a basket of eggs.

Instead of the talk of his youth, these boys and girls discussed marriage, morality, religion, America, the Revolution, taxes, soviet officials, newspapers, the army, clubs, science, technique, tractors, electricity, education, culture.

INDIVIDUAL SCHOOLS

In Kaluga Gubernia, about one hundred miles from Moscow, there is a volost in which is located a Children's Colony with its secondary school, a musical and social center, a museum, a library. Thirty-five villages depend for guidance upon the Colony. Within a mile or two of each village, often in the village itself, there is a school. In all, there are thirteen elementary schools, seven kindergartens, and a secondary school in addition to the Colony school. There are thirty-four village teachers for six hundred and seventeen village children. The director of the whole group is Stanislaus Shatsky (see pp. 14-17; 23-25), a leader in education even in pre-revolutionary days.

The region is bog land, clayey forest, very lovely undulating land with pine and birch woods of ex-

quisite beauty. Its economic value is low. From the land alone scarcely any family can earn the necessities of life. In consequence, weaving—hand looms, of course—is a family occupation. Day and night some one is at the loom, perhaps a child, perhaps an adult, each taking his turn. In the volost, there is a local textile and a potato products factory. Each week, many men go into the city to work, leaving the farm work almost entirely to the women. On Saturday night, about nine o'clock, they return home. The tide of life runs high until they leave their homes in the pitch dark of early morning, often walking miles to the station in time to catch the last morning train, 3:00 A. M. in summer, 5:00 A. M. in winter! The normal sanitary, social, and cultural level is low, as everywhere in rural Russia. A single bed, perhaps with individual sheepskins, a single dish, are considered adequate even for a large family. The schools are making some headway however in establishing the right of the child to an individual shakedown and a piece of washable cloth between him and the sheepskin!

The work of the women is hard and incessant, but they are handsome, vigorous, and they dominate village life. The work of the children is important and too heavy for them, but they are intelligent and gay. Instead of trying to increase their home work the schools are very wisely trying to organize it so that it may bear less heavily upon them, and so that they may understand its inner meaning, its relation to surrounding life, as well as the meaning and social importance of all labor.

In these schools, the teaching is quite uniformly good, although the teachers are of all ages and with very different types of preparation. In a consolidated school

serving two villages one man is in charge of Grades 3 and 4 (ages 10, 11, 12). He skillfully plans his day so that always when he is needed for guidance and demonstration with one group exclusively, the other has self-directed work. For example, Grade 3 had been investigating the question of the shape of the earth by getting hold of the village theories through personal questionings, by reading and by thinking. After a lively class discussion, which, later, was cooperatively organized into a black-board outline, he left them to write it up, visting Grade 4. In his absence, the latter had weighed dried potatoes, comparing this weight with the weight of the same potatoes as they had come fresh from the ground. Their results were already entered in their notebooks in a shipshape, business-like way. The first problem, why did the potatoes now weigh much less, was answered easily enough. The next question, how shall we find out what substances other than water enter into the make-up of the potato, was more difficult. I left them grating the potato to return to the class room to see what the children were doing with the round world. Every child was writing vigorously. There was no chewing of penholders. On the contrary, the difficulty seemed to be that there was too much to tell. Very charmingly, and with much variety of expression, they reported on the beliefs of the village people that the earth was flat, that it was four-cornered, that it rested on the back of a turtle, on those of three elephants, that, as "my grandfather says," wrote one, "that however it is, it is as God made it."

Nor are the "disciplines," as they call academic work, neglected in these schools. Reading, writing, arithmetic, all were carefully and thoroughly taught with

modern didactic material and methods. Flat blocks, with areas obviously multiples of ten, were used to teach and to illustrate the place values of digits. Invariably, any written work including the note books of the children was carefully prepared. Never once did I hear any discussion of the principle of good workmanship. Instead, everywhere it was practiced. Apparently orderly ways of doing all school work had entered into the very backbones of the children.

The Complexes (Projects, in American pedagogical terminology) which have been developed in these schools are the direct outgrowth of a very real living together. They have been evolved around the holidays, excursions, meetings, exhibitions, school, home rule, children's organizations, children cooperatives (for buying seeds, soap, breeding animals, etc.) and, above all, the definite improvement of village living conditions. For example, the question arose some years ago in reference to the bodies of dead animals that appeared on the snows in winter. Whence? Why? What advantage or disadvantage? It is now five years since the children began to study the problem, in which too they succeeded in interesting their families. Now, almost automatically, when such a body is found it is promptly and decently disposed of, so that there may be no spring infections resulting from its decay. In this instance, the stimulus came from the children and the school. But it was the elders who asked the cooperation of the school in solving the problem of the continual depreciation in the crops that were raised each year on a certain hill top.

The most powerful school leadership in this community comes very naturally, from the secondary school of the Colony. Its agricultural experiments in intro-

ducing new plants, strawberries, for example, have spread all over the country side. Their experiments in the scientific feeding of cattle to get bigger milk returns at the same or less cost, have influenced the entire community. At first the Colony school accepted cattle from the peasants in order by proper feeding to bring them up to standard. Such demonstration is no longer necessary.

The children's cooperatives, also, have made a deep impression on the population. They see that through them can be bought those small things that make for comfort which otherwise could not be obtained in the village.

The Colony secondary school has one hundred and thirty pupils, mostly peasants, of whom eighty are internes. The rest come from the villages. Several unusually gifted children have been discovered and sent on to Moscow for higher and more specialized instruction. The school has a farm, workshops, the home, and other laboratories. There are at least two grand pianos and music is a dominating influence. Music, drama, current events—these three subjects draw large creative audiences from the whole country side. The principal of the school is Mrs. Shatsky, a graduate of the Moscow Conservatory with an additional year in Paris. I was much interested in a lesson that she herself gave in what to my unsophisticated eyes looked like Dalcroze Eurhythmics. "Oh, no," she said. "Of course, I have studied and seen much of his work. But these are Russian rhythms and I give no commands except through the music. Of course, the basic idea is his, but it is my detail and it is *echt* Russian." Is not this the secret of all success in using the work of others—

adaptation to the material at hand, and consequent re-creation?

In the Colony school (secondary grades, only) there are twenty-two teachers, including a physician and an *agronome* (agricultural specialist). Except the latter two, scarcely any of them are trained specialists. All however are educated in life as well as in books, all realize the real meaning of education and all can lend a hand effectually. Two years ago they were trying hard to let the Complex rule class work, stopping whenever there was an opportunity to teach incidentally mathematics or a language or any other tool subject that might be needed. Now, these subjects (disciplines), are all taught in separate laboratories, each standing on its own feet. This does not mean the abandonment of the Complex. In September and October, 1927, the Complex dominating every laboratory was the Progress of the Union during these last ten years. In conference, beforehand, the teachers discussed and outlined a program assigning its quota of work to the proper laboratory—the growth of the Party to the history laboratory; the development in electricity to physics; in agriculture, to biology; the making of illustrative charts and graphs to mathematics and art.

This tentative outline was discussed with the children, revised and reorganized. Then the children chose their own unit and decided how they should work at it. Each laboratory was equipped with books, pamphlets, posters and charts. The children worked for the most part collectively. Here and there an individualistic child worked by himself. The final result will be in the form of a written thesis: a collective contribu-

tion from each class, with index and table of contents; with understanding reports; with illustrations; and with graphs that would be a credit to a well-trained adult or group of adults. The principle of good workmanship receives its crown in such undertakings.

After the results are all in, the faculty will meet again to discuss the high and low lights of the development and final outcome of this Complex to guide them in working out the next. Therein lies one secret of their success. Collaboration is incessant and eternal. Always, since the world began, under such circumstances, two and two have made more than four.

These teachers cooperate not only with each other but with the community, assisting in improving living conditions, rural economy, in developing cooperatives. In their turn, the peasants help the school. Such collective work on the part of the teachers is much more usual than with us.

Certainly Russian teachers and children can plan things better than most, not because they are only theoreticians but because they can visualize things as wholes.

In towns, the kindergartens are usually independently located in reference to other schools. In this community, the desire is to have one in connection with each school, the better to relieve the mother, by making the school the solution of her problems. But kindergartens come slowly everywhere. The first kindergarten here was not established until 1920 when the Colony was nine years old. Now there are four of them with five teachers for one hundred and two children. In summer, there are additional hearths and playgrounds. These pre-schools are all under the direction of Madame Azarewitch, one of the original group

with Shatsky in what is now the first Educational Experiment Station, Moscow. (See pp. 14-17.)

ANOTHER SCHOOL GROUP

In this same gubernia, there are more than a score of schools whose work is directed from another center. The program, the social and economic conditions are much the same. What of the schools?

In one of them, mechanically following the official program, lessons on the shape of the world had already taken place. With what result? A neatly written theme from every child, identical in composition, quite lifeless therefore, stating academically that the earth was round, that in early times and still in the villages people thought that it was flat, etc.

In another class, a lesson in Russian (ten to twelve years), meant a lifeless, word-perfect recitation of several poems, followed by the hearing of a previously studied lesson on the cases of pronouns. History (eleven to twelve years) was prepared by routine oral reading of a text, and mathematics by "doing" examples.

"What lessons do you like best?" Almost invariably the answer was, "Writing."

The school was no worse than thousands of similar institutions in other countries, good enough of its kind, but not a good kind.

After the session was over, the teachers kindly remained to talk:

—No, they did not use the Complex, although they followed the program.

—The Complex was too difficult, and, besides, the children were not interested in what was going on in the village. They know all that.

—Well, the bird Complex was not so bad. The children liked birds.

—No, they took no part in the village life. The children were all right in school, but they were not nice in the village, and, anyway, they were glad to say good-bye to them at the end of the day. The work was very tiring, at best.

Here as elsewhere in the schools of many countries the teachers lacked vision in connection with their work and it consequently became drudgery.

NEW TYPES

In addition to extending rural schools the Commissariat of Education has introduced many new types. At one end of the scale are one year courses for peasants, together with training schools for their teachers, and at the other end, the Timiriazev Institute of Agricultural Economy, with its correspondence courses.

The One Year Courses for Peasants opened in 1925. Like the Danish Folk High Schools, they take advantage of the seasonal nature of agriculture to offer instruction from October to March, twelve hours a week, for twenty-two weeks. The admission requirement is a mastery of the three Rs. They give courses in social science, mathematics, cooperation and local agronomy. Unlike the Danish School, the emphasis is not on the "living word," but on self-activity and on practical work on their own farms.

THE SCHOOL FOR PEASANT YOUTH

This is a new type of school intended for boys and girls from 12 to 19 years who have finished the First Grade (the elementary school). Actually, the school

is subdivided into two grades, one, for those of from 12 to 15 years, the other, from 15 to 19 years. At the present moment (1927) there are about 600 such schools accommodating nearly 60,000 children,[3] and there are many more applicants than can be accommodated. Nearly ninety percent come from middle class peasant families, or else out of Children's Homes, and nearly thirty percent are girls. More than half of the pupils belong either to the Pioneers or the League of Communist Youth.

The largest and most important part of their curriculum is based on agriculture. Nevertheless, human relations are not forgotten and there is the usual emphasis on social political instruction. Every school has a small piece of ground, the size to which they are accustomed in their homes, in order to give the students the advantage of much practice work under the direction of the school agronome.

In many of these schools there are also workshops in which a trade may be learned, for example, carpentry, or tailoring. Each school is equipped with a "Red Corner" for reading—newspapers, journals, books—for games, too, but the greatest interest of the students lies in modern methods in agriculture: better cultivation; cooperation; the advantage of many fields over the former three field plan; improving the breed of live stock; the scientific feeding of cattle; selected seed grain; and, above all, tractors and other modern machinery together with cooperative methods for buying and using them.

RESULTS

In spite of its present inadequacy, the magnitude of the post-revolutionary educational work in rural Russia

may be gauged by the facts in reference to (1) the development of the Post, and (2) the development of newspapers, especially the *Peasants' Gazette.*

In 1913, there were 2,800 rural letter boxes, serving only three percent of the population. In 1926, 64,000 such boxes served fifty-two percent of the population. Moreover, travelling post-offices—on wheels—give bi-weekly service to many out-of-the-way villages. The route of each such rolling post-office averages twelve and a half miles a day. The service is not limited to actual post-office routine. The driver accepts newspaper and journal subscriptions, and distributes agricultural goods.[4]

In White Russia, in 1926, three hundred and twenty "Book Pavilions" were opened by Post and Telegraph agents.

The *Peasants' Gazette* increased its circulation from 50,000 in 1923 to 1,000,000 in 1926. In these three years it has received and answered hundreds of thousands of letters (180,000 in 1926) on all sorts of subjects—taxes, land distribution, agronomics, cooperation, credit, insurance, education, government, legal problems, Red Army. Letters, perhaps twenty percent of the whole number, complaining of injustice on the part of officials are investigated by competent authorities, and in consequence, many such officials have been removed and some of them brought to trial.[5] Nearly two-thirds of such letters are founded on facts.

From these thousands of correspondents has been formed an active group of permanent correspondents *(selkors)* for whose self-education the editors of the *Peasants' Gazette* publishes a special magazine. The extent of the movement may be gauged by the rapid increase in numbers from 24,820 in March, 1924, to

161,000 in February, 1926. More than half are from 20 to 25 years old, and eight percent of them are women. Of course there are all kinds of selkors, but many of them are active and earnest workers for the New Village in which there shall be neither poverty nor illiteracy.

The *Peasants' Gazette* is the most striking illustration of the fact that education is marching on in the villages, but there are other journals telling the same story. All of them have been born since the revolution. Some of their titles are: *Science, Every Man His Own Agronomist, "Kustar y Artel."*

EXTRA-MURAL EDUCATION

No story of any educational movement in Soviet Russia is complete if it stops with the schools. Very important is the educational work carried on in the villages directly by the Red Army; by the Trades Unions and the Artels; by the Cooperatives; in Peasant Homes (in the cities); in the village Soviets; and by itinerant libraries, moving pictures, peasant theaters, and the radio.

Much of this extra-mural education functions through the *isba* (cottage) or the *Narodny Dom* (People's House).[6] The isba is the village reading room, equipped with games and journals, the concentration point for local cultural forces. Here teachers, agronomists, physicians, lawyers, representatives of local organizations may get a hearing or give an answer to a demand. Here, also, may be located *Liquidation of Illiteracy* circles and other classes.

To celebrate the Tenth Anniversary of the Revolution, the villages on the Dnieper opened 20 clubs and People's Houses, 17 cottage reading rooms, 10 moving

picture houses, 38 libraries, 5 district hospitals, 6 infirmaries, 4 veterinary infirmaries, and 7 baths. The initial suggestion came from the Ukrainian government, but the peasants contributed both money and labor.

The new film called *Village Policy*[7] is a splendid illustration of another phase of extra-mural adult education. Eisenstein, the creator of the film *Potemkin*, produced it for the Tenth Anniversary of the Republic (November, 1927) to compel the peasant population to realize their knowledge and their power; to show them that they are now beginning to think scientifically; that they are now beginning to work cooperatively; that now their heavy burdens can and do rest on powerful machines of many kinds; to demonstrate the poetry of manure, of deep tillage, of heated cattle sheds, of egg-laying contests, of thorough bred stock, of the separator, of the great grain enterprises in Siberia, soon to supply the whole Union with grain. He says of it: "This is the first comprehensive picture based on agriculture and peasant life. It marks an attempt to present the gray, everyday side of that life in an interesting way; to lend meaning to these problems of colossal importance from a political and social point of view.

"To present pictures of agricultural character is not enough. The audience must be thoroughly aroused and faced with actual problems, made to participate in the solution presented."

CHAPTER VI

THE UNIFIED LABOR SCHOOL: ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

THE system of public instruction in the Soviet Union is based on the conception of a single school (hence "Unified") divided into standards, or grades, which are interconnected. The First Grade (elementary) is for children from 8 to 11 years, and the Second Grade (secondary) for children 12 to 16 or 17 years. The First Grade School is a four year course (often only three in rural districts). Theoretically, the children who enter can read, write, and cipher. Practically, this is true only in towns. "The aim of the First Grade School is to teach children to read, write, and reckon, and such elements of science as will give them, within the limits of their faculties and age, a correct understanding of their surroundings, of human labor, of natural phenomena, and of public life." [1]

The Second Grade School offers a three or a five year course. The three year course added to the four years of the First Grade constitute the Seven Year School which gives an education more or less equivalent to that of our public schools, including the High School. The Nine Year School, with its two additional high school years gives an education similar to that of our own Junior College and to that of the European Gymnasium. The latter was the prevalent type of secondary education in pre-revolutionary Russia.

In the Ukraine, the Nine Year School has been abolished. Elsewhere, the Seven Year School is the more usual type. The aim of the Seven Year School is "to give its pupils a complete knowledge of human labor activity as a whole, of the social organization of mankind, and of the elements of the laws of nature and of public life, so as to help the student to become a conscious citizen of the Soviet Republic." In addition, the Nine Year School aims to train a mass of qualified workers for certain branches of labor.[2]

Of course, both the Seven and the Nine Year schools have an agricultural slant in rural districts, a technical one in industrial centers, and a municipal one in cities. Nevertheless, the scope of work is broad and inclusive in all these schools, even in the last two years of the Nine Year School. The Commissariat is on record as saying that the choice for a vocation should not be decided upon before seventeen.

Whenever these schools are near a factory, for example, in Moscow, near any of the Caoutchoucs (rubber), the Amo (automobile), the Trekhgornaia (textile), the emphasis toward the individual industry is very marked. The teaching of geography, mathematics, science, all are influenced by the work of the factory. It serves practically as an additional laboratory. Sometimes all the work for several days will be motivated by the factory and sometimes a week or more will go by with the school apparently oblivious of its existence.

PECULIARITIES OF THE UNIFIED LABOR SCHOOL

(1) There are no examinations for admission nor for promotions. The latter depend upon the quality of the year's work judged by the collective work (thesis,

model, whatever the culmination may be) of the group of which the individual student is a part.

(2) Every child has a medical examination four times a year (still largely theoretical).

(3) Student government is universal. The auto-organization of the pupils (Clubs, Oktabrists, Pioneers, Comsomol, Children's Cooperatives) is steadily increasing. Eppstein reports (1927) that eighty-nine percent of the children in the schools are now Pioneers.

In the July 1922 number of the educational magazine *On the Road to the New School*, Krupsky, in discussing student government, after stating that it does not necessarily imply the administration of the school, adds, with her usual high-minded spiritual insight: "Student self-government can not be a copy of the forms of the political life of adults, for, in the life of children, neither class struggle nor class domination can take place. The school is rather an embryo and a symbol of the future society without classes."

The world however is not made up of Krupskys, else the revolution would have arrived much earlier or would have been bloodless. The antagonisms of the elders are reflected by the children in Russia as in every country, sometimes, perhaps often, to the undeserved discomfort of their teachers.

(4) Coeducation is universal.

(5) The Excursion and the Complex are dominant methods, prescribed by the Scientific Council.

The Excursion Method

The extraordinary development of this method is due probably to three different factors. The first in the point of time, actually of the least importance, was the fact that German ideals and methods dominated

the pre-revolutionary schools. The second and most potent factor was that the first post-revolutionary schools were without equipment, without books even, and their only possible laboratories were the great world of nature and in the museums and art galleries in which were and still are preserved the rich and abundant fruits of their old culture. A third important factor was the remarkable organizing ability of the Russian people. Better than any other group they can put things on paper. Indeed, they are often criticised for this very ability, especially by those who do not remain to see the skill with which these paper plans are translated into actual accomplishment.

Everywhere, every pleasant day, in the streets, round the town walls, in public buildings, in industrial establishments, in museums, in art galleries, may be seen groups of school children, of all ages, oblivious of the world, absorbed in seeing and understanding. In addition to the teachers, members of the different Youth organizations often help to guide them. It is inspiring to see the Comsomols (League of Communist Youth) helping the Pioneers (Scouts) or the Oktabrists, the still younger children, not only on and off the cars and up the steps, but also to see and to understand what they see.

Every museum and art gallery makes some provision for guiding its public. This work is especially well done, from the viewpoint of the school, in the Historical Museum on the Red Square, next to the Duma, in Moscow.

The Historical Museum: This Museum was founded in 1883. For half a dozen years it was visited only by occasional scholars and members of the nobility. Later, in addition to the individual visitor, small groups

of gymnasium students began to come. These and other groups gradually increased in number, but big increases came after the 1905 revolution, again after the war, and after the October revolution. From 1921 on, the increases in the number of visting groups have been remarkable—not quite 1,300 in 1921, nearly 2,200 in 1922, more than 3,000 in 1923 and in 1924. At the end of July 1925, the number of visting groups exceeded by over two hundred the total of any previous year in its history.

Who? Why?

There are more groups from the elementary schools than from any other source. The secondary school and teacher groups, about equal numbers, rank third, surpassed only by groups of officials which included many policemen.

One reason for the great increase in the number of groups is the quality of the service rendered. There are eight women regularly employed as guides with an additional contingent force of five in order that no visiting group shall exceed fifteen or twenty individuals. These women are trained, educated, intelligent and excellent teachers. They are also women of unusual tact. When, as always, a group asks to see the whole museum in a single visit, they accede apparently, but suggest that the museum will be more interesting if some single "theme" is kept in mind, as for example, how art has developed, or the metals, pottery, religion, or trade. Perhaps the visitors will be interested in learning from the museum how from a few remains—a tool or a piece of pottery—it is possible to recreate the past, to get a picture of the life of human beings, in remote times or in remote places.

A group of students from Perm, after much lively

discussion, decided to keep in mind the reconstruction of the past. After a visit to different parts of the museum, in which they saw some illuminating frescoes of prehistoric life as well as actual remains, and after each had had the opportunity to do some constructive thinking, they were taken below to see what other children, who had had similar experiences, had been able to express in drawing, painting or in composition. A little later they handled some books, a minimum of three, related to their topic. Informally with their guide, they discussed Perm and its museum possibilities.

Long Excursions: School excursions in high schools are not confined to the immediate district. For example, the graduating class of the Lepeshinsky Memorial, decided one spring that they wished to go to the Urals by one route, returning by another. The first step was to make a more or less exhaustive study of the region to be traversed. Collective habits had already been formed, and their own creative energy had become a driving force. It was, therefore, relatively easy for them to analyze the job and subdivide the work, efficiently preparing a brief, making the net findings of each individual group the property of each member of the graduating class as well as of the teachers who were to accompany them.

Then the financial problem became uppermost. The Commissariat of Education, the school, and some of the students made contributions. Most of them, however, could not possibly give even a small sum. About this there is no uncertainty, for in the Soviet Union the principal of every school knows exactly the financial resources of every child in his care.

What was to be done?

With incredible courage, the head of the school,

Pistrak,[3] determined to start out with his group with the money in hand, hoping "to live on the land," in other words, to earn enough money *en route,* to carry them to their destination and back. They were successful. "Discussions," with entrance fees, were held at each stopping place. In one town, the surrounding population demanded and paid for a week of their time.

One of the most interesting sections of the museum of the Lepeshinsky school is devoted to this excursion. On the wall are detailed maps and graphs, telling the facts in reference to the geography, the geology, the economics, the history, the ethnology, the archeology, and the art of the regions traversed. These were prepared on their return. On the shelves below are numerous folders containing all the field notes from which generalizations were made, as well as notes of the "discussions" which they led at their various stopping places. Both the field work and its final expression are scholarly and spendidly organized, yet youthfully exuberant, too. High school pupils in the Union know how to make systematic observations, to gather together the different factors involved in the study of a single subject, to draw, to write reports, to plan, to index, to keep accounts, to budget (their time even!) and to bulletin graphically.

The Complex Method

In its essence, the Complex method is a project curriculum that functions, not merely in a few schools, with a few teachers, but, practically, in every elementary school, with all kinds of teachers, and in some high schools, with the abler teachers. It has, it is true, en-

countered much opposition from the teachers, and the battle is not yet won in many secondary schools. There has been much experimentation and there have been many changes in detail. The "paper" plan of 1920, a thin pamphlet, has evolved into a program of six volumes.

Many other volumes, some printed by the government, and others by private concerns,[3] have been written on the complex until, as Krupsky once said, perhaps in momentary impatience, "the complex has been metamorphosed into a kind of a fetish; that which was straight and clear, at first, has now become tangled and muddy and transformed into pedagogical acrobatics." Nevertheless, she has fought faithfully, intelligently, triumphantly, for the dominance of the Complex method.

The Complex is simply a center of interest. For example, in the elementary schools, the big Complex is Children's Life; in the high schools, Community Life. More concretely, the Complexes are Nature, Work, Human Relations, first as they are exhibited and function in the small world of the child, and, later, in the larger world. In the elementary grades, these complexes are not divided into subjects, but into a series of problems, each helping and leading to the solution of the next and together forming a harmonious unit. The complex *Work* is studied along with *Nature* and the complex of *Society* follows *Work*, because the formations of society are based on the conditions of labor—at least, so thinks Soviet Russia!

The attempt to break down the partition between subjects has been less successful in the secondary schools. The usual procedure, now, is to teach each subject in its own laboratory, making its function when and

where it is possible, to help the complex, previously decided upon.

To each teacher is given an outline program, whether for a rural district, or a factory or industrial district, or a small town unconnected with either of the above. In addition, there are separate programs, for the further enlightenment of the teacher, for mathematics, art, drama, physical training, student government, etc. *But each teacher is expected to develop his own program in cooperation with the rest of the faculty and most definitely in cooperation with the children themselves.*

There may be relatively as many well-trained specialists in the Russian high schools as in ours, but they are less often *mere* specialists. The Complex method drives them into a knowledge of children, of psychology, of other subjects. Even their own specialty seen in this setting takes on values unknown to those without this educative experience.

THE PROGRAM

The first program for the Unified Labor Schools was issued by the Scientific Council of Education of which Krupsky is the chairman. Associated with her in this work were Shatsky, Blonsky, and others. (See pp. 23-28.) It was a philosophical and fine curriculum, especially that for the elementary schools, and particularly as it was worked out in the numerous experimental schools. The mass of the teachers found it too difficult. In answer to their complaints the Scientific Council rose to its name and made an investigation into the cause of its failure—how and where and why.

One difficulty was the severity of the prescription; another, perhaps, failure on the part of the teachers to follow either the letter or the spirit of the Program.

For example, ten excursions had been prescribed for the first year. Reports from the schools showed that this had been interpreted to mean excursions all the way from two to sixty! The complex Work and Health, no time indicated, required only two weeks for its development in some schools, in others, six.

Both these difficulties have been conquered by the simple expedient of re-submitting the curriculum, not only to the numerous experimental schools but also to thousands upon thousands of other teachers, asking from them definite reports and constructive criticism. The same course was pursued with each new edition until now, on its tenth birthday, the Scientific Council of Education may well be proud of the six volumes that embody its wise and skillful direction of a genuinely cooperative enterprise in curriculum making.

The problems involving child psychology were worked over by 30 schools; pedagogical processes by 14; the problems of methods by 32, including the Bio-station of the Young Naturalists; the Work complex by 30, including the Lepeshinsky Memorial, of which Pistrak is the director; school cooperation with public service by 37; the Russia complex by 7; physical training by 7; art by 5; children's organization, clubs, children's "corners" by 32, including the Altai School; the Pioneer movement by 8; school and trade connection by the Radischev Memorial; the Dalton Plan by 32, including the Lenin Memorial Experimental School; books by 8, including the Medico-Pedagogical Station.

The New Program

The New Program (1927) has not departed from the principles of the first attempt to formulate a curriculum and a course of study for the Unified Labor School.

Practically and theoretically it centers around and is dominated by the Labor or Work ideal. In addition, Nature, Human Relations, and Russia are still determining complexes.

The objectives are right habits of thinking, right habits in individual work, right collective habits, never merely knowledge or skill. Much emphasis is put on pupil organizations (Pioneers, Comsomols) and of pupil participation in school government (auto-organizations). "The general education of a child," says the Program, "must go hand in hand with the development of his understanding of the world surrounding him, with the acquiring of proper habits in his work, with public activity, and with self-organization."

Much more and much better guidance is given the teachers in regard to developing collective habits, connecting the school and the children, understandingly with public activities. Indeed, on first reading, one who did not know the actual work in the schools might easily feel that the individuality of the child was being sacrificed. Actually, however, in theory and in practice the child finds for himself the connection between himself, his work, and public activities. He becomes a creative part of his environment. An example of this is the working out the complex called The Village in the third year (eleven and twelve years) of the rural school. The themes are crops and agricultural products; the vicinity; local trade; social life (hygiene, welfare, education, the soviet); village and town (trade, transportation, industry—crafts and factories); town life; and the cultural association of town and village. Much detail is suggested for the development of each section, and, finally, the teacher is reminded that the real problems are these: the inter-relation between na-

ture, the labor of the peasant, and public organizations; the defects of rural life, their causes, their cures; the efforts of the government to make the village healthy, prosperous, educated, happy; and the necessity to cooperate with all types of public workers in the building up of a new life in a new village. The teachers are asked to emphasize cooperation, the advantages of machines and unifying labor, giving local illustrations. "The school must form clubs to help those who need help and to improve the school house (to get clothes trees, bathroom heat, develop the grounds, etc.), thus actively cooperating.

"They should come in contact with members of the local soviet . . . and help them in making notification and announcements.

"The study of the household of the peasant must be done carefully so as to awaken the cooperation of the parents and not to arouse bad feelings.

"In the 1924 program, this complex was called Our Village. The theme was too narrow. Children should learn of conditions in other parts of Russia. Through stories, newspapers, journals, they must get a picture of life in other countries. . . ."

In this connection, the following excerpts from Eppstein's Report (1927) is significant:

> "An outstanding feature of our schools is the close contact with the masses of the workers and peasants, which has developed to highly encouraging proportions. The elementary schools are becoming the centers for various public organizations of active support to the schools, such as auxiliary committees, parents' conferences, and so on. Such public organizations are the vehicles through which the

masses of the workers are attracted to take part in the work of education. And it may be confidently stated that the work in and around the elementary schools is training hundreds of thousands of workers and peasants to take part in the government of the country."

In the New Program, the right relationship between skills and the types of material and types of work is more clearly put. For example, under Study of the Surrounding Phenomena and the Organized Activities of Children, these types of work are suggested: *Talks and recitations; excursions and investigations; observation and experimentation; reading, writing; enumeration and measurement; illustrative work; various forms of public service, in accordance with the school's environment.* This is succeeded by a second type of material, viz., *knowledge and skill in language and mathematics* with *reading, writing, enumeration, problems, measurements* again given as types of work, with this added explanation—*Significance of the repetition of reading, writing and enumeration in both types: In the first, they are the means for working out the complex; in the second, they are the subject of study in themselves. The development of the complex and the acquisition of skills should be closely connected.*

Other examples,—physical training is tied up with work in the school grounds, in the class rooms, in shops; with plays; sports, gymnastics; children's organizations (Pioneers, Oktabrists, commissions, clubs); with schools and group meetings. (See Appendix, pp. 189-199.)

In the New Program, the problems are much better adapted to the child. For example, note, in the Appendix, pp. 172-184, the titles of the other complexes in the

hygiene course, as well as the details of hygiene.

The Program provides that in the first days of school, the children take the teacher on excursions to their favorite places. The kindergarten children tell about their work. There is abundant opportunity for the others to talk about summer experiences, all in order that the teacher may understand their various backgrounds and abilities, their work and play habits and skills. The idea is to bridge the gap between the home and the school, gradually training them to know each other and helping them to act as a group. From the beginning they are taught to wipe their feet, put away their clothing, bring things for the group from home —a book, a flower, a game, perhaps—and to develop rules for conduct such as cleaning up, preserving excursion collections, etc. Their first theme, really, is the fact that order is the basis of group activities. Certainly the Program has taught the teachers how to get over this first law of heaven, for never does one see school room disorder. In addition, quite universally, the children seem to know and to follow the law of good workmanship.

In the New Program, artificial factors have been eliminated, for example: "your enemy, the capitalist" is no longer named; anti-religious propaganda, no longer taught. Instead of definite propaganda for Marxism and Leninism they are inculcated indirectly as methods of work. For example: the pupils are organized tentatively into small groups, usually about four to the group. These groups choose their own chairman and make their own rules of conduct. They are taught to sense the whole problem, to subdivide the work, and then finally to synthesize their results into a collective solution to which all have given and all have received.

Read the hygiene complex in the Appendix, particularly pp. 173, 176-7, 179-183, 187-190.

The New Program, better than the old, standardizes knowledge, skills, tools, indicating clearly the minima that can not be altered or reduced. Nevertheless, it provides definitely for its localization, at the same time recognizing the difficulties of such creative work. Time is carefully budgeted—invaluable first aid for inexperienced teachers.

The New Program provides not only for the first four years of rural and of urban schools, but recognizing the fact that many rural schools still offer only three years of elementary work, give a different third year for those communities not yet ready for a four year course.

In brief, "The program has outgrown the limitations of an experimental school and has become the pedagogical formula and process for the whole country." (See Appendix, pp. 170-216.)

Statistical Table Showing the Development of the Unified Labor School, 1918-1927

From the Report of M. S. Eppstein, 1927

Academic	*Universal Elementary Education*				*Universal Secondary Education*			
	Figures		*Percentages on the basis of 1914-15*		*Figures*		*Percentages on the basis of 1914-15*	
	Schools	*Pupils*	*Schools*	*Pupils*	*Schools*	*Pupils*	*Schools*	*Pupils*
1914-15...	104,610	7,235,988	100.0	100.0	1,790	563,480	100.0	100.0
1920-21...	114,235	9,211,351	109.2	127.3	4,163	564,613	232.0	100.8
1921-22...	99,396	7,918,751	99.0	109.4	3,137	520,253	175.2	92.1
1922-23...	87,559	6,808,157	83.7	94.1	2,478	586,306	108.4	103.8
1923-24...	87,258	7,075,810	83.4	97.8	2,358	752,726	131.7	133.3
1924-25...	91,086	8,429,490	87.1	116.5	1,794	710,431	100.2	125.8
1925-26...	101,193	9,487,110	96.7	131.1	1,640	706,804	91.6	125.2
1926-27...	108,424	9,903,439	103.6	136.9	1,708	784,871	95.4	139.0

Note especially, the decline in numbers during the famine years, and the gradual recovery beginning in 1924-25; the greater increase in the number of pupils than in the number of schools; and the relatively greater increase in the number of secondary pupils.

CHAPTER VII

TECHNICAL AND HIGHER EDUCATION

THE Unified Labor School is the answer of new Russia to the demand for new schools embodying her ideals—namely, an education for all, real, rooted in life, with the objective of helping the child to gain complete cultural mastery of his natural and social environment, making him an individual, yes, but an individual with collective habits and a collective point of view.

An elaborate system of Trade, Technical and the so-called Professional schools is the answer of new Russia to a material and urgent necessity promptly to create competent workmen and trained technicians, industrial engineers of all sorts and kinds.

Before the Revolution, German, British, French, Belgian and American capitalists owned and operated most of the Russian industries, including mills, mines, and factories. The Red October Chocolate Factory, Moscow, was owned by Germans; the Red Triangle Rubber Factory (formerly called American Rubber Company), Leningrad, by Americans, British and French. The Red Flag Mill, Leningrad, although owned by Russians, was equipped with German machinery and employed German technicians. In Ekaterinoslav, the former owners of the Petrovsky and the Lenin Steel Mills were French and Belgians. In Stalino (formerly called Hughes in honor of the British steel manufacturer who founded it in 1857), the steel mills, coke ovens, coal mines and

chemical works were owned by British, French, and Belgian firms. Naturally, most of the experts, too, were of the nationality of their employers and they fled with them when the revolution came. Indeed, many Russian owners, engineers and technicians followed them. Most of those who remained were practically useless for a long time because of their opposition to the government. The difficult problem of producing a body of well trained industrial experts and workmen was rendered still more complex by the demand, now happily outgrown, that the teachers be in sympathy with Soviet ideas and ideals.

The system of trade and technical schools promptly established in answer to an imperative need is now in operation, and is successfully solving industrial education problems. It includes factory apprentice schools, professional schools (elementary), professional schools (secondary), and technical colleges. To these should be added Workers Faculties (rabfacs and Technical courses (non-school).

FACTORY OR APPRENTICE SCHOOLS

These are always operated in connection with a productive enterprise, in an industrial district. They are of three types: (1) schools organized in factories for juveniles learning the trade, (2) schools using the factory itself for training juvenile workers, and (3) young workers' schools for juveniles employed in trades requiring skill.

Factory Schools, organized in a given factory, are equivalent to our Continuation Schools for children from 14 to 16 years of age, with these differences: (1) the amount of time devoted to academic work—four hours daily is spent in school, four hours at work; (2)

their administration—the Commissariat of Education prescribes the time, the curriculum, the methods; the elected factory committee (workmen) and the factory administration conduct the school; the factory itself provides the necessary money; and (3) the limitation of the number of students to the probable number of trained apprentices who will be needed later.

The other two types of factory schools, usually admitting only those past sixteen who have completed the Seven Year school (high), are not obliged to obey the law requiring four hours of school for each four hours of work. Nevertheless, they are finding the fifty-fifty proposition, intelligently administered, an excellent arrangement pedagogically speaking. Earning with learning, followed by a practical certainty of a position as a skilled workman, means that always there are many more candidates for entrance than can be accommodated.

The Factory School created to fit an emergency has marched serenely on, successfully giving real education to large groups of intelligent youth. It is still serving a great emergency, and there are many who feel that it may be the forerunner of an ideal type of education for the future.

As in all Russian schools, student participation in school administration is universal and thoroughly well organized. Almost all the students are members of the Youth Organizations, either the Pioneers (Scouts) or the Comsomol (League of Communist Youth).

One of the greatest difficulties encountered in the beginning by the Factory Schools was to secure properly prepared teachers. The factory experts had not the educational point of view, and on the other hand, pedagogues, otherwise admirable, lacked the necessary

technical knowledge. The Comsomol (League of Communist Youth), deeply interested in the problem, organized special courses for training factory school teachers. In Moscow, they were given a magnificent site of several acres, with many buildings, formerly used in the education of beautiful, well born young women who were later to adorn the court. Now there are finely equipped laboratories and work rooms for metal, wood, and electrical trades, and a printing establishment. Here every day in the year may be heard the noise of machinery at work, for although the teacher training course lasts but ten months, yet the equipment, under skillful direction, with trained workmen, is at work for twelve months in all departments, making things to order, either for actual factories or for the schools.

The League of Communist Youth is hoping later to establish a practice school of young children and also a department for psycho-technical research, properly equipped with investigators and apparatus. *Kakoi prostar!**

PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS

In rural districts the elementary professional schools are the now rapidly developing Schools for Peasant Youth (see pp. 54-55); in towns and cities, lower technicums, much like our Technical High Schools, preparing workers for commerce, transportation, electricity, mining, music, art, pharmacy, teaching (in elementary grades).

Many elementary professional schools accept to capacity pupils of fourteen years or older, who have com-

* An expression familiar to every Russian. It means, literally, *how spacious.* Its actual meaning is, "This is a great, deep, wide, wonderful world, even if my own little corner has seemed narrow, constricted."

pleted the elementary grades, and those who upon examination are proved to be intelligent, literate, and sufficiently mathematical. Other elementary professional schools, notably those preparing elementary teachers, pharmacists, and the like, now demand the completion of the Seven (high) or even the Nine Year School (Junior College), or its equivalent.

The courses in these schools last for two, three, and four years depending on the nature of the trade or profession taught. They differ from similar institutions in other countries in the emphasis that is put upon practical work. A definite amount of school time is spent in work under actual and normal conditions. Often an additional year or two of work is required from those who complete the course before they are entitled to a certificate of graduation. The time spent in work is paid for at the usual apprentice rate, increasing with increasing skill.

The academic work in the professional schools is based on the required technology, and includes always mathematics and social science. It is carefully planned to make competent workers, good citizens, and good communists.

WORKERS FACULTIES, OR *Rabfacs*

These are emergency high schools for adult students whose earlier education was neglected. They are equivalent to the old gymnasia so far as their place rank in the educational scheme is concerned. Their aim is to prepare for the universities or for a higher technical college. But at this point all resemblance ceases. Instead of the well-bred, carefully trained youth of the *intelligentsia* and *bourgeoisie,* the Rabfac students are all of them either children of the proletariat or else of

peasants. They range in age from 18 to 30 years. Their preparation is various, and, from the academic point of view, often quite inadequate. The first students were nominated either by a trades union or a peasant group, and entered without examinations of any kind. Some of them were barely literate, and yet the attempt was made to prepare them for the higher schools in three or four years instead of eight. Of course many fell by the wayside, usually into lower technicums.

Do they eventually make successful students? That is a mooted question. At Rabfac Bucharin, Silverbrot, the director said yes, as far as the after career of their graduation had been followed up in the short time (three years in 1925) since they had graduated. But there was about 30 percent of failure within the school, —students who ought never to have been recommended, whom they transferred as soon as it was realized to a lower technicum.

Most university professors bewailed the loss of their former students; on the other hand, Zernoff, University of Leningrad, now dead, is quoted by Kunz[1] as having favorably compared Rabfac graduates with the majority of those from the gymnasia. Coulichère, professor of mathematics, Leningrad, said, "Certainly they are different, but it is still too early to generalize. Some of my Rabfac students are doing excellently well." A medical student whom I met in the Comsomol Club, Moscow, himself a graduate of the Polytechnic, insisted that among his fellow students those from Rabfacs were certainly equal to those from the former *bourgeoisie* who had had the advantage of the old training. All of which goes to show that in Russia, as elsewhere, politics color the view.

On the whole, the Rabfac student has made good, and the short cut, as an emergency measure, at any rate, has justified itself. It must be remembered that although these students were recruited from families of little education, their very presence in a Rabfac is proof of a craving for true education—not mere advancement—that spirit which long ago raised Lomonosov from the ranks of the lowly to that of scholar and poet. Like him, these students are enthusiastic, with minds wide open to receive the light, mature in experience as well as in years. Nevertheless, Rabfacs are decreasing in number as well as in enrollment. In spite of their grandiose dreams, only about eleven percent of the Rabfac students are now actually entering higher educational institutions, and they constitute only a small percentage (less than three percent) of these students.[2] On the other hand, nearly a third of the technical students came from the Rabfacs, and, indirectly, the Rabfacs have been an important factor in the development of secondary technical schools for adolescents. These are now the second most vital group of permanent schools in Russia.

THE TECHNICAL SHORT COURSES

These are given sometimes in connection with a day Rabfac, sometimes in connection with a day Technical School or College. They are intended for the workman who cannot attend a regular day school. Some of the courses are elementary; some, emergency subjects. Others, however, are advanced. They are designed to train highly skilled workers, foremen, industrial teachers; to train for trades union propaganda; and for administration.

HIGHER TECHNICAL SCHOOLS

These are usually called Institutes and are equivalent to technical colleges. The students are abler and older than those previously described. They are recommended either by a trades union group, a professional school, or by a school of the Second Grade (high). In other words, they have tested out the trade or profession and have themselves been tested out before taking entrance examinations. For example, a young man wishes to become an electrical engineer. After completing the work of a secondary or of a professional school he will work for a year in an electrical establishment. His union recommending him, he will apply for admission to a college specializing in electrical engineering. Here he will take much technological work and mathematics, together with the social studies. He will be assigned to make a weekly report, collectively of course, with a group, on an electrical plant, spending at least a day there. Each summer of the four years will be spent at work in the same way. Even after graduation he may be kept at practical work for a year or even two years, before receiving a certificate permitting him to be called an electrical engineer. Very often the practical post-graduate work is among the rural population or that of the national minorities. Especially is this true of Medical Colleges.

Not only are there Medical Colleges, but also colleges preparing for every conceivable profession, giving four year courses in pedagogy, in economics and the social sciences, in technology of every kind, in military science, including aeronautics, in agriculture, in forestry, in trades union propaganda, in theatrical and musical art, in painting.

The colleges sometimes give four year evening courses, especially in technology, mechanical, chemical, and electrical engineering. In Kharkov, for example, such a college is in session five nights a week from six until ten, with some women enrolled.

Many colleges give not only free tuition but also dormitory accommodations, board, and an adequate monthly allowance for other expenditures.

UNIVERSITIES

There are still Universities in Moscow (two of them), in Leningrad, Yaroslav, Kazan, Smolensk, Saratov, Kostroma, Tomsk, Tambov, Perm, Astrakhan, Irkutsk, Tashkent. Voronezh and Don take the place of two Polish Universities that were lost to them. New universities have been created in Nizhni-Novgorod, in Samara, Simbirsk, Orel, Ekaterinburg, Ekaterinodas, and in Ustug. In the Ukraine, the name, even, has been abolished. The beautiful many pillared Vladimir University of Kiev, for example, is now the Institute of People's Education, actually a college. Its collections have been converted into a museum. Students of pedagogy are still assigned to its classrooms, but its other schools are functioning elsewhere—mine schools near mines, electrical engineering near electrical plants, and the like. Research workers now seek out the specialized, well-manned, well-equipped higher institutes, many of them in Moscow, such as institutes for the investigation of bio-chemistry, or serums and vaccines, or microbiology, and so on. Exactly the same thing is happening in Moscow, although there are six institutions there now called Universities. The First University is the oldest in Russia, founded by Lomonosov. His statue is still in the yard flanked by those of two other revo-

lutionary thinkers. The First University has socio-scientific, physico-mathematical, medical, and workers' (rabfac) faculties. The second Moscow University has medical, chemico-pharmaceutical, and pedagogical faculties, together with a museum of the Science of Evolution, popularly called the Darwin Museum. Americans are directed there with a knowing smile. There are also two Communist Universities, one of the National Minorities of the West, the other of the Eastern Nations, and the now famous Sun-Yat-Sen University. The emphasis in the first two of these, at least, is certainly put on preparation for effective communist propaganda. There is an elaborate three to four years course in political education, in economics, labor history, Marxian and Leninistic social analysis, working-class strategy, and organization. Statistics, graphic methods, modern languages, and science, especially biology, including the theory of evolution, are also taught. However, the students are mature people already convinced that a communistic social order is desirable and possible. They come to learn how to put over their belief. It must be acknowledged that at least they are getting in full measure what they come for!

RESEARCH INSTITUTES

In these is carried on actual graduate work—with a much greater degree of specialization, in greater variety of fields, with more and better equipment than ever before. Probably there are no psychological laboratories in the world to be compared with those of the Pavlov Institute in Leningrad. They are expanding, too, that conditioned reflex studies on children may be added to the many already made on dogs.

In Moscow, one of the most valuable of their numer-

ous institutes is the Institute of Agricultural Economy, established in the early days of the revolution, to study scientifically the pressing and immediate problems in connection with agricultural crops, machinery, accounting. There are now eleven different groups of research workers carrying on basic investigations in agricultural economy, agricultural history, geography, statistics, taxation and bookkeeping, credits, markets, cooperation, as well as agrarian relations and organization, and public agronomy.

In addition to a staff of twenty-five or more Russian scientists, well trained in economics as well as agriculture, there are two professors from Denmark, and one each from Czecho-Slovakia, Germany, and the United States (Dr. G. W. Warren, Cornell).

The most important investigations of the Institute have been studies of agricultural regions, methods of establishing optimal dimensions of agricultural undertakings, methods of calculating actual costs of products, study of economic cycles, study of the factors of good crops. Several of these unit investigations have been translated into other languages, German, Polish, Japanese, French.

In the last three summers, 1925-26-27, the Institute has sent out local expeditions, e.g., to study the flax regions, or a grain region, to study an entire township in order to understand all its complexities, as a preliminary to the establishment of an economic policy and agrarian aid to villages.

Various other Research Institutes have contributed largely to the development in electrification which has more than doubled the output of electrical energy in Russia since 1913. Two of the most important results, the economical combustion of coal by the Kashira

power station, and the utilization of peat by the Shatura station, both in the Moscow districts, are due to the investigations of Research Institutes on the better utilization of fuel energy in all possible fields of technique. The new hydraulic method of peat extraction not only increases productivity but also spares laborers former unhealthful work. The method of artificially drying peat within an hour and a half of its separation from the bed has made it possible to organize its extraction the year round.

The development of this network of higher institutions of learning is largely post-revolutionary. The increase in the number of institutions from 1913 to 1925 is 427.5 percent; in students, 310 percent. The greatest increase is in the number of pedagogical professional schools and colleges. Formerly there were no professional schools and only three colleges. Now there are thirty-eight.[3]

CHAPTER VIII

THE EDUCATION OF DEFECTIVES AND OF THE GIFTED

THERE are not nearly enough schools for defective children even in the cities of the Soviet Union. But the institutions that exist are unusually well equipped and manned.

EXPERIMENTAL SCHOOLS

In Kharkov in connection with a school for the deaf there is an experimental school for the scientific study of the deaf-blind which in its ideal, its equipment, its teachers and its results is far ahead of anything that I have chanced to see in any other country. Five of the pupils are little children, two of normal intelligence, two, sub-normal, and one, superior. In addition, there is a very beautiful intelligent girl of fifteen, with bright blue eyes that see nothing yet help to illuminate a radiantly happy face. There is, also, a man of about twenty-one, of not more than normal intelligence, who takes care of himself, speaks, has learned to be a locksmith, and is obviously content. None of the pupils hear, none of them see, but all of them have acquired the necessary basal habits, meaning that they can take care of themselves efficiently, making their own beds, eating like refined human beings, playing and working together happily. "To teach them to speak is nothing

in comparison with the difficulties of helping them to develop right habits," said Sokoliansky, chief of the Council of Scientific Pedagogy for the Ukraine, "speech comes later, just as soon as there is material for it, and is infinitely easier to acquire."

Pictures of Helen Keller, dozens of them, make a sort of a dado on one side of the dining room, with pictures of their own children, to correspond, on the other side.

A physician and a teacher devote all their time to the children. In addition, the psychologist of the adjacent school for the deaf, the physician in charge of all defectives, Dr. Sibirtzoff, and Sokoliansky himself are often there. There are several laboratories, one of them sound proof, equipped with Pavlov apparatus for the study of the conditioned reflex in the dog. Two of the others are for the study of conditioned reflexes in young deaf-blind children. Still another is equipped with a blackboard and very up-to-date microphones (made in Leningrad, after a German model). The central apparatus regulates each individual microphone so that the voice of the instructor can be magnified to fit the needs of each individual child. The usual method with those who are only deaf is to speak the sentence, then let the children see the same sentence on the lips, and then on the blackboard. This apparatus is used whenever there is any hearing, not only as a method of teaching but also to stimulate the auditory nerve.

The results attained with individual children are remarkable, but the full justification for this very expensive laboratory school is that it is relatively easy to organize and to study relationships between the individual and the environment with these children to whom two sense avenues are closed. Whatever one thus learns from the blind-deaf will be the basis of a

real pedagogy, "science of the organization of human behavior," for the normal.

The school museum is well equipped with all sorts of devices from all over the world for teaching the deaf and the blind-deaf,—typewriters, sand letters, and the like. Here, too, one may study the previous history of each child, read the record of the daily plan for teaching him, and, on the opposite page, the actual daily accomplishment. These results are finally synthesized into interesting graphs.

Those who are only deaf see speech from the moment they enter the school, and see it in whole sentences. From the beginning emphasis is put on behavior based on habit formation.

The so-called Ukrainian, or Chain Method of speech teaching, is based on reflexology (Pavlov, Cherrington, Watson, Lazareff). The essential part of this system lies in the most exact conditioning of the personality of the child in a definite environment, and in the arrangement of the didactic material in a strictly definite succession—"a chained" order.

Example of the Chain Sentences: Children, stand up; children, come to me; children, place yourself in pairs; children, place yourself singly; children, place yourselves in threes; children, go to your place; children, seat yourselves. Boys, stand up; girls, stand up; boys, come to me; girls, come to me; boys, seat yourselves on the floor; girls, seat yourselves on the floor; children, go to your places; children, seat yourselves; children, rest yourselves.

In general, the method seems to be pronunciation of the sentence by the teacher, action and speech by the child. Then the sentences are put on the board. Later the children write the sentences, pronouncing them

with care. An exact record is kept of the number of times each child sees on the lips each unit in the chain. This sounds formal, but in practice, the work is singularly free. There is not even a suggestion of mimicry. Every child works on his own initiative and from an inner urge.

Reflexology, also, was the basis of some very interesting work with blind children, giving them unusual ability to orientate themselves in the streets, at school, and finally, in less than a year, actually to learn to read and write and cipher (reported by Dr. Skibiritz).

Before the revolution, schools for defectives were directed and supported by philanthropic societies. Now they are an integral part of the State system. In these new schools, special emphasis is put upon education for productive work. There is an All Russian Society of the Blind, 10,000 members, and an All Russian Society of the Deaf, 4,000 members, organized like Unions, or rather Artels. They provide work for their members, and have standardized wages.

TRAINING SCHOOL FOR TEACHERS OF DEFECTIVES

In Moscow, near the Second University, in the midst of a complex system of medical clinics, is an interesting Pedagogical Institute for the training of teachers for defective children. The course is four years with the definite entrance requirement of successful completion of a secondary school, or its equivalent, shown by examination. The first two years are based on the scientific study of normal man, including biology, anthropology, pedology, sociology. In addition to their own clinic, fed from the ambulatories (receiving stations), with all types of abnormal children, including the gifted as well as the incapable, these students get much prac-

tical experience in other clinics, schools, and experimental establishments. In summer, they themselves are sent all over rural Russia there to conduct clinics.

SCHOOLS FOR THE GIFTED

Many of these were organized as a partial solution of the problem of the homeless children. One near Moscow, named in honor of Lunacharsky, has successfully educated those with a predilection for art, several of whom have already outgrown the home and have been sent to an Art Institute in Moscow. Another, the Musical Art School of Pushkin,[1] has performed a similar service for those with musical gifts.

The Moscow State Conservatory ranked high among the music schools of the world in pre-revolutionary days, a reputation that it still deserves. It has expanded since the revolution in two ways. One, as might be expected, in the socialization of music by the addition of classes in music listening, for the study of musical literature; the other in giving training not only to solo musicians, but also for orchestra players. There are classes for the study of chamber music with piano accompaniment, for string and brass bands, for choral singing.

To celebrate the Tenth Anniversary of the Revolution, the Moscow Conservatory inaugurated, November 1927, the Sunday Conservatory. This offers a one year course, for gifted workers, sixteen years old or more, entirely free. The course includes choral or orchestra, theory and history of music, literature of music, and the opportunity to attend concerts in groups.

The Moscow Conservatory has also opened an entirely new department for the training of teachers in different phases of music.

In Moscow, the Bio Station for Young Naturalists is a secondary school for the gifted in natural science. It was founded during the famine by an enthusiast for nature and for children, who took a group of young people with him to a lovely place in Sokolniki Park in order to help them feed themselves through intelligent gardening. The station has since developed along two lines, one that of technical science with training courses for specialists, and the other work with young people who have already shown an interest in the natural sciences. They take an active and independent part in carrying on the work of the station, in its experimental garden, and its shelters for wild animals, or in its physical and meteorological laboratories. In addition, they carry on active and effective propaganda in other schools, creating in them natural science sections, uniting them, too, into a fine general organization which holds annual conventions.

On Sundays, children from all around visit the gardens, the lairs, the laboratories. Sometimes, in these groups, a boy—or often a girl—discovers for himself that along this line are his major interests and seeks the opportunity to be enrolled as a pupil.

These are all special schools for gifted children. Everywhere, in rural district as well as in the towns, teachers are looking for talent. When it is discovered, it is not necessary to look again for a Macaenas. The State is eagerly anxious to develop special abilities, and, in addition to free education, a maintenance allowance is added whenever needed.

CHAPTER IX

PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION
(THREE TO EIGHT YEARS)

UNTIL the age of three, the child is the responsibility of the department of health. Characteristically, the care begins before birth with the release of the mother from a period of 12 to 16 weeks from all labor, with full wages. In addition, the mother has the right to money for the layette to the extent of half her monthly wage, and to a wage addition of 25 percent for the first nine months for food, together with three hours daily release from work in order to nurse and care for the child, who, *ad interim,* is in an adequately equipped *crèche.* Pregnant mothers receive free medical aid. There are not yet enough mother and child hospitals adequately to care for all during childbirth. In these there exists an interesting illustration of the collective principle: the mothers with much milk must give of their abundance to the children of those with an inadequate supply!

Much has been done and is still being done to educate the mother properly to care for her child. Mother and child posters are innumerable and widely distributed. Mother and child museums are numerous, well equipped and much visited. In the Moscow Museum of the Mother and Child, I watched for a long time a young woman, whose motherhood was obviously near, her arm resting happily within that of a young man. Each was earnestly and joyously studying the charts and other

graphic material that told them both what was right for a child before and after birth.

As usual, in the Soviet Union, this work is carried on not only officially by the department of health, under the very able direction of Dr. Semashko, but, also co-operatively, by trades unions, in factories and by co-operatives in their store. Recently, special instructions[1] have been worked out for the organization of Mother and Child Welfare Corners in Cooperative Stores. In addition to posters, there will be exhibited, in glass cases, samples of suitable dishes, underclothing, outside garments, shoes, toys, literature.

FACTORY NURSERY SCHOOLS AND KINDERGARTENS

In connection with every trades union or state factory there are pre-schools for the education and care of the children of their workers. In addition to the crèche, there are hearths and kindergartens and playgrounds for children of all ages to eight. These are financed from the culture fund of the factory, organized by the factory committee of the workers, but professionally supervised either by the Health Commissariat, for children under three, or by the Education Commissariat for the older children. These institutions are open for the whole working day. Each day the child is examined first by the doctor. If there is anything contagious, he is sent to the clinic or hospital. If not, he is bathed and dressed in fresh clean clothes. The home clothing is put in an individual bag to await dismissal at the close of the day. The same meticulous care to preserve cleanliness is seen in other details, in the kindergarten and playground as well as in the crèche. Usually the paint is white, always the nurses

and the physicians are robed in white. There are white gowns for visitors, even.

In the kindergartens, every child has his own individual peg, identified either with the name, or, perhaps, a symbol, or a picture; his own clean towel; and an adequate supply of clean handkerchiefs.

The factory kindergarten and playgrounds are conducted along the same general lines as others under the direction of the Commissariat of Education. Conversely, the public kindergartens are as clean and as sanitary as the factory schools.

PUBLIC NURSERY SCHOOLS AND KINDERGARTENS

In all the larger towns and cities, hearths and kindergartens and playgrounds are to be found not only in connection with the elementary schools, but also independently of them, in separate houses and rooms. The hearths are in session from 8 o'clock until 6, the kindergarten, from 9 until 3, including two, sometimes three meals, and two hours of sleep. The equipment includes not only the play room (playground, too), games, a piano, with which we are familiar, but also beds, a kitchen, a dining room. Sleeping and food are as essential to the education of the pre-school child as are work and play, says the State, and, accordingly, provides as carefully for the first as for the last. Food, rest, play, work, stories, excursions, art, music, drama—all of these enter definitely into the curriculum. In these last years, too, much success has attended the effort on the part of these schools to organize the mothers into effective cooperative groups so that the children both at home and in school may experience the joy of creative activity at the same time that they are forming collective habits in their work and at play.

Pre-school institutions are designed for children from 3 to 7 years of age (inclusive), children aged 7 being put in separate groups, on account of the psycho-physical characteristics of their age. The maintenance and nutrition and the methods and organization of the teaching are similar for all types of pre-school institutions. All the work is conducted in the mother tongue and is based on the development in children of materialistic principles of a creative activity and of collectivist habits. This is achieved: by means of the active part given to the children themselves in the organization of their life, by the coordination of pedagogical work with actuality and with the existing environment; by the constant proximity of the children to nature, not only as contemplators, but in the character of investigators; by the selection for story-telling and conversation of such topics as are suitable to give the child a sound understanding of the phenomena of life; by helping the children to master gradually the process of reading, writing and counting, the whole work being kept in permanent connection with the organization of the children's community; and finally by special attention given to questions of hygiene and of artistic development as applied to lodging, surroundings, and clothing, as well as to the general regulation of the children's life.

As it considers the pre-school institutions as a means of freeing the working and peasant women from the enslavement of household cares and as a means of including them in the social life of the country, the Commissariat of Education gives particular attention to that part of its activity and

> strives to secure for the organization of the kindergartens, hearths, and playgrounds the collaboration of various municipal and rural authorities.[2]

In the village, where kindergartens are multiplying rapidly, the ideal—not yet realized—is to develop a kindergarten in connection with every elementary school.

PRIVATE NURSERY SCHOOLS AND KINDERGARTENS

Within the last few years, private kindergartens have been permitted. These are in session, usually, only from 9 to 12 or 1, following closely along the lines of the American kindergarten. This New Educational Policy is not an entering wedge for private *vs.* public schools. It is a temporary expedient and protected at every point. These private schools are under the supervision and the direction of the Education Commissariat. They must give free education to those who cannot pay, to the extent of at least 25 per cent of the total number of children in the classes, and the necessary costs are met cooperatively, not with definite fees.

SUMMER PLAYGROUNDS

Another development of pre-school education is summer playgrounds, especially in factory and village districts. Quite unexpectedly, they have been instrumental in awakening among the peasants a strong desire for winter kindergartens. The mother sees as never before the physical advantage of free play over swaddling clothes. This summer (1927) the Commissariat of Education mobilized for playgrounds four hundred students from the pedagogical technicums and institutes. To each was given a library, a medicine chest,

and money for traveling and living expenses. A quarter of them were sent to national minorities representing thirty different nations. All of them were as definitely and as adequately prepared for summer's work as their alma mater knew how to train them. In general, they have returned enthusiastic about their present accomplishment, and full of suggestions for future work and training. *Kakoi prostar.*

EXPERIMENTAL KINDERGARTENS

There are experimental kindergartens and more formal research laboratories. For example, in Leningrad, in the Pedagogical Institute behind Kazan Cathedral, are two experimental kindergartens, one a strict Montessori school, using only her apparatus, the other under the leadership of Mme. Tiheef believing instead in "Nature, the old nurse." Her school of a hundred children (five teachers) occupies large, sunny, beautiful rooms. Everywhere there is a wealth of natural objects, fruits, flowers, leaves, animals—all, apparently, as well cared for and as happy as the children. In addition, there is an extraordinary wealth of didactic material.

In the first room there are many corners, each on its own rug. In the building corner there are literally hundreds of plain wooden blocks of all sizes and shapes, including huge cylinders as well as the more usual kinds. In another corner, is a miniature carpenter shop with a saw, planes, and other tools. Still another corner represents the home, with beds, a samovar, a small but real stove on which a part of the lunch is prepared. A miniature but complete laundry occupies another corner. In addition there is a long table for games. Here children three and four years old were playing "rid-

dles," that is to say, answering from cards in their own hands such questions as, "Who has the picture of one who flies from flower to flower?" and the like.

The principles guiding the teachers are these:

1. It's our job to provide the right environment.
2. Work is play and play is work—there is no difference. Both must be motivated from within, both must demand the best that the children can give to their *self-chosen* task.
3. Language is all important. It must express the truth from the point of view of the child, it must be correct and beautiful in form.
4. Music and art come under the same categories as speech.

In addition to the life corner room there is a rather large almost empty room for music and dancing and an equally large school room for the oldest children (6 to 7 years old). Here are individual tables, each with a vase of flowers, and a chair. Each child has his own note book in which, as a favor, he is allowed to write what he wishes, provided always that he has previously demonstrated his ability to do so accurately and beautifully by first writing it on the blackboard. Sometimes pictures are given out. There is a strong tendency to make riddles, puzzles, charades out of these. Much of the very abundant didactic material, form, color, design, number, words, is reminiscent of that invented by Jessie MacKinder, of whom however Mme. Tiheef knew nothing.

Without teaching these children—even as early as four or five—read, write and count with ease and with pleasure. The problem is not how to teach them, but

rather how to keep them from learning too early and too rapidly.

No tasks are set, but those who undertake to take care of living things, whether birds or beasts or human beings (luncheon), are held rigorously responsible for their work.

In general, the pre-schools, whether in factories, in connection with other schools, or entirely independent; whether public or private; whether in large cities, towns or villages, are almost uniformly good in quality. But in numbers they are quite inadequate to the need. Nevertheless, before the Revolution, there were practically none, and now there are 10,000.[3]

CHAPTER X

HOMELESS CHILDREN: THE *Bezprizorni*

EVERY visitor notices in the streets, on local trains, on the street cars of the larger cities, especially in Moscow, Kharkov, Kiev, numbers of idle children, indescribably dirty, ragged, often with old and evil faces, quick to beg, alert to steal. One is instantly reminded of some of Dickens' types, the Artful Dodger, Bill and Nancy Sykes, Quilp, Dick Swivellor, the Marchioness, Sampson and Sarah Brass.

Child vagrants exist in every country, even in our own wealthy land. Else why juvenile courts, parental and reform schools, George Junior Republics? Why, then are they so much more conspicuous in Soviet Russia? Is it that she does not care and does nothing for them, or that she does not know how to solve the problem, or do travellers and the Western press grossly exaggerate the extent of child destitution? There is some truth in all of the suppositions, except the first. The efforts made by the government, by private societies, and by individuals to overcome the evil are almost entirely ignored, perhaps unknown.

THE CAUSE

Before the Revolution, thousands of children made homeless by the Great War swarmed into Petrograd and Moscow from the occupied and devastated regions. It must not be forgotten that Russia's war loss includ-

ing the incapacitated reached more than three million. Then came the invasions with their record of more than six million fatalities; the Red Terror, with who shall say how many millions; and finally the famines, with five million more. This meant hundreds of thousands of children without parents, without homes, with no alternative except to beg or steal.

ATTEMPTED CURES

A great number of Children's Homes, Communes, Colonies, Craft Schools, and other institutions have been established by the State, by the Society of the Friends of Children (two million strong), by individuals, both Russian and American, by newspapers which are endeavoring to change the nomadic tendencies of the waifs into more settled habits, and to convert their destructive attitudes into constructive ones.

Every large city has organized receiving, observation, and distributing stations, open day and night. The receiving stations give immediate help to any unprotected child, keeping him until a suitable permanent home can be secured. There are more than a dozen of them in Moscow, each accommodating from forty to fifty children. The observation and distributing centers are equipped with psychologists, doctors, teachers. Their aim is to investigate scientifically the individual child in order to determine the most suitable home for him.

In addition to these institutions, there are two others, very valuable aids in the solution of the problem of the homeless children. One is the Commission on Juveniles, the other the Institute of Children's Inspectors. The Commission on Juveniles consists of a president, a teacher, a magistrate, and a physician.

Their objective is to discover the best method to follow in educating the young criminal, usually one of the homeless. To accomplish this, specially trained social workers investigate the facts—the social conditions, the circumstances under which the crime was committed. Upon this report, the Commission acts. It then becomes the duty of the social worker to visit the young offender at home, at school, at work, to study the effect of the remedial measures proposed. The study is of the individual child, but the aim of the Commission and of the teacher or the social worker is to connect the child with other children, to remove any inhibitions that may have separated him from right human associations. This is done because of their belief that children must be educated in collective habits. Good politics, doubtless; certainly, modern psychology, and very fine pedagogy.

The Institute of Children's Inspectors keeps watch on children in public places, on railways, at harbors with the dual objective of preventing juvenile crime and giving protection to the ill treated and the homeless.

In January, 1923, more than a thousand Moscow students came to the aid of children's institutions, making records, helping to organize children's clubs, children's communes. From this nucleus before the end of the year the society called the Friends of Children was organized, each member paying dues, in addition to direct participation in work,—organizing hospitals, workshops, dining rooms. In less than three years there were similar societies in thirty-two out of the thirty-four provinces of R. S. F. S. R.,* with branches

* Russian Socialist Federation of Soviet Republics, one of the major divisions of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (U. S. S. R.).

in factories, offices, schools. The funds are used to send children back to their homes; for maintenance grants to factory apprentices, students in technicums; to equip children for work; for homes;[1] for home workshops.

The Moscow *Pravda* established a Pravda Children Commune collecting the money from the public by means of an ingenious endless chain. In its columns, it announced, according to custom, a contribution for the Commune, publicly calling upon half a dozen others to contribute. Each of those in turn publicly contributed and in the same way called upon others, and so on until a sufficient sum has been raised, through small individual gifts.

Through Anna Louise Strong, many Americans have helped to build up the John Reed Colony on the Volga, and workshops, in the environs of Moscow.

At the Russian Reconstruction Farms in Maslov Kut, under the direction of Ingeborg Schanche (Mrs. Donald Stephens), vagrant children, old enough to profit by the farm facilities for learning trades, have been accepted and then distributed in the garage, in the machine shop, in the carpenter shop, and in the field, working part time in the winter while attending school; working all the time in the summer.[2]

In the summer of 1926, some 3,500 children from Children's Homes were transferred to peasant homes in 38 counties of Samara on the Volga. The experiment was a success. They came back brown and well, with conspicuous enthusiasm for agricultural life.

Thereupon the Moscow Department for the Social Protection of Minors at once asked peasants to file applications for such wards, offering special favors,—including a partial remittance of taxes—to those who

should be successful in teaching and caring for them.

In 1922 there were a million homeless children; in 1927, there were not more than 150,000. Is this apparently an irreducible minimum, until time shall have finally solved the problem? Hopefully, not. In the south, at any rate, homeless children are seldom seen. In the summer of 1927 a Baku paper asked "Where are the Bezprizorni?" And proudly answered, "In our schools," showing pictures of their homeless children, of all ages, learning many different trades.

TYPICAL COLONIES

In the Ukraine alone there are now some 200 colonies, accommodating, severally, from 60 to 3,000 children. One such, located in a beautiful environment; with fine buildings, a farm, and a large faculty, cannot even hold the children, much less educate them. The number of inmates is always about the same, a thousand, but they are constantly coming and going. They are offered healthful work and play, but they are already hardened, undisciplined, and have learned the lure of the road. Other reasons for failure are obvious: the colony is at the end of a tramway line within easy access to a city, the administration is lax, and the teachers indifferent.

In marked contrast with this failure is another colony in the vicinity of Kharkov. It is smaller, far enough from transportation to make the city relatively inaccessible, with armed guards at its four outposts, on duty day and night, making escape difficult, at least. The reasons for its success, however, lie much deeper. They rest on the bed rock of responsible freedom, cooperation, pride in their own work and in the school, developed in the boys and girls through the faculty,

under the remarkable leadership of their chief, Antoine Macarenoco. He wears military costume, has a commanding voice, uses military methods of discipline, but with an obviously loving, wise and understanding heart. Although still young, he was a teacher before the Revolution. Later, in Poltava, he successfully developed a similar institution, re-creating it without and within. His aims and accomplishments are those of an engineer and his pedagogical technique is sure.

The colony is named for Gorki and is under his patronage. He writes to it, frequently, from his villa in Italy, and his letters, his pictures, his books are everywhere in evidence.

The colony owns about sixty acres of land and the old monastery buildings. In its midst, the church still stands and seems to be in constant use, the center of numerous religious processions. These and the bells annoy the boys—the teachers, too, perhaps—but, certainly, this example of mutual tolerance has spiritual and intellectual values, whether or not they are utilized.

The site and the buildings are very beautiful, the fields numerous with varied and well-cultivated crops. They grow not only the grain, but they make out of it their own excellent bread and kasha. In consequence, the daily cost of the abundant and good food averages only fifteen cents per person. There are 360 children (60 girls), 16 teachers, 7 technicians, and 6 inspectors. The live stock is not numerous but excellently cared for—a dozen horses, half a dozen cows, and a dozen fine Yorkshire pigs. The latter are housed in the former cells of the monks and are remarkably clean and well kept. The group whose privilege it is to care for them were greatly interested in describing each personally: one was bad-tempered; another good; another

sick; two others orphans. The profits go to the group collectively. Most often they decide to use them for luxuries like sugar, but sometimes they are given to causes—for example, toward a new musical instrument for the community band.

In addition to school rooms, dormitories, a dining room, a theater, club rooms, they have an electric station, carpenter and machine shops, barns. The carpenter shop was full of well-made honey-comb boxes, export boxes, bee hives—the commercial enterprise of another group.

The students are also the proud owners of two tractors, one of them the gift of the workers in a tobacco factory.

Each group of student workers is called a regiment. The numbers vary in accordance with their work. For example, there can be only six in the regiment in charge of the electric station, while the field regiments are all of them relatively large. Each regiment contains junior and senior members, each has its own colors, and each its own self-chosen leader. To this leader, each day, must be given a written report of the day's work. Any who fail to comply must give the reason why at the "reunion" of all students, which takes place at the close of each day. The usual excuse is laziness. This means demotion into the regiment for the lazy. Sometimes there are many students in this regiment, sometimes only one, but, apparently, never none! And yet, everywhere, in the fields, in shops, in laboratories, the work is carried on with vigor, enthusiasm, intelligence.

There are bugle calls—each different—for every activity, from band practice to meals, to work, to the evening reunion, to the dormitories. They themselves have devised a scheme of work inspection that seems

to give both the inspectors and the inspected much pleasure. The pedagogues lead the regiments to work, but on arrival they work with, not over, the students.

In the colony, each dresses more or less as he or she pleases, but to go into town the prescribed uniform must be worn. It is a good-looking suit, blue and black, with a white collar. Twice a year all the students go to Kharkov for the day, in a uniformed body, marching through the streets, with the special objective of finding vagrant children. Always they bring back, in triumph, a few converts to their beloved Gorki.

Six of the teachers (May to October, 1927) were former inmates of the colony. One, a splendid looking young woman, originally sentenced for stealing, is now studying engineering. The other five, young men, are all of them now institute students, one in medicine, another in veterinary science, and the other three in pedagogy. Gorki is, of course, very proud of them and its other successful graduates. More unusual was their obvious pride in Gorki. As Sokoliansky (head of the Scientific Educational Council, Ukraine) said, "Almost it makes me want to steal that I, too, may be made to live here!"

In many ways, Gorki reminds one of the George Junior Republic. There is here, however, much less political machinery, much more real self-rule by the children themselves, all under direction, wise, human, but also remarkably efficient.

CHAPTER XI

THE YOUTH MOVEMENT

In almost every other country, the Youth Movement has originated in a spirit of revolt against the elders. In the Soviet Union, on the contrary, the flame has been fed by the elders both in the schools, indirectly, and by the government.

STUDENT GOVERNMENT

In the elementary schools, even, the pupils participate in the government, universally in the towns, more and more in the rural districts. Usually there is a *Præsidium* made up of pupil representatives from each class together with some faculty representative. Often, too, the physician and representatives of other interested groups, such as the Pioneers (scouts), the Comsomols (League of Communist Youth), the school workers (non-teachers), the parents, the Labor Union, the factory, and the local Soviet. The *Præsidium* is relatively large and usually meets monthly with an elected student president and secretary presiding. Often a small Executive Committee, generally with relatively many faculty representatives, meets more frequently. Always there are many Commissions—on Sanitation, on Sports, on Clubs, and other cultural activities, and, in Secondary Schools, especially, on the formal work of the school itself.

Pistrak[1] gives this account of the inception of auto-

organization in an elementary school in Moscow (probably his own):

> Four grades (years) in the school had begun to function; nothing had been decided upon, especially from the viewpoint of hygiene. In the course of the school work, under the influence of a small group of pioneers and of adults, some of the children began seriously and energetically to envisage the problems of hygiene. A sanitary commission was born; its tasks included not only the work of sanitation, but also instruction in sanitation and propaganda for its ideals. There was organized a journal for sanitation with editors and collaborators. Little by little, other questions crept into the journal and it became, finally, a journal in the general interests of the school. Step by step, thanks to the journal, other preoccupations concerning the problems of instruction, concerning social activities, and the like, found expression. In a year the autoorganization of the pupils was already well developed in form and had become a reality.

A little later Pistrak adds: "From all that has been said, it follows that the autoorganization of children is not merely a game. It ought, also, to be a serious occupation, a necessity, for children, charged with responsibility that they feel and comprehend. In no other spirit should one accept pupil participation in school organization and government."

THE PIONEERS

In 1922, there were 4,000 Pioneers; in 1923, 200,000; in 1925, 1,000,000. Now practically all the children

in city schools from 7 to 13 years of age and increasingly large numbers of children in rural schools belong to the Pioneers.

They are to be seen everywhere, carrying flags and banners, sometimes in a uniform of various types, more often with a red kerchief or red tie as their only insignia, at work, marching, hiking, singing. In summer, they camp out together, under the protection, perhaps, of the older League of Communist Youth, and round the camp fire they listen eagerly to the stories—now almost legendary—that have to do with the youth of Lenin and with the Revolution. They learn to know the world of nature at first hand. They are taught to be clean, to be neat, to exercise. In these respects the Pioneers resemble the Scouts. Indeed, Krupskaya made a study of English and American scout manuals, preliminary to the organization of the Pioneers. In addition, the Pioneers under the direct control of the League of Communist Youth, an almost inexhaustible source for "Scout Masters," are being trained politically, in order that they may be ready to play their part later, in the up-building of a Communist Society.

Daily Routine for a Pioneer

From the Official Program for Education

	First and Second Group 8-10 years old	*Third and Fourth Group 11-13 years old*
Morning toilet	7.30- 8.30 A. M.	Same
Walk to school (Depends upon distance)	8.36- 9.00	Same
Laboratory or theory	9.00-10.55 (2 periods of 45 m.) (2 recreations of 25 mi.)	9.00-11.40
Physical Training, including open air play	10.55-11.40 Recreation	11.40-12.25 P. M.

	First and Second Group 8-10 years old	*Third and Fourth Group 11-13 years old*
Luncheon	11.50-12.15 P. M.	12.25- 1.00
(Cleansing hands and teeth)		
Studies, handicrafts	12.15- 1.00	1.00- 1.45
Walk home, dinner	1.00- 2.00	1.45- 2.45
Rest in bed, or diversion	2.00- 3.30	2.45- 4.00
(With open windows)		
Public Activities	4.00- 5.00	4.00- 6.00
	(3 times weekly)	(In pioneer's division)
Tea, play in the open air	5.00- 7.00	6.30- 7.30
Supper	7.00- 7.30	7.30- 8.00
Rest, preparation for the night	7.30- 9.00	8.00- 9.30
Sleep	10 h. 30 m. - 11 hours	10 hours

The Pioneers meet on Sunday for two to three hours including out-door plays, unless the school makes provisions for them with a "Thursday Club."

THE "COMSOMOL"

This is the League of Communist Youth, from fourteen to twenty-three years of age. Just as in the elementary schools, almost all the pupils in city schools and many pupils in the rural schools belong to the Pioneers, so in secondary schools, very many students in city schools and surprisingly many in rural schools belong to the League of Communist Youth.

In the Revolution of 1905, the revolutionary movement of children was very marked, in Poland, at any rate, and doubtless elsewhere.[2] Literally thousands of them organized into the "Little Band," took possession of theaters and other meeting places, distributed tracts, and even took part in the barricade fights. They were suppressed and disbanded, of course. Nevertheless, these experiences counted in the successful and rapid development after the revolution of the Comsomol.

The members of the Comsomol have played an important and worthy part in the evolution of education in the Soviet Union. The idea of the School for Peas-

ant Youth (see pp. 54-55) came entirely from them. They have worked at it and with it, fervently, persistently, and to them is due its remarkable success. The development of the Factory School, or rather the training of teachers for it, has been another of their successful ventures. (See pp. 75-77.)

It is they who have helped materially to reorganize the second cycle of the last two years of the High School, giving it a strong vocational bias. (Appendix pp. 199-216.) Their experience in this connection has led them to espouse the cause of the Seven *vs.* the Nine year school. Indeed, Pistrak goes so far as to say:[3] "The creation of any type of contemporary soviet school is impossible except with the cooperation of the Comsomol."

They have the fault of their virtues, too, these youth. They are not always tactful, not always self-controlled, sometimes insolent, but to put too much emphasis on these obvious defects is to fail to see the forest because of the trees.

CHAPTER XII

EXTRA-MURAL EDUCATION

In Moscow, there is an Institute for the Scientific Study of Extra-Mural Activities of Children (Zaks, president), with connections all over Russia, from Irkutsk to Tashkent, as well as in many nearer places. There are departments for the study of children's literature, games, work, clubs, excursions, kino. At the head of the laboratories for the study of literature is Mme. Pokrovsko. One of the assistants, Vera Fediavsky, came to the United States in 1926, to attend the annual meeting of the American Kindergarten Union. She has written two excellent reports in English of the work of her department.[1]

LITERATURE FOR CHILDREN

Three age groups of children, 3 to 7 years, 7 to 10 years, 10 to 13 years, regularly come to the Institute three times a week to listen to stories and to read. A near-by kindergarten is frequently called upon when a special audience is needed, as, for example, all girls, all boys, or all children of a definite age. In addition to the story teller, a responsible assistant is present to note the reactions of the children. She records their comments, their exclamations, their smiles, their laughter, their absorption, or it may be inattention. Usually other adults are present, as on one occasion, Mme. Pokrovsko, Mme. Fediavsky and myself.

What was my astonishment to recognize the dramatic fairy story of the Three Bears. "But I thought that fairy stories were forbidden," said I. "Oh, but this is an experimental school—nothing is forbidden to us. Else, how could we ever find out the truth?"

After the story was finished and the children dismissed, there was a general discussion in which the story teller, the note taker and the other adults took part.

Sometimes the children spontaneously dramatize parts of the story, sometimes they retell it, sometimes they are shown big illustrative wall pictures. The methods are various. Whatever is done is recorded, discussed, and finally made available to the educational world.

In the reading room, every time that a child asks for a book, the request is recorded on a card which gives also his age, sex, nationality and social origin. The child's opinion is similarly recorded. The children are much interested in the records, for they know that the librarians want to know what they like so that they, in turn, may know what kinds of books to buy and what books will be most useful in schools and libraries.

On the reader's card, by conventional symbols, a record is kept to show of each book (a) why it was chosen, (b) how it was used (read through, glanced at, used for pictures), and (c) the child's evaluation of the book.

These human records are studied and then compared with similar studies in other countries, notably Germany and the United States. In both Germany and Russia, children's interest in fairy stories is stronger than in the United States. American children (boys) care more for adventure—Russian, for real life stories. Many stories are great favorites in both countries—*Tom Sawyer, Huckleberry Finn, Little Women, Rob-*

inson Crusoe, Black Beauty, Hans Brinker, Treasure Island, the *Jungle Book, Pinocchio, Dutch Twins, Call of the Wild,* for example.

"All of this proves," said Mme. Fediavsky, "that there are laws in children's reading interest which we can study and which we must know."

Some members of the Institute, including Pokrovsko and Fediavsky and Professor Tchekoff, have made an interesting collection and study of Russian books for children, beginning with the earliest, a lovely edition of Commenius' *Orbis Pictus,* with the captions in Latin, Russian, and German. The collection includes more than two hundred books published from 1717 to 1793 of which only fifty-five were original, the rest translations, together with more than five hundred and fifty published from 1794 to 1855, with many originals.

Other Institute members are making a study of the new books in cooperation with the children and other organizations, of course. For example, hundreds of cards, each annotated, were made of the books for children that were published in 1926. The data are made available constantly, to all, through the medium of the journal called *Children's Literature.*

Of course, all of this work reacts on the publishers. In 1925, no classics were published although 7.28 percent of the requests were for them. Now there are more published. Nearly 17 percent of the requests were for fairy stories. Doubtless this will have its effect—in time.

ADULT EXTRA-MURAL EDUCATION

No account of education in new Russia can possibly omit the very important work in adult education carried on more or less in cooperation with the Commisari-

ats of Education, by the Trades Unions, the Cooperatives, voluntary societies of all sorts and kinds, the Red Army (see Chapter XIII).

In addition, much significant extra-mural education is carried on by means of the radio. In particular, radio newspapers, *The Workers, The Peasants, Young Communists, Truth, The News Pioneer,* are adapting their wares to increasingly large audiences by adopting a conversational tone and punctuating their news with music.

EDUCATION IN TRADES UNIONS[2]

The trades union organizations prove, by their deeds, their realization of the importance of education. They devote 10 percent of their income to it, and have inserted a special clause in all collective agreements which requires all employers to pay into the same fund about 1 percent of the total wages bill. To satisfy the cultural needs of their members they have established thousands of clubs. Here may be found "red corners" (little clubs), reading rooms and libraries, chess and billiard rooms, theater, gymnasium, rifle range and many circles studying Trades Unionism, Marxism, Leninism, Economics, Music, Art, the Drama, Sewing, Radio, Photography, etc. A third of their membership belong to the various physical training circles.

The General Club in Moscow, to which all trades union members are eligible on payment of a small fee, fifteen cents for initiation and then ten cents a month, has the advantage of very considerable grounds, one hundred and twenty acres, in which there is a lake, basketball and tennis courts, a large restaurant, three tribunes equipped with loudspeakers, out- and in-door moving pictures and wall newspapers, a print shop, in

addition to the usual club house equipment. The organization, as usual in clubs as well as schools, consists of a *Præsidium* made up of the elected officers and the chairmen of the innumerable Commissions. All told there are more than a hundred directors, twenty-five of them salaried, giving full time to the work.

In Ekaterinoslav there are three separate clubs, the palatial homes of former capitalists, one for the metal workers, one for the workers in building trades, in addition to the General Club. Kharkov is equally well equipped with clubs. That of the metal workers (membership, 25,000) is in a fine new building, with a splendid theater (two orchestras, one of women), a lecture hall, a gymnasium, elaborate radio equipment, a buffet, a net work of rooms for games (chess, checkers, dominoes), two libraries (one for children), a big study hall, many class rooms and laboratories for technical instruction, and, close by, a field for track and field sports, used by more than half their membership. The facts in reference to their library indicate that the Club is a vital educational center: there were, in 1925, 90,000 volumes from which the metal factories periodically withdraw and return books for their own libraries. But it was not large enough to keep up with the demand, so the Union appropriated $30,000 with which to buy additional books.

In Leningrad, there is an interesting school for the training of Trades Union Workers. It occupies a beautiful palatial house, the former home of General Polatseff. Until 1925 it was a rest house for workers. Now, under the able leadership of Ivanchenko Chumak, virile, practical, and yet a dreamer, some sixty students, men and women, are pursuing a two years' course, studying foreign languages, mathematics, economics, Russian,

Trade Unionism, and propaganda methods. In addition, there are thirty students taking a briefer course in propaganda and methods, many coming in the early morning and in the evening intent upon learning a foreign language. Most of the students, an unusually enthusiastic and interested group, have been sent by metal workers' unions; some represent textile workers and clerks. Each full-time student receives board and lodging and a monthly allowance to cover books, clothing, and incidental expenses.

In addition to giving many educational opportunities to themselves and to their families, many of the Clubs are preaching and practicing *smitchka* (dovetailing), a word invented by Lenin to indicate the understanding and cooperation that must exist between town and village groups if Russia is ever to become a successful economic and social entity. In consequence, many individual factory groups become patrons of Red Army units, visiting them in their barracks, often with their families, receiving them at the factory, in the Club, and finally in their homes. Nor is it unusual for a Club to give a tractor to the village with which it is affiliated. In the Baltic Ship Yards, in Leningrad, 3,000 workers voluntarily belong to an association which, through its dues, is establishing libraries, delivering modern agricultural machinery, helping to drain swamps in a group of villages three hundred and fifty miles away. In the chief village they are establishing a School for Peasant Youth (see pp. 54-55) and a Club House.

It must be remembered that many workers are first generation villagers. Near Moscow and near Leningrad there are scores of villages whence the men, in

winter, seek employment while the women still carry on at home.

VOLUNTARY SOCIETIES

Most of the Societies have been discussed elsewhere: Down with Illiteray (p. 122), Friends of Children (p. 102), Society for the Encouragement of Self-Taught Inventors (p. 127). There are many others, *Aviachem*, or the Society for the Encouragement of Aviation and Industrial Chemistry; Workers' Society for the Union of City with Village, or, in other words, *Smitchka*; the Society for Self-Education, and others.

Smitchka

The Workers' Society for the Union of City with Village originated in a Leningrad factory in 1923, with a membership of sixty. It has now several million members with branches in every industrial center in the country. Its large income comes from membership dues and admission fees to the concerts, the theatrical performances, the moving pictures that it sponsors. This is expended in loans to cooperatives, loans or gifts towards horses and tractors, for the organization of mills, blacksmith shops, fire departments, women's clubs, the partial support of agronomes, doctors, feldschers, midwives, and other village workers. In addition to money contributions, the Society organizes special meetings and gives out programs so that workers taking their vacations in villages may help along instead of hindering *smitchka* by participating intelligently in the social and political activities of the village.

CHAPTER XIII

ADULT EDUCATION

THE adult schools include two to three year day schools, either agricultural or industrial; Sunday schools of the same type for those who cannot study during the week; schools for illiterates,[1] and political schools, elementary, to train organizers and other workers for the soviet, trade union, and Party departments—and higher schools, for county and provincial Party departments. The Communist Universities and the Trades Union Propaganda Institutes should also be included in this group.

Other forms of adult education are extra-mural, for example, self-education, in charge of a special commission; libraries; clubs; and propaganda work for special campaigns—such as famine relief, improvement in agriculture, anti-tuberculous, aviation, and the like. In the latter, the idea is centralized, but every kind of an educational institution participates in getting it over to the people.

THE LIQUIDATION OF ILLITERACY

On December 20, 1919, the Council of the People's Commissars, thinking that to wipe out illiteracy as soon as possible was one of their principal tasks in the advancement of the political and cultural level of the masses, issued a decree announcing their intention to eliminate it among the entire population between eight

and fifty years of age. In a single year the campaign reached 5,000,000 people, about half of whom actually learned to read and write. Then came the famine. Expenditures for education were transferred from national to state budgets with a consequent rapid diminution in the number of illiteracy stations from 1,600 in 1921, to 500 in 1922, to 150 in 1923. With the improvement in the economic and political condition that followed the introduction of the new economic policy together with the increase in the local budgets, the war against illiteracy was renewed with vigor. The Commissariat for Education established an All-Russian Extraordinary Commission for the Elimination of Illiteracy, determined, if possible, to conquer illiteracy among all the inhabitants of the Soviet Federation between eighteen and thirty-five years of age by the tenth anniversary, November 7, 1927.

The tenth anniversary has come and gone, awards have been made to teachers and to villages that have completely abolished illiteracy. The Red Army[1] and the Trades Unions, severally, have been successful in liquidating it among their members, but rural illiteracy and illiteracy among the national minorities still exists. Nevertheless, victory is in sight and the battle has been gallantly fought.

The Extraordinary Commission for the Liquidation of Illiteracy began by establishing special schools in the provinces to teach the teachers. Early in 1924, an adequate staff was available all over the country of men and women exclusively concerned with the struggle against illiteracy, not engaged in any other occupation. This is the more remarkable in that in Russia teachers especially are in the habit of carrying several jobs at the same time.

At this time there were seventeen to eighteen million illiterates. It was planned to clean up two million in 1924, four million more in 1925, eight million more in 1926, and in 1927 the remaining two million. The cost was carefully calculated, including not only salaries but also the publication of certain text books, supplies, the training schools for teachers. More than 80 percent of the cost was assigned to local administration, less than 20 percent to the government. Much aid has been given by Party and Soviet organizations, especially by the foundation of *The Down With Illiteracy Society* (Kalinin,[2] president). To this a first contribution of $5,000 was made in the usual Russian way by the government daily newspaper *Izvestia* (see p. 103).

In 1924, there were only 100,000 subscribers. In two years there were more than a million and a half. Through its dues, its sales of literature, and lotteries, the society supports a third of the stations for the liquidation of illiteracy, eleven-twelfths of them in the villages. In 1925, it published two million primers and twelve million books, of which more than six and a half million copies were special literature for illiterates and the insufficiently literate and the rest, popular literature for peasants.

The total number of illiteracy stations increased in 1924-25 to 42,004; 1925-26, to 49,804; decreasing in 1926-27 to 29,592, because large numbers had learned to read and write.[3] Many stations were also formed for the insufficiently literate. In these schools, the complex (the dominating idea) is the economic geography of the Russian Soviet Union, with the definite objective of giving the pupils much opportunity to strengthen their acquired habits in reading, writing,

reckoning and above all to give them an active interest in public life, and to help them to handle intelligently questions of actual life at the present moment.

There are ten times as many stations for illiterates as for the insufficiently literate. Their objective is not merely the elements of reading, writing, and arithmetic, but to rouse an interest in knowledge and to call forth an active desire to participate in the construction of the Soviet State. Their primers, therefore, are definitely political and in addition are supposed to be supplemented by oral discussions of current events. The idea is not to teach the primary skills separately and abstractly but to give what the Germans call *Gesammt Unterricht,* using the same methods that we use in our progressive schools but choosing for the vehicle genuine adult interests.

The scheme has been splendidly elaborated and occasionally, very occasionally, one does find what the Commissariat thinks should be universal, namely, an adult illiterate actually reading intelligently at the end of a few months of instruction half a dozen hours weekly. The interest is keen and the enthusiasm contagious, but after all reading and writing are habits that require much time and much practice in the acquiring.

In one of the peasant schools in which illiterates are taught (Kaluga Gubernia), it happened that one of their days fell on a religious holiday. No attendance was expected, for oddly enough the religious holidays (twelve single days in addition to Christmas and Easter) still survive in the school calendar. Nevertheless, a group of peasants came to the school to ask the teacher to celebrate the day by telling them the whole story of the October revolution. Already they had

read it in part, but they longed for the rhythm, the drama of it. She rose to the occasion magnificently, giving them what they had asked for without demanding anything from them in return.

CLUBS

In the smaller villages[4] the educational work of the clubs is carried on in the Isbas, or cottage reading rooms; in the larger villages, in the Narodny Dom, or people's houses. Here all the cultural resources of the village—teachers, physicians (more often feldschers) and agronomes and newspaper correspondents (selkors) center their extra-mural activities. Newspapers, books, games—all are to be found here. Here function wall newspapers, often the radio, and often lectures; dramatic performances, classes. In 1926-27, there were 14,188 such isbas, with 25,500 "red corner" branches. The previous year, they served nearly 12,000,000 during three months.

In Siberia in 1924 there were 1,700 such isbas, eighty-two of them in languages other than Russian.

LIBRARIES

There were and still are large and fine libraries in Moscow and in Leningrad, scientifically of great value, and, since the revolution, socialized and functioning for the good of all.[5] All the stationary libraries try to organize study circles. In the library in Odessa there are fourteen such circles. One of them is devoted to aviation, and is now engaged in making models. The librarian has found a room for them for the numerous mono- and bi-planes, which are actually fliable.

There are stationary libraries in all the larger villages and factories. The needs of the smaller villages and

factories are met by carefully chosen itinerant libraries, circulating from the central district.

The State Publishing House has a department of Peasant Literature that has issued literally millions of cheap volumes (three and four cents each) covering questions of interest to the village, such as government, taxes, cotton goods, credits.

The following quotations from a booklet on *Peasant Credits*,[6] first edition 100,000 at four cents each, will give an idea of the character, style, and pedagogical value of the books:

> It is known to all, and especially to our peasant, that peasant husbandry in Russia is still very weak, dark and backward. . . . It is known to all how the robber policy of the czar and the landlords strangled peasant husbandry. . . . And the long war and the heavy struggle of the workers and peasants against the generals and landowners impoverished the land still further.
>
> What does the peasant need?—The workers' and peasants' government knows well. He needs everything—seed, working cattle, machines, and tools, and every other means of production. . . . The government would like to help in all these, but it also is poor from the war, and needs money for re-establishing all the husbandry of the country—the railroads, the industry, the schools, the posts and telegraphs, and many other things.
>
> But although the government has very little, and the peasant has very little, still, if we put these two littles together, it is possible to give help to the peasant, even if not very quickly, along the lines of peasant credit. . . .

Along with credit there must go into the village knowledge, and agricultural teaching, and reading and writing and libraries. . . .

Now every peasant can get a loan through a credit association. If there isn't one, he should start one. Or if there are not enough households to start a credit association, which needs at least fifty persons, then he should join some other collective organization, either a producing artel, butter-making, wood-working, hand industry, or a little consumers group, for buying machinery, tractors, irrigation, or a general agricultural cooperative. Any one of these organizations can become members of a central credit association and can receive loans for its members. . . .

One of the best committees we have discovered was down in Tsaritsin province. Its head is Chebotareva, a peasant woman, who is also a member of the Central Executive Committee of the Soviet Union. It organized a home for sixty orphans and secured five cows for them. By starting a collective of peasant women, it established a vegetable plantation and with this supported the children for a whole year. It also ploughed and seeded all the lands of widows and red soldiers.

This mutual aid committee has a tractor which ploughs first for the poorest peasants free and then for the well-to-do peasants for money. With the money thus received, an energetic cultural work is carried on. A reading hut has been opened, in which are newspapers, journals and a good library with agricultural literature.

Alas, not all mutual aid committees are like

this. Some work badly, and in some no one works at all.

The government has been greatly helped in this enterprise by thousands upon thousands of letters from peasant readers pointing out the defects of books already published. Always fluent in speech, the Russians are rapidly becoming equally fluent with the pen. Truly, a remarkable people.

SELF-EDUCATION

Spontaneously, a movement for self-education developed among the workers and even among the peasants. This the government has encouraged in every possible way. Special commissions, central and local, give advice to all who wish to educate themselves. Also, they publish a magazine, *Assistance in Self-Education,* addressed both to workmen and peasants.

The Naturalist Association, founded in 1918, in Moscow, is a product of the Revolution, having for its object the "hunting for Lomonosovs," i.e., the quest for any talent or genius that may be found among the masses of workers and peasants deprived in their young days of the opportunities of academic education. It has among its members the inventor of the dirigible metallic airship, Prof. Tsiolkovsky. Timiriazev was one of its active members and its first honorary president.

At the present time the Association unites upwards of 5,000 self-taught individuals, from prominent inventors and research workers to people of humble rank, in the scientific and technical world. The members of the Association are scattered in all parts of the Soviet

Union, carrying out their important local researches in every branch of human endeavor.

In August, 1926,[7] the Naturalists organized an exhibition of the work of its members. A large model of the dirigible metallic airship was the star exhibit, but there were hundreds of other models of various discoveries in addition to technical drawings, and scientific reports.

Perhaps the most influential single factor in the education of the adult male population was and still is the Red Army, discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER XIV

EDUCATION IN AND FOR THE RED ARMY

Two months before his discharge, the Red Army soldier is given a practical course to prepare him for cultural leadership in his native village. It is a climax to the two years of instruction which has liquidated his illiteracy, or his semi-illiteracy, or else materially added to the education that he brought with him. Nearly 85 percent of the soldiers are peasants. On their return they function in the rural population as powerful nuclei of culture.

EDUCATION IN THE ARMY

The idea back of the education of the soldier is that he shall not be a soulless machine, a blind tool in the hands of his officers, but an independent thinking man who willingly, intelligently, executes the orders of his commander. Therefore, every soldier must know why he has been called into the army, the social structure of the state that he is called upon to defend, why and against what enemies the Soviet Union must be defended. In other words, his education must be political as well as cultural.

Just as soon as the new recruits arrive in the barracks, the illiterates are at once sorted out, put into the hands of army teachers for at least two hours daily, until they learn to read, write, and cipher. This usually requires not more than six or seven months.

The literate, in groups of twenty-five to thirty, follow a program that is concerned with these questions: The structure, history, and problems of the Red Army; the rights and duties of the soldiers; the relationship between the soldiers and their commanders; the problems and the aims of Soviet Government, its development and the characteristics of the Communist Party; the economic and political standing of other states.

Whatever may be the subject studied, much opportunity is given to practice fundamental skills. For example, if they are studying England, reading, writing and speech are tools to help them to understand English contemporary life; mathematics, to understand and portray graphically the facts in reference to her industry, her commerce, and the social condition of her people; and geography, to unlock the doors to a knowledge of her colonies and the Empire.

These courses are all of them obligatory. As always in any educational center in Russia, there are two other cultural agencies at work, the Lenin or Red Corner and the Club. The Red Corner is decorated with flags and banners, pictures and numerous mottoes. Usually there is a wall newspaper to which each may contribute poems, prose, cartoons. There are also games, especially chess, music, and the radio. The Club is larger, offering greater opportunities in the same direction—chess tournaments, for example, instead of individual games. Always there is a large auditorium and always moving pictures.

The Red Army has its own newspaper, three-fourths of the space being devoted to correspondence and the rest of the space to political questions. The soldiers love it. Why not? It is their very own, satisfying

their needs much as the *Peasants' Gazette* satisfies those of the rural population.

ARMY LITERACY

The Red Army, created by a governmental decree a few days before the signing of the Brest Litovsk treaty, was at least 50 percent illiterate. Yet in spite of civil wars, suppressed finally at the cost of many human lives and much suffering, in spite of the long continued bitter fighting that preceded their extraordinary successes in repelling invasions along the western front, from the north, from the south, and from Siberia, by the Poles, the French, the Germans, the Serbs, the Finns, the Esthonians, the Letts, the Italians, the Rumanians, the Americans, the Czechs, and the Japanese—yet when peace came finally, after three long years of continuous fighting, army illiteracy had been reduced from 50 to 14 percent.

A year later illiteracy in the army was reduced to 8.2 percent, and the next year to 6 percent, in spite of an increase in numbers from not quite four million to more than five million soldiers. Then came demobilization. Labor Battalions were born.[1] Munitions factories made useful things. Barracks were transformed into school houses. So passed away, forever, the huge enthusiastic Old Army with its careless clothing, its irregular rifle slant, its awkward salute.

In the spring of 1922, a decree was published calling to the colors the "first-class" recruits, those born in 1901. The admission of 350,000 new recruits raised the percentage of illiteracy in 1923 again to 8 percent. During the winter 1923-24 a relentless war was waged against the illiteracy front of the Army, and no new

recruits were admitted until the autumn of 1924. In every regiment the illiterate and the more backward semi-illiterate soldiers were enrolled in special school companies and squadrons with definite hours for study. The other semi-illiterates studied in the evening schools. In the Ukraine, the best educated and perhaps the most intelligent of the federated states, every soldier, even the most literate, spent an hour each day in some form of profitable educational work.

At the same time a successful campaign was carried on with the illiterates born in 1902 and 1903, so that when called to the service they might come able to read, at least. The Extraordinary Commission for Fighting Illiteracy published a magazine, called *Down with Illiteracy,* which had its largest circulation and was most popular in the Army. When, in 1923, the class of 1901 were discharged, they were at once enrolled into the Society of *Down with Illiteracy;* in other words, they became active and efficient *Friends of Literacy.*

And so on its sixth birthday, the seventh of the Republic, the Army attained, temporarily, complete literacy. Temporarily, only, for, in spite of the efforts of the League of Communist Youth, backed by the Educational Commissariat, it is not yet possible, especially among the native minorities, completely to liquidate the illiteracy of all the young recruits before they enter the army. Nevertheless, each succeeding birthday of the Soviet State sees a literate army, for each year it wins anew the battle against the third front.

EDUCATION FOR OFFICERS

There are many professional schools for the education of officers. The entrance requirements are every-

where the same. Unless the candidate has successfully completed the Second Grade School (equivalent to our high school) he must prove by examination that he reads, writes and speaks Russian with reasonable fluency, that he knows some history and geography, and that he has adequate mathematical ability. There are always a number of such candidates, usually recommended by their former officers in the army. This means, of course, that already they know and like army life and that they have ability along that line.

The course lasts for three years with the major emphasis on military technique. Many of these schools occupy the buildings formerly used as cadet schools, for example, the Skola Kalinina at Nizhni-Novgorod. It has fine dormitories, excellent laboratories, good equipment, much of it made by students, especially the maps, diagrams, and models. Students with the equivalent of our college education are allowed to concentrate on the technical work and can hope to graduate in a single year. One such student, although a Russian, had also completed the course in the *Handels-Hoch-Schule* in Berlin. Probably later, he will have the opportunity to study at an Institute, such as Tolmatscheff, in Leningrad. In the meantime, Kalinina offers him a short cut to his heart's desire.

The Institute Tolmatscheff was originally built as a palace for a prince. Later it became the War Office. The two Carrara Lions in front of the Colonade are described in Pushkin's *Bronze Knight* (the famous statue of Peter the Great, on the mound near the quay). It is now a four years' college for army officers. There are about four hundred students, every one of whom has seen five years of actual service, and in addition has been recommended by his superior officers as a man of

unusual ability either in technology or in teaching. Each student is given his tuition, living expenses, and a small income. If he has a family, they may live with him in the Institute, although special permission must be obtained. Even in the good old days (three years ago!) when entrance examinations were taboo and recommendations counted more heavily than now, Tolmatscheff seemed to be more successful than other colleges of the same grade in attracting exceptionally well prepared and able students.

The former war offices have now been converted into a series of interconnected laboratories and workshops. Corridors are used for museum displays.

An immense wall has been utilized to make a living map of the aeroplane service of the world. Nearby are graphic charts showing relative equipment and efficiency of different countries. Below is a large open engine, constructed with moveable windows so that one may understandingly see the wheels go round.

Even in 1925 the science laboratories were well equipped along all lines from vivaria to oil immersion lenses. In addition there were literally hundreds of fine charts, made by the students themselves, many of them graphic representation of their own individual experiments, in the study of Mendel's Law, for example, as well as equally graphic representations of the experiments of others. These were being prepared by the students, their own property to equip them for teaching.

One of the rooms reserved for science was occupied by a carpenter, another by a mechanic. They were employed twelve months in the year, two of several reasons why the department was well equipped. This

vision of full utilization of space and equipment is often realized in Russia. (See p. 77.)

Institute Tolmatscheff was one of the first educational establishments to experiment with the Dalton Laboratory Plan, using all its machinery of progress and class graphs and individualized mimeographed guide sheets, more completely than elsewhere. The usual difficulties were encountered, each professor assigning twice as much work as could be successfully accomplished by the student. This is nothing new, but it escapes detection or permits evasion with ordinary classroom recitation methods, in Russia, as everywhere else.

To solve this difficulty the Tolmatscheff Institute created a Dalton Commission, on which were representatives of the students as well as teachers. These collectively make out the guide sheets. Then before any of them are given out the whole month's work in all subjects is submitted to the President of the *Præsidium* (students' governing body), and to each department head, for the express purpose of seeing that the total minimum is adequate and yet within the time and ability limitations of the group.

"Never, at any time, in spite of our difficulties," said Baumgard, the vigorous and able head of the science department, "did we once think of giving up the Dalton Plan. Its advantages were too obvious, and the apparent disadvantages merely temporary anad superficial difficulties, to be overcome. We have made many modifications. We never ask ourselves, how is it in the book, but always what must be done for our students, in our subject."

CHAPTER XV

TEACHER TRAINING

THERE is serious unemployment among Russian teachers. In Kharkov, with a population of 310,000, it amounts to about two hundred[1] (see p. 155). Nevertheless, the training of future teachers is going on, in pedagogical technicums, or Professional Schools, for elementary schools; in Universities and Institutes for secondary schools; and in Institutes, like that of the Red Professors in Moscow, for the higher schools, universities, colleges, Institutes, and higher technicums.

PEDAGOGICAL TECHNICUMS

The admission requirement (theoretical) to these institutions is the completion of the Nine-Year school (equivalent to the European Real Gymnasium). As a matter of fact, many such institutions even in the larger cities have been admitting not only those who have completed the Seven-Year school (equivalent to our high school), but also those who upon examination prove themselves adequately literate, mathematical, and intelligent. The day has forever passed when admission can be gained by recommendation from a trades union or other semi-political organization.

Probably one should note here, that the word *psychology* is never used in the Soviet Union. The idea, *psyche*, they say, is too vague. Instead they use the word reflexology with the connotation of psychology.

The course lasts for two years and includes practice as well as theory, with a slant toward definite types of schools. In Leningrad (population 1,611,000) there are five such technicums for elementary teachers, one for the Poles, another for the Finns, still another for the Esthonians, with two for Russians, one for those who wish to teach in rural communities, the other for those who wish to teach in industrial ones. In the Ukraine, in addition to fifty-five technicums for teachers in their own language, there are two Russian, two German, four Jewish, one Bulgarian, one Polish. In Odessa, two-thirds of the schools are for national minorities—Russian, Jewish, German, Polish, Greek, Armenian, Tartar—making a still more complex problem for teacher training institutions. The Soviet educational authorities are completely agreed on the idea of preserving national culture by developing national schools in the native language of the people.

It is true that the dominant race is Great Russian (more than three-fifths of the population), but there are more than a hundred different nationalities, all of them except the Ukrainians (nearly 15 percent), making a small percentage of the population, yet many of them creating, as indicated above, real and complex educational problems, discussed later in this chapter.

PEDAGOGICAL INSTITUTES

The establishment of Institutes, that is, Teachers' Colleges, for the training of teachers for the secondary schools is entirely a post-revolutionary enterprise. Their academic course (four years) centers around sociology, science, pedagogy, broad and inclusive terms. Pedagogy, for example, includes pedology (scientific child study); individual psychology with the major empha-

sis on reflexology; group psychology (collectivism); history of education, especially in the Union; geography and history of the Union; didactics (methods); practice, under close supervision during the second year, but with considerable freedom and reality the last two years. All of the teachers in one of the best Seven-Year schools in Kharkov, the Karl Marx Experimental School, are Institute students, and so are very many of the summer pedagogues at the Gorki Colony for the Homeless (see pp. 104-107).

In addition, students in Teachers' Colleges in agricultural regions are also instructed in agricultural economy and are obliged to spend a certain amount of time in actual work. Such schools in industrial regions study factory and other industrial work, also devoting some time to actual work. Still other Teachers' Colleges have a communal municipal trend, training their students for high school teachers in the larger town.

As in almost all other higher institutions of learning, lecturing as a method of instruction has been abandoned. There are laboratories with laboratory methods for every subject. The students have a very real part in making the program. There are always half as many students, elected by the students, as teachers on the Program Commission. Such a Commission plans, directs, and supervises the work of each department.

THE INSTITUTE OF THE RED PROFESSORS

This school[2] prepares teachers of history, economics, political science, philosophy, natural science, for the higher schools. Its entrance requirements are high and its students adult. Each candidate must have a five-year record of social work and command of two foreign languages. He must present an acceptable thesis on a

theme related to the department in which he wishes to specialize. He must then pass an examination in history (Russian and Western European), political economy, philosophy. If he wishes to specialize in law, he must also pass an examination in the history of law; for science, he must already be an assistant in a university where his research work will be continued along with courses in philosophy and natural science in the Institute.

The academic work lies in six fields; jurisprudence and cooperation, in addition to the four subjects required for entrance. In the first two years, each student must complete two pieces of research work in one or two of these fields, and in his third or fourth year he must present a thesis suitable for publication. All academic work is done in seminars. Each seminar chooses its own teacher, who may or may not be on the Staff, who must be the best specialist in his field, regardless of his political opinion.

The seminars are splendidly organized. The themes to be presented are mimeographed and distributed in advance. Interest is keen and the discussion lively.

Practical pedagogy involves about ten hours of actual teaching per week, so distributed that each student is in contact with factory workers all three years, with an elementary or factory school, or rabfac for a year, and during his last two years, with a higher technicum or the university.

As usual, the administration is very largely in the hands of the students. All course proposals, whether from students or faculty, go first to the board of deans, made up of one student from each of the six academic departments chosen by the students themselves. If the proposal is sanctioned by the deans, it is then passed on

to the administrative committee, made up of the director (M. M. Pokrosky, an old revolutionary), the secretary (a woman), three faculty and two student members.

The student administrative council is made up of the student secretaries of the seminaries (thirty).

The students receive an adequate maintenance fund during each of the four years of residence. In addition, many of the fourth year students are given their last year of study in some western European country.

Three classes have been graduated from the Institute of the Red Professors, chiefly economists, historians, philosophers. Some of them occupy university chairs; others take part in the work of research institutes or societies; many of them are active members of the Communist Academy, the Society of Marxist Historians, and of the Scientific Council of the State Planning Institutes.

In 1924, a two-year preparatory course was added to the Institute, to prepare Rabfac graduates for admission. This policy has added many workers to the prospective students. More than half of the section is made up of workers *vs.* only 19 percent in the Institute itself.

Less than half the students are great Russian. The following other nationalities are also represented: Ukrainians, White Russians, Georgians, Armenians, Turks, Tchuvashians, Baskirs, Tartars, Uzbeks, Greeks, Mongolians, Latvians, Esthonians, Jews.

Every year a few score of students from among the very best of university and Rabfac graduates, with a sprinkling of able self-taught practical workers, are added to this remarkable student body.

INSTITUTE OF PYSCHOLOGY AND DEFECTOLOGY

This is the crown of teacher training institutions. Dr. Tutishkin, well known among social workers in this country, which he has twice visited, is the director. Its function is to train teachers for real leadership, at the same time raising child study to the rank of an independent science. It was founded under the joint auspices of the Commissariats of Health and Education. Physicians, psychologists, educators make up the faculties, each working from the point of view of what he can contribute to a philosophy of education based on a science of childhood. These institutes have many experimental stations both in Moscow and in Leningrad, where an a-typical child may live, if necessary, while he is at school under observation. Each experimental station has its own ambulatory or clinic to which problem children are sent from other schools for complete and scientific examination. From the ambulatory groups the pupils for the special schools are selected. The institutes also are connected with educational experimental stations and ambulatories in various other parts of the state. The students are sent to these during the summer months, to teach and to learn.

The standards for admission are high. All the five hundred in Moscow are of college grade. The four years' course, each year twelve months long, makes such demands on their physical and mental vigor that many fall by the wayside. Moreover, the students are not allowed to take their final examinations until a half year after the successful completion of their course. This is to give them further opportunity to assimilate—or forget—what they have learned.

There are six departments in the Institute:

The Pedagogical; to prepare teachers for children below and of school age, of industrial apprentice age, and for the preparation of the educational staff for schools of the first and second grade and children's homes.

The department of Psychology and Defectology; to prepare professors of psychology for Pedagogical Institutes. The department of Social and Moral Defense; to prepare psychologists for establishments of social and moral protection, including, also, commissions for protection of minors.

The remaining departments prepare for institutions for blind children; for deaf, and for intellectually backward children.

In general, in all the different types of teacher training institutions, the quality of students is excellent. They are a fine group of men and women, vigorous, intelligent, enthusiastic, promising well for the future.

TEACHER TRAINING IN SERVICE

For every group of a few hundred teachers in the city, many less in the rural districts, there is a so-called Experimental School, the principal of which is responsible for the training in service of the teachers in his district as well as in his own school. The tools most commonly used are evening conferences, with attendance obligatory, and exhibitions. The most successful conferences are those in which demonstrations are followed by lively discussion with many participants. Now that thousands have actually participated in the making of the new program (1927), now that they realize that, detailed though it is, its administration and re-creation is actually in their own hands, they

have responded enthusiastically. Interest in the evening discussions is often intense, with many valuable contributions from the floor. Much depends on leadership. There are not enough stimulating leaders, either in Russia or anywhere else in the world, to make the wheels move as rapidly and as efficiently as they should.

The most far-reaching training for teachers in service is that afforded by the New Program. Its social and political content, its scientific treatment of pedagogical problems is gradually and surely re-educating the teachers. (See pp. 68-73; appendix, pp. 170-216.)

Each summer season, short courses, varying from five days to six weeks, are given to hundreds of thousands of teachers. These courses are in cycles—political science, pedagogy, Russia, natural science, raising standards. In the winter, schools that are well known are overrun with visitors, intent on learning. In 1925, for example, Pistrak's School Commune in Moscow entertained twenty-five hundred visitors. I was the two hundred and tenth visitor to School Number 98, in Leningrad, counting from January 1. I asked about how many visitors there had been from September to January and was told "about three hundred and that more than two hundred others had come to the June conference and exhibition." It ought to be said, in passing, that visitors to Russian schools can probably learn much more about the school in less time than is usually necessary in the United States. For each school has a School Museum, in which numerous graphs, invariably constructed by the museum commission of the student body, answer many questions that one wishes to ask.

Excursions for teachers are constantly being organ-

ized. These have usually had for their objective either new experiments in education, or else the study of Moscow. In 1925, the First Experiment Station in Moscow organized one hundred and fifty-two such excursions, serving nearly five thousand teachers. In the last few years the teachers have discovered that they are living in no mean land, and excursions to the Crimea, and other parts of the Black Sea, to the Caucasus, down the Volga, to Merv, to Samarkand, to Tashkent, to the Urals, even to Siberia, are adding materially to their vision.

TEACHER TRAINING FOR NATIONAL MINORITIES[3]

As has already been indicated, this is a difficult problem even in the large centers. Still more difficult is the situation where the national minority is a local majority as in the Caucasus, in Usbekistan, in Turkestan, in Northern Siberia. The Soviet principle is to train native teachers instead of making the mistake that the Czechs made when they sent their own teachers into Slovakia. The principle is sound, but its execution is somewhat difficult, as shown by the following quotations selected almost at random from many others in Voks Bulletins (italics ours):

> *Universal Instruction in Siberia* (Feb. 12, '26). The first district conference on the question of universal instruction has recently taken place in Novosibirsk. The insistent clamor of the population for education, and great interest in the intended expansion of the school have been particularly pointed out. It was resolved to appeal to the center for free timber for mass construction of schools. *A demand for 850 teachers was sent to*

Moscow. Furthermore, special courses for the training of new school workers are being organized. . . .

The Smallest Nation in the U.S.S.R. The Karagass people are the most ancient inhabitants of the Irkutsk region in Siberia. They are supposed to be a branch of a Samoyed race which had once inhabited this region, but was subsequently either driven to the Northwest of Asia or partly assimilated by invading Turkish tribes. The Karagass people speak the Turkish language, but their dialect contains also unknown roots. The Karagass people are a very small tribe, numbering altogether 405 people, including infants. The Karagass people live in the depth of the Siberian *tajga* (marshy forest) to the Southwest of the Irkutsk province.

The Karagass engage chiefly in hunting for sables and squirrels. By reason of their occupation they are essentially a nomad people, wandering from place to place in search of their prey. Nevertheless, the territory occupied by them is of great size, estimated by old Karagass people at 56,310 square *versts* (nearly 2,500 square miles).

An interesting attempt was made by the Soviet authorities two years ago in establishing *a school for Karagass children. The school is attended by the pupils during the winter season only, and in the summer they rejoin their parents in their wanderings. The school has now two grades and the pupils are making considerable progress. All of them have learned to talk Russian fluently.*

Cultural Work Among the National Minorities (April 2, 1926). The organization of educational

activity among the national minorities is under the charge of a special Council at the People's Commissariat of Education (National Minority Council), which takes care of about 150 nationalities inhabiting the U.S.S.R. One of the fundamental tasks of the Council is the organization of cultural and educational work among the national minorities in their respective native tongues. Written alphabets were produced by the Council for 18 nationalities which had previously no literacy, e.g., the Votiaks, Mordvans, Chuvash, Kalmuck and a number of nationalities in Northern Caucasus, and text books and primers were printed.

In the current year the Council proposes to extend the school system by 15 percent. At the present time there are among the national minorities 5,252 elementary and intermediate schools and 4,937 politico-educational establishments. *Particular attention is now concentrated on the training of native teachers, for which purpose there were founded 42 pedagogical academies and 8 national minority departments at the faculties of the different universities,* as well as 7 national agricultural schools and 5 departments at the Russian agricultural schools; 4 national departments are to be opened this year at the medical colleges, which is of particular importance to the Eastern races among whom quackery is still thriving; 510 students from the national minorities are attending at the higher schools. *There are national departments at the universities of Moscow, at the pedagogical institutes of Kuban, Vyatka, Kazan and so on.*

Educational work has been started among the Assyrians in Northern Caucasus and in the cities of Moscow, Leningrad, etc. Educational activity is being conducted among the Ukrainians and White-Russian settlers in Soviet Russia. The number of schools for the White-Russians has been increased this year nearly tenfold (336 as compared with 36 last year). The number of schools for the Ukrainians is to be increased to 830. There is also to be an increase in the number of schools for the Koreans.

More complex is the educational situation in the extreme North, where there are hardly any native teachers and educators available. Twenty-eight boarding schools are to be opened this year for the Samoyeds, Ostiaks, Yakuts, Tungas, Buryats, and Mongolians. Similar schools are to be opened for the Yukagirs, Kamtchadals and Esquimos.

The training of native teachers is making considerable progress at present, and it is expected that over 3,000 teachers for the national minorities will be turned out in the current year.

Special courses were conducted for illiteracy liquidators among the Hakassian, Oirats, Votiaks, Bashkir Tartars, Kirghiz, etc.

There are now in Soviet Russia 45 pedagogical academies for the training of national teachers for Poles, Latvians, Esthonians, Germans, Finns, Hebrews, Armenians, etc. Altogether these pedagogical academies take care of 26 nationalities comprising a population of over 16,000,000.

The following agricultural schools exist in the U.S.S.R. for the national minorities; 2 Tchuvash, 1 Finnish, 1 Komi, 1 Mari, 1 Kalmuck, and 1

Ingush, in addition to several elementary agricultural schools.

The number of students enrolled in the national minority pedagogical and agricultural schools in 1925 included 622 Tchuvash, 316 Mari, 1,429 Tartars, 304 Mordvans, 1,494 Jews, 358 White-Russians, 499 Ukrainians, 186 Latvians, and about 1,000 representatives of other small nationalities.

In order to overcome the difficulty of securing sufficient instructors for the national schools, *linguistic departments are being established at many of the higher schools to train teachers who are familiar with one or another of the native languages.*

Conference of Tartar and Bashkir Educators (Jan. 7, '26). The third Conference of Tartar and Bashkir educators has just been concluded at Kazan, attended by 45 delegates from the different districts.

The conference resolved to extend the existing system of pre-school establishments, *and to train native women as pre-school workers.* The conference recommended also the publication of pre-school literature in the native languages, and the *organization of pedagogical training courses for natives teachers.*

Arrival of the Tanu-Tuva Teachers Delegation (Oct. 8, '26). Teachers Delegation from the Tanu-Tuva Republic (situated in Central Asia between U.S.S.R. and Mongolia), consisting of Citizen Art (president of the delegation), manager of the department for public instruction attached to the Ministry for Home Affairs of Tanu-Tuva, and members of the delegation; Citizen

Nazdyn, teacher of Mongolian language in the Central Model School, and Citizen Brukhanov (Sotpa), teacher of the Russian lauguage in the same school, arrived at Moscow.

The delegation was met at the station by the representatives of the People's Commissariat for Public Instruction, of the People's Commissariat for Foreign Affairs and the U.S.S.R. Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries, etc.

The delegation came to U.S.S.R. for the purpose of *studying the management of public instruction, and methods of struggling with illiteracy,* there being a tremendous percentage of illiterates in the Tanu-Tuva Republic, and the main task of the government at present being just this struggle with this inheritance of the past. The country just entered the line of state construction and organization of public instruction.

The First College Faculty in the Cossack U.S.S.R. The Cossack Institute for Public Instruction in Tashkent has been reorganized on August 15, 1926, into the Pedagogical College, to become in future a faculty of the Cossack University.

The cultural and economic growth of U.S.S.R. necessitated the presence of qualified workers, *in the first place high school teachers. The opening of the Pedagogical College is the result of this necessity.*

The capacity of the College is estimated at 450 students. This figure will probably be increased in the very first year, judging by the desire for education.

Cultural Work Among the Gypsies (May 7, 1926). The Gypsy Union was organized at Mos-

cow last October, *with a membership of 1,500 gypsies.* The Union conducts cultural and educational activity among the members. Adult gypsies are being taught at literacy schools organized by the Union. There is a tendency observed among Russian gypsies to quit their nomadic habits and to take to settled occupations. The Union is also organizing the study of the folklore and folk-music of the gypsy camps.

At the present time there are at Moscow three schools for gypsy children. Among the pupils are the children of local as well as of immigrant Serbian and Rumanian gypsies. The instruction is carried on in Russian *and in the vernacular.* The pupils publish a wall-newspaper, *Romany Glos* (The Gypsy Voice). The parents show unusual sympathy for the activity of the schools. . . .

A difficulty in educational work among the gypsies has been the absence of a gypsy alphabet. A group of scholars are now working on the Elementary Gypsy Speller which will be ready for publication next year.

A proof of what has already been accomplished to make the national minorities literate in their own tongue is the fact that there are now more than a million readers of 200 different newspapers in non-Russian languages. In three years, 1924 to 1927, the number of newspapers has almost doubled, while the number of readers has more than tripled.[4]

CHAPTER XVI

TEACHERS AND TEACHERS' UNIONS

I HAVE talked with hundreds of Russian teachers, studied them at work and at play, not only in their own land, but in Berlin in the Courses for Foreigners at the Zentral Institute; at the New Education Conference, in Locarno; and even in this country. At first their individual personalities, their individual reactions to their work were all that was noticeable. Eventually, they segregated themselves into types. Those who began to teach before the Revolution and those who have found their opportunity since make two obviously different groups. In the early days of the Revolution, only a few teachers followed the lead of the government. For the most part, these were men and women who had been unconscious revolutionists at heart, who had remade their schools or their classrooms into "new" schools, even in the old environment, or else they were men and women who had come under the leadership of Shatsky and his kind. In the ten years that have passed, all of the old regime who are now teaching have learned to accept the direction of the Commissariat of Education, outwardly at least. A few of them accept because, regardless of what they may think of political communism, they realize that in the new schools of new Russia, as never before, both self and group activity of the children are finding infinitely varied opportunities for expression and are actually strong educa-

tional forces for individual development as well as for social growth. More of the older teachers, not always the least intellectual either, accept with many reservations. They go through the motions, more or less perfunctorily, complain bitterly of the difficulties of the Complex (the Project), for example, and of the fact that they are "prisoners in their own land." Among the younger teachers, the numbers are just reversed. Most of them joyfully accept the challenge of the Educational Commissariat that theirs is creative work, and are throwing themselves into the adventure with astonishing vigor, physical and mental.

SALARIES

These are still unbelievably low, but so also are all wages, and so is the standard of living. However, there are compensations. In the long summer vacation there is the opportunity to travel and to rest, notably along the Black Sea, in the Crimea, in the Caucasus, on the Volga; in cities for rural teachers, and, in the country, for those from the larger towns and cities, in what were once the pleasure palaces of the nobility and the very wealthy. In some of the Crimean villas the cost to teachers is as low as $2.50 monthly, in Siberia, about $15, on the Black Sea, $17 to $25, and there are rest houses and sanatoria where the cost is nothing. Part of the financing of the rest houses and sanatoria is done by the Government through social insurance funds, while district Educational Workers' Unions contribute about five percent of their income to this purpose. Like all other workers in Russia, the teachers are organized into Unions.

UNION OF EDUCATIONAL WORKERS

The roots of the Teachers' Unions are in the past. There were Regional Pedagogical Conferences called together during vacations, beginning in 1860. In the beginning they were merely much needed philanthropic associations, but from 1891 on some of them were distinctly revolutionary. Finally during the revolution of 1905 they grouped themselves into a national syndicate, including for the first time university and gymnasia teachers. The Syndicate declared that "the czarist government is incapable of understanding the aspirations of the people and reestablishing order in Europe." Nevertheless, order was restored and the syndicate suppressed by the government. It was reborn immediately after the February revolution, but it was actively in opposition to the October revolution adhering to the counter-revolutionary party and insisting particularly that religion should be taught in the schools. It was suppressed by the Bolshevik Government. The present Educational Workers' Union is organized along the lines of all other Trades Unions, comprising all the workers in any given region, including librarians, office workers, janitors, students. Delegates are elected to represent each village in the county Soviet, which in its turn elects to the gubernia, and in its turn to the Soviet of the republic. This, meeting once a year, elects the representative of the Educational Workers to the Congress of the Soviet Union.

The Educational Workers' Union has two functions —one, to serve the teachers, the other, the community. It protects its members through collective bargaining for wages, conditions of employment and handling of

grievances. One of its most effective methods of raising the professional and cultural standards of its members is through the Club. These clubs are universally housed in beautiful buildings, the one in Kharkov formerly belonged to a wealthy merchant; in Leningrad, it is the magnificent palace which was formerly the property of Prince Yussupof. Each club has at least one paid manager, a lecture hall (in constant use apparently), specialized libraries, dining rooms, classrooms, at least one room for games, especially chess, a well organized bureau of information, which is *always* arranging opportunities for sports and excursions. As usual, one finds a wall newspaper, the one in Leningrad, for example, directed me among other things to an interesting moving picture telling the story of Pushkin, at the same time exhibiting the restored glories of the fountains of Peterhof by way of historic background.

SOCIAL POSITION

Teachers in the Soviet Union are expected to be real people counting in the political, the social, and the cultural life of the community. Especially is this true in the villages. There the teacher is sometimes the only intellectual, and as such a very real leader. In one such village the teacher is a member of the village soviet, president of a commission on civilization, active member of the cooperative, correspondent for the *Peasants' Gazette,* director of radio installation, and also takes his turn as magistrate. In another, he has charge of agricultural propaganda, and has organized a model field, cultivated by a circle of peasants, with guidance from the village library. In one region in the Ukraine, the teachers constitute twenty-seven percent of the Soviet and Executive Committee of the district, and eighty-

seven percent of the cooperative management. More than half of them worked on the Commission for the Liquidation of Ignorance, and five percent on Propaganda among Women. Women teachers are frequently members of the Soviet.

Men like Shatsky can do and are doing wonderful work with whole groups of villages. (See pp. 46-53.)

In brief, although Lenin's dream of elevating the lot of the teacher finally raising him to a rank higher than in any capitalistic country has not yet materialized, it is moving along rapidly and is on the right road.

UNEMPLOYMENT

The figures for unemployment given by the Union of Educational Workers for January 1, 1927, are appalling—81,619 out of 746,816—but relatively few of these are qualified teachers.[1] The majority are office and technical workers, and rural teachers, liquidating illiteracy in the winter, but otherwise unemployed. There were about 1,700 teachers unemployed in Moscow in 1926-27, some of them not qualified, and most of the rest unwilling to go into the rural districts where they are always needed. Last year the Union spent nearly $8,000 in sending unemployed educational workers to other towns. The Labor Commissariat spent $25,000 to provide them with classes and courses. The condition is difficult, but, with a rapidly expanding system, probably only temporary.

CHAPTER XVII

FINANCE

SINCE 1923-24, Russia has had a balanced budget. There is a budget for the Union, for each of the separate republics, and local budgets. More than half the Union budget since 1925-26 has come from state property and enterprises, the rest from taxes and excises (46 percent) with less than 4 percent from extraordinary sources (state loans, issue of silver and copper coins). The All Union Budget was nearly quintupled from 1922-23 to 1926-27 (5,000,000,000 rubles). Local budgets are supposed to cover local needs. In 1926-27, more than 40 percent of local revenues was spent on education, making a total expenditure from all Union and local budgets of more than 290,000,000 rubles. The total local budget was 2¼ times the total Union budget.

The State Budget (1926-27) carried 224 educational institutions, including 24 central and 30 local experimental schools, 40 institutions for the legal protection of adolescents, 100 Kirghiz, 15 Turcoman and 8 northern schools, in addition to the following miscellaneous expenditures: preparation of scientists and secondary teachers, contributions to the theaters and scientific institutes, additions to museums, support of young talent, international conventions, Tolstoi's anniversary. For mass education, the largest amounts were contributed to rural schools with smaller sums for pre-school edu-

cation for the Pioneers, and for education in Kamchatka, with subvention to help local budgets for salary increases, for buildings, and for the liquidation of illiteracy.

Local revenues, with the above mentioned exceptions, take care of service, heating, repair.

In addition to this support from All Union and local budgets, the schools receive money from tuition fees, from public spirited societies, and also from various money-making enterprises. Fees are gradually being abolished. They have always been small, varying in the same school from a few kopeks to many rubles per month, in proportion to the size of and income of the family, with many exemptions and many free places. In the last few years private schools have been permitted in the pre-school group as well as in certain types of preparatory schools, particularly in languages, stenography and the like. Even in these schools, however, at least 25 percent must be free places and the schools are, of course, under the direction of the People's Commissariat of Education. Half the income from productive school enterprises—shops, gardens, fields—may be kept in the school to be expended according to the judgment of the principal. The other half reverts to the Educational Commissariat. Often permission is given to keep all for definite expenditures for the school.

Inadequate as is the income to the great needs of a great country, it is increasing rapidly and is distributed with extraordinary intelligence, with an eye on the future as well as on present needs, from the point of view of the economic prospects of the year, judged by the remarkable State Planning Commission.

What Lunacharsky said about contemporary popular education is equally true of finance and the budget:

"it is a healthy organism even if under-nourished. During these eight years we have consolidated the theoretical basis. . . . Our practical efficiency, the local apparatus . . . all of these have now acquired a character of their own. These have now become a compact organism, obeying the laws of its own nature, and possessing large reserves of force, although still in a state of change and rapid development."[1]

CHAPTER XVIII

SUMMARY OF THE HIGH LIGHTS

THE highest light in the picture of the new schools in new Russia is the character and the extent of their development during these last four years, 1923-1927. I shall quote figures, occasionally, when available, for all former years. In addition, from my own observation I wish to add that the changes that have taken place even in the last two years, 1925-27, are almost incredible to me, an eye-witness. These changes involve the Program, or curriculum, equipment, buildings, universality of educational opportunity, new types of schools, teachers, pupils, community relationships.

THE PROGRAM

In 1918, the Peoples' Commissariat of Education drew up a program for education making free, obligatory and universal a pre-school education from three to seven years, an elementary, from eight to twelve years, a secondary, from thirteen to sixteen years, also the pronouncement that every Russian citizen was entitled to a higher education. But it was not until 1923 that they reached the bed-rock of what was of first importance and what actually was possible under the difficult conditions in which they were living.

In 1925, the First Grade Program (elementary) was ideal as an expression of what can be done with fine

teachers under fairly favorable conditions. In point of fact, it was successfully in operation in very many schools both in towns and in the country. But the mass of the teachers were teaching as they had been taught, or, rather, looking upon the new program as an unrealizable ideal, sitting back and excusing themselves for doing nothing.

In a less degree the same statements are true of the Second Grade Program (secondary) for the first three years. In addition, the complexes based on the social sciences were better than those based on the natural sciences, and there was much just discontent with the outlines for the last two years.

In 1927, the new Program for the First Grades, without losing its ideal character, had become intensely practical, making it possible for the garden varieties of teachers really to educate, instead of, at the best, merely to train the children committed to their care. (See Appendix, pp. 172-199.)

EQUIPMENT

Even in 1925, almost all schools, even those in Moscow and Leningrad, were meagerly equipped, except those inherited from some of the fine schools of the old regime, and except, also, the few which with the help of the pupils had succeeded in equipping themselves with home made apparatus of every kind.

In 1927, almost all the schools, even those in the remoter regions and native minority schools taught in their own non-Russian languages, were sufficiently well equipped to carry on effectively. Lack of equipment, however, is still given by teachers (with well developed defense mechanisms) as a reason for following the Program more or less perfunctorily.

BUILDINGS

From 1918-25, almost every kind of school was lodged either in the former home of a wealthy man or in the hut of a peasant. Both were ill-adapted to school needs.

In 1927, many new schools have been and are being built especially in industrial suburbs, often in connection with model working-men's houses. In the country, they are beginning to build small consolidated schools. Nevertheless, the building program for the villages is entirely inadequate.

FREE AND UNIVERSAL EDUCATION

In 1923-25, even in the cities, neither the elementary nor the secondary schools were free, although even then not only free tuition but also room, board, and maintenance allowance were granted to many older students in rabfacs and other special schools.

In all the larger industrial centers, the elementary grades have been entirely free since September 1925, and in 1926 and 1927, the first, second and third years of the secondary schools were added to the list. In 1928, the last two years will be added. Already, in these centers, elementary education has become universal. This is not true in rural districts. It has been promised for 1933, along with complete literacy. In 1925, this seemed a mere pipe dream, but these dreams have an uncomfortable way of coming true. Who can tell?

NEW TYPES OF SCHOOLS

By 1925, many new types of schools and other educational institutions had materialized and were in suc-

cessful operation. Among these, in connection with pre-school education, were receiving, observation, and distributing centers; commissions on juveniles; institute of children's inspectors; also, children's crèches, hearths; communal villages. New types of schools for adults and adolescents were the rabfacs; pedagogical and physical training schools; communist universities, and other new types of institutes. In addition, very many elementary and secondary schools had already developed a special slant, for example, in the schools near the Shatur Electric Stations, the special program was largely based on the study of peat, electricity, and other products of the region; at Kraskovo-Malokhovskaya, on rational scientific agriculture; in the Bio-Station of Young Nationalists, in Sokolniki, on agriculture (biology in its widest sense), physics, meteorology; the Radishchev school, on labor problems, with its school workshops, and its connections with nearby factories and its summer life in a village. Professional schools for adolescents and many different kinds of schools for adults had come into existence.

In 1927, these new types had developed intensively and in efficiency. In addition, many of them had spread laterally as well. From 1923 to 1927, preschools (kindergarten *et al.*) increased almost 400 percent,[1] from 1924 to 1926, out-of-door summer schools, 1,000 percent.[2] In 1926, communes and colonies were accommodating 116 percent more pupils than in 1924; homes and schools for homeless children, 135 percent more; schools for peasant youth, 167 percent; political schools for adults, 38 percent; political courses, 333 percent; rural reading rooms, not quite 25 percent; libraries, not quite 70 percent.[3] Factory schools, in a state of flux in 1925, had become stabilized in 1927.

Secondary technical, and many other types of secondary professional schools, new born, were already flourishing because they had come in answer to a definite demand.

NATIONAL MINORITIES

The network of schools for the children of the national minorities has been increased in the last ten years from nearly 6 to more than 35 percent. It is still behind the average level of the U.S.S.R. (about 55 percent) but the pace of growth of the network of schools for the national minorities is considerably quicker than that of the general school system.

In 1925, only elementary teachers were being educated for the national minorities. In 1927, opportunities were offered to secondary teachers and national linguistic departments were added to higher schools. Nearly thirteen hundred advanced students were taking advantage of them.

Great achievements have been made in compiling new textbooks for the national minority schools. Out of the forty-one nationalities of the R.S.F.S.R., fourteen already have complete sets of textbooks for all the classes in their schools; four have textbooks for the first three school years, eighteeen have textbooks for the first and second years, and five more will be supplied, 1927-28.[4]

TEACHERS

In 1925, these were largely of the old regime, and understandably enough discontented with the low wage and the difficulties before them—especially the new program and the attitude of the rapidly developing young pioneers.

In 1927, well-trained, vigorous, enthusiastic, profes-

sional-minded young teachers were conspicuous also by reason of numbers; salaries, though still inadequate, have been quadrupled, and are now practically equal to those received by other government employes; the pioneers are less captious, and their organization more an integral part of the school.

PUPILS

In 1925, they sometimes seemed palpable misfits. Those were the days when trades unions and peasant groups still nominated to the rabfacs and other middle schools.

In 1927, everywhere, from the universities down, the quality of students was obviously higher. The reverse of the medal was indicated by Mrs. Zelenko. She reported that one of the teachers had told her of the slump in the interest of her students, knowing now that there was scarcely a chance for most of them even to enter college, while in the earlier days they were full of enthusiastic dreams of themselves as teachers, or other professional men and women. In Moscow, there are only 12,000 places in the higher schools for 60,000 ready and eager for the opportunity.

Personally, I was much impressed with the obvious alertness of peasant school children. I did not see them in large numbers until 1927. Then I was continually reminded of Blonsky's statement that measured by their I. Q.'s, they were actually more intelligent, in the elementary schools, at least, than town children, and of the following opinion of Paleologue's countess:[5]

> They are ignorant, that is, they have no knowledge; they lack positive notions; their educa-

tion is very limited, and often non-existent. But, though they may be untutored, their intelligence is none the less remarkable for its range, elasticity, and also its activity. . . . Their minds are always at work. The moujik does not talk much, but he is always thinking, reflecting, turning things over in his mind, and dreaming . . . primarily of his material interests, his harvests, his cattle, the poverty which grinds him down—or threatens to do so, the price of clothes and tea, the burden of taxation and forced labor, the next agrarian reform, and so on. But thoughts of a much more lofty nature obsess him also, and echo into the very depths of his soul. That is particularly true in winter, in the long evenings, in the *isba*, and the monotonous walks in the snow. A slow and melancholy reverie then claims him entirely: he thinks of human destiny, the meaning of life, the parables in the Gospels, the duty of generosity, the redemption of sin by suffering, the ultimate triumph of justice on God's earth. . . . I should add, too, that they use their intelligence very cleverly. They are splendid in discussion: they argue with much skill and subtlety. They often give you most witty replies, and display a talent for waggish insinuation and a fine sense of irony.

ANTI-RELIGIOUS PROPAGANDA

Without yielding a single principle direct anti-religious propaganda has been abandoned. For example, contrast these two excerpts—both from the fourth year of the First Grade:

In connection with nature study, the sky:

> Dependence of primitive man upon nature; its influence on his mind. His religion. Religion as a means to exploitation: slavery, feudalism, and their connection with religion. Release from exploitation and religious slavery. Atheism of working men. —Program, 1924.

> Children should see some of the organs of birds or other animals. Use drawing for the organs of the human body. The comparative study of human and animal organs is of great value, for the discovery of similar structures brings children to the understanding of the origin of species and helps them to develop a materialistic ideology. —Program, 1927.

In 1925, in many schools, I was shown anti-religious "corners," usually too blatant, too vulgar, too extreme in their expression to be effective propaganda except for the ignorant. They in their turn were "opiates for the mind."

In 1927, no such corners were shown. One official assured me that in his district they existed still; another, that in his, they were being gradually abandoned; and a third, that they had never been organized in any school under his direction. All three men were ardent communists. The difference among them was due to the fact that the last named knew that when there is much teaching there is sometimes little opportunity for learning!

In 1927, the beginnings of tolerance were everywhere in evidence. For example, in each of two popular plays,

the *Turbin Family* and *Lyubov Yarovaya,* a White Army leader was portrayed sympathetically as an honest man, worthy of respect, and in the latter play high principled and brave. Moreover, in the ballet *Red Poppy,* although an anti-British bias was visible, it was relatively inoffensive and brief. The same thing is true of the anti-American propaganda in *Yell, China, Yell.*

SCHOOL AND SOCIETY

The following statement from Eppstein's Report (1927) is literally true:

> The Soviet school has become part and parcel of the whole body politic, taking part in conjunction with other public and State organizations in solving a number of problems connected with the building of socialism. Our elementary schools are helping the homeless children, organizing activity in the public libraries and reading huts, taking part in the work of the various voluntary associations, taking part in the anti-illiteracy campaign, holding children conferences, assisting in the promotion of sanitary measures in the rural districts, organizing mass campaigns for the destruction of pernicious insects, propagating the advanced methods of agriculture, actively taking part in the distribution of educational literature, and so on. In a word, in a thousand and one ways the school children are taking active part in the progressive activities of the Soviet Union.

In other words, not preparation for life—but life at flood tide, life more abundantly.

APPENDIX

THE COMMISSARIAT FOR EDUCATION

THE Commissariat for Education, administering the whole work of education, is organized as follows:[1]

1. The Administrative-Organizing Board, which directs the general administrative and organizing work of the Education Commissariat and its local departments; it also deals with their financial transactions, construction work, etc.
2. The Chief Board for General and Technical Education, which directs the pre-school and school education of children and social and legal protection of minors.
3. The Chief Board for Technical Education, which directs the training of industrial, agricultural, educational art, health, and other experts.
4. The Chief Board for Pre-School Education and for Educational Work amongst adults.
5. The Board for Education in non-Russian Languages. The special duty of this Board is to direct education in non-Russian languages, in accordance with the requirements and customs of the various national minorities within the Republic.
6. The State Scientific Council, which is a central organ for the study of educational method and the drawing up of syllabuses, etc., for the schools and technical and scientific training centers.

7. The Chief Board for Scientific and Art Institutions. This Board directs the work of academies, scientific societies, research institutes, meteorological and biological observation centers and other scientific institutions. This Board also supervises the work of safeguarding historic monuments, works of art and museums, and the conduct of State theaters, circuses and musical institutes.
8. The Chief Board for Literature and Publications, which exercises control over printed publications, cinematograph and theater repertoires.
9. The State Publishing Agency.
10. The Managing Board of State Cinematograph Enterprises.
11. The Supply Board, which organizes the supply of general educational equipment.

PROGRAMS[2]

FROM the Program for the First Grade, has been selected for illustration the complex *Health,* in order to give a picture of the real meaning of education in the Unified Labor Schools. It ought to be said in passing that the teaching thus indicated is not merely on paper. It is an integral part of the school work in a great many schools. That it is definitely on paper means, perhaps, that it will become universal. Only through a Program initially directed by professional-minded educators, with a right philosophy of education, with vision, who know children, who know teachers, who know class room conditions—and are not inhibited by the knowledge—can any system of *public* education ever develop enough good teachers to educate all their children.

To quote Harold Rugg: "Under proper conditions, of course, the true educational intermediary between the child and adult society is the teacher. If we had 750,000 teachers (or even, say, 300,000) who, like William Rainey Harper, could teach Hebrew as though it were a series of hair-breadth escapes, the curriculum itself would stand merely as a subordinate element in the education scheme. . . . But under current hampering conditions [*even with us, the wealthiest country in the world!*] . . . I fear we tend to reverse the process and teach hair-breadth escapes as though they were Hebrew. Hence, my allegiance to the curriculum. . . ."

The following quotations indicate the practical point

of view of the Soviet Program makers, totalling hundreds of teachers:

> A program must be practical, providing the materials for careful time budgetting, per week, as well as per term. This is a complicated problem because of great local differences in schools due to differences in geographic and economic conditions and industrial development. To the teacher, therefore, must be given freedom to plan his own program and yet he needs definite direction. . . .
>
> The experience of the last years has demonstrated over and over again the importance of the following factors, which are, therefore, included in the new edition of the Program:
>
> 1. The budgetting of school time.
> 2. The definition of the principal types of work in the complex method or system.
> 3. The regulation of school time in accordance with the main type of work.
>
> Planning a School Day: Principle—the highest productiveness with minimum strain.
>
> This can be accomplished by an alternation of types of study. The teacher should plan his day in a hygienic way: difficulty of studies should correspond to the rise and fall of efficiency and strength. This is highest in the middle of the day. Methods of teaching must vary. Recitations may be followed by investigation, then by physical training. The teacher should notice symptoms of tiredness and change his plans accordingly. Some schools do not offer 35 minutes lunch periods. Children miss hot luncheons and cannot concen-

trate on their fifth lesson (this was proven in the pre-revolutionary time).

The maximum is achieved on Tuesdays and Wednesdays. Therefore, the most serious work should be done then. Thursday should be filled with work in the open (excursions, etc.). In the urban school Thursday is a "club day." In a rural school there should be special "club hours," if the school has not organized a club. Saturday should have four hours only with the least amount of home work. The child should be absolutely free on the day of rest.

That the reader may get the setting in which the Health Complex is developed, the titles of the other complexes are given just as they occur in the Program, without detail, except for the time estimate.

The reader must remember that this is a Russian program, to fit Russian conditions.

Health Complex from the Program for the First Grade (8-12 Years)*

RURAL SCHOOLS

First Year

1. First days in the school (10 days). (See p. 72.)
2. Autumn activity of the family (21 days).
3. Protection of Health (12 days).

Diseases of children and of their parents. Contagions.

Are children properly dressed for the fall

* Note that only the Health Complex has been fully translated. The others are named merely, with the detail of the time element only, in order to give the setting in which the Health Complex is developed.

weather? Height and weight. Cleanliness of hands, face, head, and clothing.

Means of protecting children's health in school.

Cooperation of the family and school in the problems of health (questions of sleep, food, shoes, clothes.)

Supervision of health during outdoor plays.

Explanation: The autumn with its bad weather almost invariably brings sickness into school (coughs and colds). The school should, therefore, concentrate the attention of the pupils on health. Teacher should collect facts—for example, absence of a child due to a cold; another one kept at home because of bad weather. The facts will impress the minds of the children.

The theme begins with the question of sickness in the family.

The purpose of that theme is *to begin and to develop thoroughly continuous work in the regulation of child's behavior in school, in the family, and outdoors for the protection of health, and, also, to develop a first contact with the pupil's family for the sake of their further cooperation with the school.*

Teacher should bring to his pupils the following correlations: (a) Health depends upon cleanliness; (b) Everybody should be clean.

These results should be the cornerstone to the work in the school and in the home of the child. The child must act at home as he is taught in school: to open windows, to wash hands before meals, to sweep floors without spreading dust, etc. This involves the understanding by the parents of the general aim of the school.

The school cannot solve the problems of sleep, nourishment, and clothing without proper cooperation with the child's home.

Methods: Material for this complex has been gathered by children from the time of their admission in the very organization of the work in the school. For example, the sanitation of classrooms and personal hygiene. The last should be the continuation of child's home life. Children must be made to observe the following facts: location of dust when swept with dry mop; source of dust in the classrooms; actions of a person who breathes in dust (cough, sneeze, hiccoughs); symptoms due to closed doors and windows (headaches, faster heart beats, difficult breathing); relief from the above symptoms when out in the fresh air. Teacher should help children to realize these phenomena and establish the connection between them.

Children should define their conception of the human body: hear the heart beat and locate the heart, define functions of all parts of head and face; examine and compare a dirty and a clean skin. The result should be expressed in sanitary rules in school and at home.

This work must be connected with children's organization: censors for cleanliness in school; supervision of the practice of the regulations; work of a teacher in pupil's family. The work should be continued beyond the limits of the complex, based upon children's observations, or upon special experiments to attract pupil's attention. For example:—In case of scabies, children should be shown the parasite under the skin by means of a magnifying glass before and after the use of green

soap. This can be followed by a talk on contagions, causes, spreading, and prevention of epidemics.

(Celebration of the October Revolution—3 days.)

4. Preparation for the winter and winter work (12 days).

(Lenin Day—3 days.)

5. Life and work during the winter (61 days).
6. Symptoms of spring and preparation for spring work (24 days).

(Celebration of the First of May—3 days.)

7. Children's participation in spring activities (24 days).
8. School Exhibition (3 days).

Second Year

1. Child's life and work during summer and the beginning of autumn work in school (10 days).
2. Autumn labor in the village (24 days).

(Our Participation in the Celebration of the October Revolution—3 days.)

3. Protection of Health at home and in the village (18 days).

Preparation for a physical examination: knowledge of the functions of the external organs of the human body; height and weight in comparison with the figures of the previous year; number

of ill members in the school district collected by the children (by means of a questionnaire). Physical examination and making a list of the sick and diseased in the school district for the doctor. Discussion of the results of medical examination—developing means to protect health in school (individual treatment of children: heart cases are exempt from heavy occupation; pupils with poor sight are transferred to the first row).

Precautions at home and in the community: Criticism of homes as to light, air, sanitation; hygiene of the food, sleep, house work, home routine. Sanitation of back yards, village streets, condition of drinking water. Clean and polluted water. Solution and turbid water. Filtration. Increase of solubility by heat. Boiling. Evaporation. Achievements of the rural sanitary communion. What could be accomplished by the Selsoviet (Rural Council), Pioneers, Consomol in order to improve sanitation of back yards, streets and squares. Establishing connections with the doctor and *feldtcher* (doctor's aid, male nurse with two years of Medical School). School correspondence with other schools about their health programs.

Explanation: Purpose of the theme: (a) Keeping up with work at school and home to bring the health campaign out in the community and make pupils realize its importance. (b) To establish necessary connections with public institutions of the village, with the physician and the feldtcher, and also get in contact with other schools to exchange experiences and for the cooperative work.

(c) To define according to children's ability the health work in the village.

Principle of the theme: Protection of health of an individual home depends upon the health of a community as a whole.

Method: Give elementary knowledge of the human body; meaning of air, water, heat, and light for human life. Lesson on anatomy may be connected with physical examination in the following way:

Let children examine their own skin, calling attention to the pores. If school possesses a magnifying glass, examine both cleansed and dirty skin.

Examine the ribs of one another; find their origin; touch the spine; listen to the heart beat; feel the pulse; compare different persons. Repeat the same after a run.

Lesson on respiration. Observations on the rise and fall of the chest or abdomen, according to the type of breathing. Same after a run. Ask children to tell from memory how they felt after being hurt in the thorax.

By means of recitations, diagrams, and pictures inform children as to the location and function of the chief internal organs. *Give only a general impression of the human body.*

Experiments with water: (1) Causes and manner of pollution of drinking water in wells, ponds, rivers (get a jar with clear water and put in solubles). (2) Demonstrate the filtration of water through crushed coal, sand, cotton, and paper; why water in covered wells is less polluted than in

ponds, and why it is always clear in springs. (3) Difference in taste between soft and hard water (softening of lime water, filtration of lime solutions, evaporation of salt, rain water). (4) Difference between inhaled and exhaled air (burning a stick in a jar filled with CO_2). Ask the children to tell from memory how they felt sleeping with their head covered. Harm of sleeping together, covering of the head, tightly closed room; importance of ventilation. Ask children if cold air is as harmful as one used to believe. Where would they be comfortable, if warmly dressed: in a hot room or out in the cold air. (Put a mouse in a flask and watch it act with a tight cork over and without. This is usually very impressive.)

Also discuss the gases used in the last war, etc.

Do not give too many explanations: they only confuse children. Let pupils arrive at their own conclusions.

4. Life and work of a village during winter (60 days).

(Lenin Day—3 days.)

5. Spring and its first activities (24 days).

(First of May—3 days.)

6. Spring labor in the village (27 days).

Exhibition: The results of the school year and plans for the summer.

Third Year

Results of summer work and organization (6 days).

I. The Rural Community.

1. Crops and cultivation of agricultural products (24 days).
2. Village and vicinity (12 days).
3. Local trade (9 days).
4. Peasants' Organizations.

Improvement of conditions of health. The old inheritance: quackery, midwives, harmful influence of the church, improper care of infants (cradles, poppy seed, nipples, etc.). Proper treatment by physicians, feldtchers, trained midwives. Protection of mother and child. Nurseries and playgrounds. Participation of the school in the community health program.

II. Village and town (18 days); trade and exchange (9 days).
Plants and factories (24 days).
City life (9 days).
Cultural relations between city and village (9 days).

III. Spring and Peasants' Labor:
Work on the soil (24 days).
Water reservoirs (6 days).
Forests, fields and beehives (25 days).

School and First of May

Explanation: To understand the efforts of the Soviet Government to make the peasants' community healthy, prosperous, and educated.

Fourth Year

Summer results and plans for the coming school year.

1. Federation of Soviet Republics: Soil, climate, agriculture, nature, agriculture in distant lands, the extreme north of Russia, south of Russia, industry. Organization of U.S.S.R.
2. Protection of workmen by the Soviet Government.

. . . Number of hospitals and physicians in the country. Care of the population by the Soviet Government.

Necessary information on how to keep well: Tissues; structure and function of the muscles; skeleton; alimentary canal and assimilation of food.

Breathing and expiration of carbon dioxide by lungs; function of the thorax. Heart and blood vessels. Elimination through skin and the urinary tract.

Organs of sense; significance of nerve tissue and brain. Coverings of the brain.

Summary of the results of the four years of work for the promotion of health.

Discussion of the health work in the community after graduation.

General results of the four years with explanatory notes: Exhibitions.

Complex of U.S.S.R.:

Sub-theme "Earth as a globe"	12 days
Climate, nature, agriculture in Russia and foreign lands	32
The far North	12
The far South	12
Industry of U.S.S.R.	36
Formation of U.S.S.R.	20
Government of U.S.S.R.	5
Foreign relations	10

Explanation of the Complex: "Improvement of the condition of labor by the Soviet Government."

Synthesize previous work, and define the main problems of the country. Prove them by practical data, giving a few of the most important statistics. They must show the extent to which are satisfied the first needs of people (shelter, trade, tools, hospitals, physicians, number of illiterate and literate, schools and libraries). . . .

In studying Public Health, teacher should use the vital statistics of the country compared to those abroad and in the pre-revolutionary time. Also the number of citizens per physician at home and in other countries.*

Certain measures of Soviet Government to promote health: prevention of disease, sanitation campaigns, campaigns against epidemics, vaccination, etc.

At this phase of program, connection should be made with the doctor or feldtcher for the use of his knowledge; also to help him in his work in the village.

* These comparisons are not for self-glorification, but to show how much more must be done in Russia.

Each pupil should develop an active desire to prevent diseases. Teacher must complement the results of the three previous years with new knowledge of the human body. Information should be general without too many details. Some of it will be given in the complex of Natural Science.

Children should see some of organs of birds or other animals. Use drawings of the human body. The comparative study of the human and animal organs is of a great value, for the discovery of similar structures brings children towards the understanding of the origin of species and helps them to develop a materialistic ideology. The close of the year's program should be made up of discussions of practical work, past and future.

Number of schooldays for the above complex 7-18.

Discussion of the final results will require two weeks.

The main object of the theme: understanding of the great achievements of the Soviet Government with the realization of a tremendous task in the future, of unsolved problems and unsatisfied needs.

Pupil must leave school realizing all the possibilities within the power of the Soviets, and his duty to take part in the constructive work of the country in close contact with public organizations.

Collection of materials for the sub-themes can be done by groups. But the final theme (general results) should be discussed by the whole class. Preparatory work should be done in connection with representatives of helpful organizations. For

the final meeting, speakers may be chosen from each group to carry its own sub-theme.

Collection of materials for the sub-themes can be done by groups. But the final theme (general results) should be discussed by the whole class. Preparatory work should be done in connection with representatives of helpful organizations. For the final meeting, speakers may be chosen from each group to carry its own sub-theme.

Purpose of the final theme: desire to apply knowledge in the community and eagerness for education, not only for personal but also for public welfare.

Program for the Third Year of a Rural Three Years School (See p. 55)

1. Work of a peasant.
2. Work of a laborer.
3. Union of peasants and laborers.
4. Promotion of health (as above).
5. Spring work of the group.

Explanatory notes: The compilation of two years' work into a program of one was achieved by concentration upon most important material, and eliminating all detailed work.

There are three most important complexes: *Work of Peasants, Work of Laborers, Union of Both.* Each one contains two main processes: (1) Study of children's impressions of the surrounding world; (2) Acquiring knowledge of the other worlds.

The amount of knowledge of the anatomy is equivalent to the third year of programs of 1924.

Theme	*School Days*
Summer results and organization work	6
Sub-theme: Crops	18
Rural Community	10
Agriculture in the outside world	18
Labor	30
Labor Union	33
Public Health	24
Spring activity	37

(Approximate Total—175 days)

Ideally, the rural elementary school, like the urban elementary, are four-year schools. The Commissariat of Education wisely builds the program so that it will function effectively whether the child attends three or four years.

What follows is the last year of the four years' program. It will be interesting to compare this final year with the preceding final year of the three years' course.

Fourth Year

Natural Science:

1. Elementary knowledge of physical geography.
2. Elementary knowledge of physics and chemistry.
3. Elementary biology, anatomy, and physiology.

Underlying principle: Constant evolution due to universal laws and not to divine power.

Efforts of Soviet Government to improve living Conditions of Workmen.

Put emphasis upon diseases of skin: cuts, abscesses, ringworm, scabies.

Do not teach the structure of skin, but be sure that they know the function: elimination through skin. When is elimination increased and how? Pathological condition and doctor's treatment.

Structure of a muscle tissue; ligaments. Examine meat. Feel principal bones of our body. Omit the smallest. Distinguish between the skull and jaws—the lower one is movable. Do not teach the number of ribs and vertebrae. Notice on the leg of a calf or a pig the uniting of bones. In defining bones of extremities begin from pelvis and shoulder (easier to count).

Question children as to the function of muscles and bones.

In teaching digestion, discuss nutrition: food of peasants—animal, vegetable, mineral. Which prevails? Take written regulations and compare them to nutrition of a pupil's family. Do not discuss vitamins nor enzymes in the First Grade, but tell them the nutritive value of foods and its importance for a working organism. Call pupil's attention to the uses and harm of alcohol. Study the digestive process in the open stomach of a calf or a pig. Watch food in your own mouth, showing the importance of teeth. Count teeth. Make an account of decayed teeth among the pupils and impress the importance of oral hygiene.

Children should decide finally that the liquid products of food remain in the body, and the undigested particles are eliminated by way of the colon.

Notice location of internal organs in a dissected animal.

Teach supply of the body by blood vessels, but do not stop with circulation. Teach them to find and count pulse. Discuss the difference after work and play, also which type of work is harmful for the heart.

Examine the heart of a cow, or a calf. Teacher may tell his pupils about assimilation of food by the blood and supply to all the organs.

Measure (and compare) the chest at inspiration and expiration. Types of people with weak and strong thorax. Conclusion about correct breathing, correct posture, and walking; regularity of work and rest. Repeat experiment with CO_2.

Work of functions, but omit the anatomy of organs of sense.

Examine cow's eye.

Concentrate on eye sight—with one eye, with both eyes, distance from the book, care of eyes.

Compare our external ear with that of an animal (horse, cat). Who hears better? Remark on difficulty in treating ear diseases and emphasize care of ears.

Study the nerves of a dissected frog. Give talk on man's nervous system, omitting details. Specify significance of brain. Compare scalp to protective coverings of other organs.

This work should bring the child to the realization of similarity between man and animal. Practical discussion of similar organs will help more than mere lecture.

Conversation on contagions (if not discussed in the third year). Put more emphasis on typhus

fever, typhoid fever, dysentery, cholera. In studying about malaria mosquito, fly, and louse, the children will learn both the causes and the prevention of contagions. Invite the nearby physician with his microscope (if available) to show various bacteria. If not, use the lantern.

Organize the graduating class into a body to promote public health.

Instructions as to the compilation of final results.

1. Names of pupils in the group.
2. Group diary:

Date	Number of Children Pres.	Hours of Study	Subject of Studies	Notes

3. Meetings of pupils to report on results.
4. Individual achievements of pupils.
5. Parents' conferences, school report to the community.

Exhibition.

URBAN SCHOOLS

First Year

Quotations showing differences between the work in rural and urban schools:

Health Protection. This will begin as in the rural school. . . . Hot luncheons in school and organized help for the poor pupils. . . . City life of adults is in direct opposition to the normal regime of a child (late meals, late hours at night).

Children sleep poorly or not enough, eat between meals, fall asleep hungry.

School should bring a normal routine into the child's home life.

Some parents take children out at night (movies, theaters, friends) and let them participate in the evening's pastime. They must be told (carefully, tactfully) the harm of such a life.

The theme should be brought up at the time of physical examinations.

Celebration of May First

School Exhibit. Demonstration of drawings, which show children's accomplishment in the promotion of health at home (wash hands before meals, clean teeth, open windows in spring, removal of rubbish).

Second Year

Protection of Health in a City. Begins as in a rural school. . . . Influence of summer vacation on children's health. . . . Increasing activity of the sanitary commission or the sanitary unit. . . . Quality of drinking water from well, pipes, and river. . . . Three types of water. Health Institutions: hospital, drug store, home aid; their resources for the benefit of the population.

Organized sanitary work in school: school medicine box; connections with physician and health institutions; local work on problems of the department of health.

Explanation. Teach personal hygiene. Function of city institutions and their help to the family and

school. Connections with public institutions should give the children necessary social skills: how to approach the doctor, how to act in a hospital, etc. Special attention should be brought to the fighting of the past: religious prejudices, alcoholism, ignorance of adults in the bringing up of children, etc.

Parents, especially mothers, should attend parents' meetings. Children of the second group are admitted into the school sanitation organizations.

The following theme, *Life and Work in a City*, is a natural result of the Health Complex—discussion of physical needs.

Third Year

I. Our Town. . . .

4. Cultural life of a city.

Health Campaign. Work of the doctor, hospital, home aid, public means of preventing epidemics. Rest Homes and Sanatoriums. Planting of trees in the streets; cleansing of squares, streets, etc.

PHYSICAL TRAINING

Purpose, Problems and Forms of Physical Training in the First Grade

1. To assist in the physical development of the child.
2. To develop hygienic habits.
3. To give necessary knowledge in reference to sanitation, hygiene.

4. To develop the organizing power of the child: solidarity and revolutionary self-consciousness.

I. Natural Factors (sun, air, water) and hygienic habits.

1. First aid in: cuts, hemorrhage, fractures, ptomaine poisoning, poisoning from fumes, snake, bee, and mad dog bites. In the latter event a child is given free passage to the nearest Pasteur Station.
2. Artificial Respiration.
3. Normal Rest and Work.
4. The School Drug Store.
5. Report each term for each student, and another for each group, on the hygienic habits of the children, under the auspices of the Sanitary Commissioner—the results to be read at a mass meeting of children and parents. In making these reports the plus sign may denote excellence; the minus sign, deficiency. The following details are necessary.

Morning Toilet: Face; neck; hands; thorax; feet; hair.

Day Habits: Cleansing hands after meals, after work; use of the toilet.

Evening Toilet: Face; hands; feet.

Hygiene of Clothes: Change of underwear weekly; change of bed linen every 2 weeks; airing clothes.

Hygiene of Nutrition: Cleansing hands before meals; cleansing mouth after meals; eating slowly and in silence.

Respiration: Breathing through the nose; through the mouth.
Hygiene of Behavior: (Habits to be cured or prevented): Biting finger nails; keeping finger in mouth; spitting on the floor; spreading dirt.
Posture at Work: Straight, bent.
Out-of-Door Life: Fresh air for 1, 2, or 3 hours.
Bathing: Sponging body—morning and evening; hot bath weekly.

II. Action Plays—improvised according to the books accepted by Commissariat of Education.
III. Gymnasium.
IV. Sports.
V. Medical and Pedagogical Control of the Physical Training.

1. Investigation of physical development and state of health of all the students, and of the biological characteristics of a given group.
2. Selection, purpose and periods of physical exercises according to the age, physical development, and state of health of the student body.
3. Supervision of physical training.
4. Medical control.
5. Training in hygiene and sanitation.
6. Determination of the influence of physical exercises upon child's organism by means of physical examination and anthropometric measurements.
7. Lesson in first aid.

In addition, read especially p. 194 in the next program on *Dramatic Work.*

The curriculum for the rural schools includes matters that are vital to the peasant. Quite remarkably, school work is linked to practical work both in the school and in the home. The children themselves are very important factors in community work both in education and in sanitation.

Dramatic Work from the Program for the First Grade (8-12 Years)

URBAN AND RURAL SCHOOLS

First Year

1. Free creative play.
2. Free recitation of children about themselves and their strongest impressions. Demonstration of the above in gesture and movement.
3. Active games without words with definite movements (change in position: running, jumping, pauses, overcoming obstacles, marching in squares, lines and masses). Coordination of individual movements with movements of partners.
4. Games with words. Speed test: combinations, questions and answers.
5. Objective play: with rope, hand made balls, rods, class room furniture. Training in gesture: deftness, economy of motion, expedience, completeness.

6. Vocal plays. Dancing with definite text and rhythm. Choral dancing.
7. Personification of animals; doll playhouse (made by children out of remnants, exercising their fantasy and power of observation).
8. Celebration of school and country holidays.
9. School exhibition, results of the first year work; dolls, playthings, rods, balls, etc., all made by pupils.

Explanatory Note. The instructor should bear in mind that he is dealing with eight- and nine-year-old children, the product of modern life, who know the pre-revolutionary epoch from their elders only, whose interests, imagination and highly developed exploratory instincts have their roots and material in the environment.

Peasants' children come to school directly from home, with a practical experience and large amount of energy and emotional strength, due to contact with nature. The teacher should study his group and the dramatic ability of the children through contact with nature. Children of their age express themselves very freely; they are very active and cooperative, and "dramatize" easily. An understanding teacher can quickly get a mental picture of a child and his home. All the abnormal habits and old prejudices are easily discovered.

The instructor should modify the activities of the children in a healthy way, supplying useful and amusing material, but leaving them freedom to improvise.

Creative plays of the children will present quite naturally the contents of this year's complexes.

Examples: recitation with dramatization on the following:

Forest: (nature of trees, bushes, mushrooms, climbing up trees, being lost, etc.); *marshes; river; field; storm on a river* (scene of drawing of a boat); *storm in woods; thunder and lightning* (dramatization of forest fires); *rain* ("Songs of rain"); *Recitations on domestic pets and their habits; dramatizing different animals; dramatizing a family; dramatizing field work; spring and summer festivities.*

These all come under the complex *The Life of the Child before the School Term.* The complex of *Health* can be worked out with the help of play. Motto, "Cleanliness is the first step toward beauty." Play: "Clean and Unclean," playing doctors, nurses, and patients. Drawings of diseases. *October Celebration:* Lantern pictures, doll, and screen theater (with adults).

Autumn work: Scene of cutting cabbage, etc. Dramatizing different craftsmen. Dramatization of nature in autumn and winter. Dramatization of a peasant's winter evening (weaving, telling stories, playing harmonica, dancing). Dramatization of a ride with a storm and a wolf fight. Models and screen pictures may be shown.

Playing with hand-made dolls has great significance. Children exercise their speech and personify their own thoughts and tastes. Gesture and motion must be primitive and definite. Teacher can observe his group and at the same time carry on his talk on the subject.

Folk and choral dancing should be encouraged as a creative moment in the life of the people.

Children should be trained in expressive and simple gesture. They must not imitate adults.

Dressing with hand-made clothes is quite useful.

Plays with speed tests develop child ability and sense of humor.

Each object may be subject of play. Example: rope to forming the space—road, chain, etc.

Everybody should play. Timid children become very active as a rule. Most of it should be done in the open air, for hygienic purposes, and also to attract pre-school children.

Second Year

1. Continuation of last year's work.
2. Preparative work for the doll theater (stage with shadows, carton dolls, marionettes, Punch and Judy, etc.). Improvisation of short scenes by children, making of dolls, masks, costumes, decorative work.
3. Plays with a theme. Developing of a scenario. Improvisation of the text. Exercise in dialogue, expression in action and words. Prolonged play, preferably in the open. Objectives: Ability to act, observe, organize; understanding of own part in making a collective play. Preparation of theater costumes, masks, shields, swords, daggers, arrows, signets, bands, etc.
4. Pantomime improvised by children (preferably with music). Choose an entertaining subject, with opportunity for expressive acting and for conscious appreciation of rhythm by the children.

Explanatory Note: Prolonged playing may be done outside the school grounds. Example: Building a camp with dramatization of adventures to develop power of observation and alertness. Children learn how to organize. It brings out their instinct of imitation and with it a complete transformation. Visitation of work shops, market, station, etc. This will give new material for dramatization in connection with the complex. Child should be shown regular marionette and shadow plays to stimulate his imagination.

The teacher may start his doll theater by making pupils cut dolls out of carton or wood, giving them certain characteristics. Children paint dolls; each personifies one doll, improvising his speech or playing a certain worked out part. Speech must be short and funny, movements expressive and rhythmic.

Third Year

1. Enlargement of the program of last year.
2. Individual acting of a group. Fixation scheme of definite motions by groups (circle, cut line, an eight, etc.).
3. Charades, proverbs, etc. Collective noises, cheering, laughter. Comical elements (folk songs, buffoons, etc.).
4. Staging with participation of all the willing children.
   Staging of poems, animal stories, national fairy tales, fables.
   Elementary characters, types and contrasts.

Staging of historical events, adventures, and geographical material.

Staging of abstracts from classics and contemporary writers (modern life, civil war, revolutionary holidays).

Staging of children's impressions of the surrounding world.

5. Selection of a subject and development of scenarios by the whole group together (first of a small scene, then of a dramatic play with a plot, general events, and a conclusion).
6. Visits to schools, Pioneer and Comsomols clubs on various holidays, manifestations, anniversaries, etc. Excursions to village schools for revolutionary celebrations, seasonal festivities. Visits of peasant children to urban schools.
7. Excursion to a theater for children, (with regular artists), moving pictures, circus, concerts, preceded and followed by discussion of the subject (urban school only).

Fourth Year

1. Enlargement of the previous work.
2. Collective compilation of a play according to children's scenario. Choice of a subject: (1) theme of the complex as illustration of a certain course; (2) verbal or written story; (3) revolutionary event; (4) school event; (5) free theme.
3. Compilation of a scenario for a school play. Laconic speech, simplicity of the subject, colorful acting, clearness of situation, crea-

tive moments, mutual responsibility. Participation of a spectator.

4. Story telling for children. Exercising children in artistic recitation of prose and poems. Importance of good diction.
5. Organization of a living newspaper (contents, presentation, effects).
6. Programs and advertisement of a play.
7. Organizing juniors for a revolutionary holiday.

Explanatory Notes for the Third and Fourth Grade: From the state of play to the state of presentation, and, finally, to the school play. This will indicate that dramatization of the revolutionary holidays should take first place, two to three, each year.

The theme must have sociological value, and yet be really artistic. It should contain elements of heroic struggle, be humorous, and stimulate normal emotions.

Artificial tendencies and mere moralizing should be avoided. (Robin Hood is on the list of accepted plays. Most of the plays serve for propaganda, e.g., Tom Sawyer.)

Children should learn how to act for themselves without imitating actors. The public value of plays should be emphasized.

A regular stage is not necessary except for a large audience. Some acting can be done in the open. Decorations and costumes are very important to stimulate the interest of children. The first plays must be staged with school equipment rather than new things designed for the purpose.

This permits the children to develop various movements.

There must be one characteristic detail (a tree for the forest). The rest will be supplied by the imagination. The costumes should satisfy the need of the children for transformation.

All the odds and ends may be used. One detail will serve the purpose, e.g., an apron to indicate a workman.

The maximum of expression is achieved by a semi-mask.

Children should be taught how to announce their play when given outside the school.

The living newspaper is an organ for propaganda. A current event may be told by means of a scene, e.g., a comical old man may talk on radio, aviation, etc.

Children's speech must be clear and persuasive.

Social Studies from the Program for the Second Cycle of the Second Grade (16-18 Years)

(Equivalent in age to the children in the last two years of our high schools; in maturity, to those in our Junior College, or to those in the last two years of a European Gymnasium).

This is the first publication of the Program, but the work itself was inaugurated in 1925 in experimental schools.

Problems of the Second Cycle: 75 percent of the graduating classes will not be able to enter a higher school. Therefore, the second cycle must give fundamental knowledge of special subjects, so that graduates may enter a vocation after a short

period of preparative training. The Second Cycle is *not* a professional, but a polytechnic school course, giving the *tendencies* of certain vocations. The special material must be chosen and taught in connection with general education of a child, because the latter comes first in the Unified Labor School. The problem of vocational guidance is not solved fully in these programs, because of lack of experience and the immense difficulties in the way.

All the teachers should concentrate on the knowledge of popular literature necessary either for a librarian or a liquidator of illiteracy.

The chemist must teach the industrial application of his science, etc. This should be accompanied by practical work, one of the most important methods of transforming our schools into true labor schools.

The contents of the programs are compartively new, without precedent either in European or in American schools, except for mathematics and physics in general. These are static subjects and, therefore, already thoroughly standardized. The courses in chemistry and natural science, however, have been radically changed, the number of hours increased and the programs enlarged, for example —industrial chemistry, theory of evolution, etc.

To help the teachers of political science, special books will be published [that they may be *au courant* with the developments of natural science of interest to their pupils].

Teachers of literature and language should be well acquainted with the "Marxist Critic," also. This course will be given in connection with political science. These programs are compulsory to

a certain extent. The educational work of previous years was hindered by the variety of programs, rather than by lack of them. These are official, therefore, for the next two to three years. By that time we shall have definite results to aid in making a more final program.

These institutions have assisted in the making of this program: the Bio-station for Young Naturalists; the Communal School of the Commissariat; these Experimental Schools: Radischev's and Malachor's Memorial; the Seventh Experimental Station, the Institute of Extra-Mural Methods; the Institute of School Methods; the Central Pedagogical Laboratory; the Leningrad State Council on Methods; Moscow Central Institute of Physical Training.

General Subjects	Hours per Week		Total Hours
	8th Year	*9th Year*	*(2 Years)*
Political Science	5	4	306
Russian Language and Literature ..	4	4	272
Mathematics	4	4	272
Natural Science	3	3	204
Chemistry	2	2	136
Physics	3	3	204
Foreign Languages	2	2	136
Art	2	1	102
Music (Vocal and Orchestra)	2	1	102
Physical Training ..	2	1	102
Totals 29		25	1,836

SPECIAL SUBJECTS			
(*The totals here include the totals of the General Subject, and are approximate only*)			
Pedagogy			
Labor School Division	9	12	2,584
Pre-school Division....	8	12	2,550
Political Training	9	12	2,584
Cooperation			
Agricultural Cooperatives	9	13	2,620
Consumers Cooperatives	9	13	2,620
Soviet Administration			
Finance and Taxation	7	13	2,516
Insurance	7	13	2,516
Expedition of Business	7	11	2,448

The above are official figures. Note the inconsistency of these numbers, as, for example, the similar products obtained from different factors in the totals of *Political Training* and both types of *Cooperatives*. In a new program, such as this, the hours are approximated only, awaiting the revision of experience.

After this general layout, detailed programs are given for the teaching of natural science, including evolution and some eugenics ("every man has a right to be well born") and political science. The Physical Training Program includes swimming and rowing. Because of its more general interest we have chosen

POLITICAL SCIENCE

Part One: History of Western Europe

I. *Feudalism*

1. Economics of this epoch. Predominance of Agriculture. Primitive technic. Natural character of the whole economy. Isolation

and limitations of the market. Condition of crafts.

2. Social classes under feudalism. Origin of the ruling class and its social foundation—land. Feudal hierarchy. Evolution of a free rural community into a class of dependent peasants. Various means to enlarge this class.
3. Feudal state organization of land owners. Difficulties. Necessity for a stronger organization of the ruling power: religious—church and holy orders; military—knighthood.
4. Ideology of feudalism. Its religious character. Feudal religion: attributing worldly relationships to heaven. "Heroic inaction" the main feature of feudal psychology. Literature a glorification of a hero, representing the ruling class.
5. General characteristics similar in every feudal state in different countries and across the ages, but on the same level of economical development. France, as the most typical. Feudalism in Russia. Its present forms in the Far East.

II. *Town*

1. Development of economic factors. Growth of exchange and trade during feudalism. Evolution of exchange markets into towns. Merchants' guild and unions of craftsmen. Their self-organization.
2. Class division in town. Upper, the patrician; middle, merchants and craftsmen;

lower, craftsmen's helpers and un-organized craftsmen. City organization.

3. Class Struggle in Towns:
   a. Town against Feudalism—France.
   b. Within a town: middle and lower against the upper—Novgorod, German towns, ancient cities; lower against the middle class—Flanders, Florence, Novgorod.
4. Urban culture higher than feudal culture. Craftsmen as creators of urban culture. Protest against feudalism. Heresy, satire; novel as apotheosis of a citizen.

III. *Commercial Capitalism.*

IV. *Industrial Capitalism and Middle Class Democracy.*

V. *Utopian vs. Scientific Socialism.*

VI. *National Labor Movements.*
   a. Failure of the Second International.
   b. The Third International.

	Material		*Time*	
I.	Feudalism 4	weeks	16	hours
II.	Town 4	"	16	"
III.	Commercial Capitalism 8	"	32	"
IV.	Industrial Capitalism, etc. 2	"	8	"
V.	Utopian vs. Scientific Socialism 6	"	24	"
VI.	National Labor Movements 8	"	32	"
		32		128

Part Two: Russian History

I. Middle class liberalism and radicalism in Russia.
II. Revolution of the people.
III. and IV. Revolution of the proletariat.
V. Russian Imperialism.

Part Three: The Peasant Age

I. Socialistic Development as a Historical Epoch.
II. Lenin's Theory of the Dictatorship of Proletariat.
III. Principles of Political Economy in Soviet Russia.
IV. Elements of Socialism in Economics.
V. Private and State Capitalism.
VI. Patriarchal and Private Economy and their Evolution.
VII. Soviet Regulation of the Relations between Various Divisions of Economy.
VIII. General Outlines of Soviet Economics.
IX. "Class Against Class"—and U.S.S.R. as a support of the World's Revolution.

1. Discuss and analyze various stages of the international struggle of laborers and of oppressed nations.

POLITICAL ECONOMY

First Talk: Briefly capitulate the work of the first cycle: economic dependency of nations, international distribution of labor, forms of econom-

ic unions. Emphasize international commerce, etc.

Theme 1. Organization of trade and regulation of commerce.

Theme 2. Production and exchange in a capitalistic system.

a. Present forms of major and minor production in industry.
b. Agriculture.
c. Commerce.

Theme 3. Exploitation by the capitalists.

Theme 4. Distribution of profits among manufacturers.

Theme 5. Accumulation of capital and its crisis.

Theme 6. Principal inconsistencies of the capitalistic system.

Theme 7. International economy during imperialism.

a. From free competition to the monopoly of capitalists.
b. Finance and imperialism.
c. International economy during imperialism and the fall of capitalism.

Explanatory Notes: The difficulties of forming this program:

1. Lack of experience as to the capacity and contents.
2. Lack of text books.

3. Unpreparedness of teachers.

The program is divided into three parts:

1. History, general and Russian.
2. Problems of the present time (continuation of the first part).
3. Political Economy, taught parallel to History.

The teacher must choose his material according to the children's knowledge from the previous course, giving only most important facts and stages.

The course in industrial geography is omitted because of the sound course in geography of the first cycle. Therefore, teachers of political science may base some of their work on geographical factors. But for the next two years they will have to add instructions in geography because of unsatisfactory progress in previous years.

The distribution of material is approximate only, for the reason discussed above.

EIGHTH YEAR

a. History of Western Europe up to Section VI (Labor Movement, etc.).
b. Political Economy.

NINTH YEAR

a. Section VI.
b. Russian History.
c. Present Age.

Subject	*Eighth Year Hours*	*Ninth Year Hours*
Western Europe	96	32
Russia		40
Political Economy	68	
Present Age		60
	164	132

The last theme, Political Economy, will be better taught, eventually, in the ninth instead of the eighth year.

Notes on History Problems:

1. Generalization of the facts from the course of the first cycle with sociological analysis: Give only moderate amount of economics.
2. Give new facts necessary to understand universal development.
3. Analyze historical processes.

For the next few years, the program must not include the prehistoric era nor the ancient world. However, children should be acquainted with ancient civilizations by means of extra-mural readings with lantern slides. (This will be better than a textbook without illustrations.)

The program includes the so-called "Middle Ages," "Reformation," "Renaissance," "Rationalism," and "Civilization." They should be taught in the following manner:

1. Feudalism as one of the world's phenomena, illustrated by facts from the history of Europe, Russia, Far East, India, China, Japan. The economic system and culture must be

taught together. It will be impossible to cover all these stages. The teacher must use concrete examples to illustrate the general principles of these phenomena.

2. Urban process is the same for ancient, European or Russian town.
3. Beginning of commercial capitalism and geographical discoveries.
4. Revolutions in the epoch of commercial capitalism. Various elements of society involved in revolutions. Do not discuss each one, but analyze the most characteristic ones. Example: Peasants' War in Germany and Revolution in England. Mention some others for the purpose of comparison.
5. Absolutism and oligarchy of a parliament as most typical forms of a capitalistic state. Discuss Louis XIV and England of the eighteenth century. Give examples of the Russian, Austrian, and Prussian absolutism.
6. Culture of commercial capitalism: Success of science, struggle with mysticism, rationalism, materialism, etc. Geographic discoveries and inventions of the eighteenth century. This theme should bring students to an understanding of the industrial development and economic theories of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.
7. The Course in Political Economy will give an idea of the system of capitalism. Middle class democracy should be presented as typical state in the epoch of Industrial Capitalism. The child will know something of European and American constitutions. National problems,

Soviet government. General idea: Middle class democracy is not a protection, but a modified form of exploitation of the masses.

8. In discussing socialism, the teacher should emphasize the close connection between "revolutionary communism" and "scientific socialism."

Russian History is to be taught from the standpoint of preparation for the revolution of 1917.

The teacher must choose brilliant examples to prove the universal law of every historical process: the close connection between economic, political, and social forms, and the foreign policy of a country.

Notes on the "Present Age." Students should understand the two opposite systems of government: capitalism and socialism. They must realize the advantage of the latter, and prepare themselves for the struggle with the first and the upbuilding of U.S.S.R.

The teacher of Political Science must help his pupils (17-18 years old) to find their place in the constructive work of U.S.S.R.

Theme 1. "Socialism as a historical epoch"—2 hours. Introductory talk and generalization of previous course.

Theme 2. Lenin—8 hours.

Theme 3. The teacher should give a clear idea of the state economy at the time of the revolution. Do not give too many statistics. Central theme: to understand the nature of the New Economic Policy ("Nep"), and the reason for accepting it after a period of "military communism." Danger of "Nep" and the means used by the Soviet govern-

ment to overcome it. Transformation of one phenomenon into another should be presented very clearly. It is advisable to compare "Nep" and the problems of revolution in Colonies (with the best students)—10-12 hours.

Theme 4 (6 hours), 5 (6 hours), 6 (2 hours). Discussion of various divisions of state economy, also of Soviet problems: elevation of production, improvement of product and its cheaper production.

Theme 7 (4-6 hours). To explain the regulation of the above factors. Market as a regulator of a capitalistic system. Importance of a State Budget with analysis of Soviet Budget for the past 3-4 years. Comparison with those in Germany and England (revenue, tax, expenditure, army, and navy). Import and export and international commerce.

Theme 8 (4 hours). Synthesis of various divisions of economy. Industrialization. Reconstruction of the whole country. The last period is so vast, that the most important subject is the *dynamics of the class struggle and not the chronological order of international events.*

The students must take active part in the work of Soviets, not merely be prepared for it. Public work connected with special instructions in school (cooperatives, etc.) gives the student his practical training for his future profession.

Additional Quotations from the Programs of 1924 and 1927

These illustrate the differences between the two programs, and are interesting in themselves because they

show the attitude of the school to religion and to capitalism, and to its own country.

FROM THE 1924 PROGRAM, GRADE I, FOURTH YEAR (11-12 YEARS)

Nature	*Work*	*Human Relations*
Appearance of the sky in the day, at night. Rotation of the earth: the seasons; change of day and night. Moon—a satellite of the earth. The principal planets. Eclipse of the sun. Other stars.	Astronomical discoveries and the calendar, in connection with economic realities: agriculture, commerce, navigation.	Dependence of primitive man on nature. The effect on his mind. Religion. Religion as a means of exploitation: slavery, feudalism. Emphasize their connection with religion. Freedom from exploitation and religious slavery—Atheism.

FROM THE 1927 PROGRAM, GRADE I, FOURTH YEAR (11-12 YEARS)

Theme: Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

1. *Earth as a sphere and a conception of climate.*
   Presentation of the earth in the form of a globe and a map with the hemispheres. Causes of alternation of day and night (rotation of the earth around its axis). Causes of the change of seasons (rotation of the earth round the sun). Differences in the heat energy of soil in different zones (equator, poles). Climate zones. Recitations on sun, moon, and stars. Parts of the world. Distribution of land and water. Continents and oceans. Principal seas and rivers of U.S.S.R.
2. *Climate, nature and agriculture in our State.*
   Forests, meadows and the soil in the State. Improvements of local agriculture. Cultiva-

tion of soil in old days: origin of agriculture; life and work of the first ploughman; progress of machinery, general and local. Tractors.

3. *Agriculture in various parts of U.S.S.R.*

Rural communities in Central Russia, Ukraine and Siberia. Breeding of cattle on the steppes; nomads, the transition to a settled mode of life.

Climate and soil in Turkestan. Cultivation of cotton. Irrigation of the land. Illustrations from old and modern life of local inhabitants.

4. *Agriculture in Foreign Lands.*

Work of Chinese in rice plantations; technique of an American farmer; agricultural progress in Belgium, Denmark, etc.

5. *Northern States of U.S.S.R.*

Exploration of Arctic lands. Voyages of Nansen and Amundsen. Discovery of North and South Poles. Climate, nature, and animal life at the North. Northern trade (reindeers, polar bears, fishing, seals, and whales). Life of Esquimos. Soviet organizations to cultivate Northern population. Trade in the Northern forests, one of the main resources of U.S.S.R.

6. *South of Russia.*

Deserts and oases of Russia. Voyage in a desert. Camels. Climate of the desert zone. Southern mountains. Permanent snow, glaciers, landslides. Vegetation in different mountains. Voyages and trade.

7. *Industry in U.S.S.R.*

Resources of the soil (iron, coal, salt). Industrial centers for various mineral products.

Work in different mines. (Don Basin Coal, etc.). Formation of mountains. Degree of heat under the ground. Volcanoes and earthquakes. Part of metal industry in the economy of U.S.S.R.

Central industrial district (Moscow, etc.). Textile work. Sources of energy: motion of machines (wood, coal, water, kerosene). Construction of the largest electric plants. Experiments with electric energy and its uses (heat, light, telephone, radio).

8. *Formation of U.S.S.R.*

Feudalism in Russia. Liberation of peasants (changes in the life of landlords and peasants). Imperialism as the government of landlords and capitalists, the Czar being the richest landowner.

Religion and church for the service of the rich. Struggle between capital and labor. Political organization of laborers. Illustrations from the history of Russian revolution (illegal publications, demonstrations, etc.). Persecutions of the Czar. Main episodes of 1905. Its failure because of lack of coordination of the revolutionary element. War of 1914 and consequent ruin of the country. Increase of revolutionary activities. Fall of Czarism in 1917. Provisional government representing interests of the old ruling class, continuation of war. Work of Lenin and the Bolshevik party. Government of peasants and soldiers. First Soviet edicts: peace, nationalization of land and trade, 8 hour day.

Civil war (with main episodes). Foreign

capital to help Russian landlords. Victory of the Red Army, army of the workmen.

Soviet Government: Central Executive Committee, etc. Federal republics of the Union. Compare relationship between various populations of Russia during the old regime and the Soviet Government.

Participation of masses in the building of their country. Election laws as compared to those of an imperial system. Difference in the responsibility of the old and new government employees.

Communist party and her demands. Lenin, her leader. Growth of Pioneers and Comsomol.

Red Navy and Army to protect the rights of workmen. Comparison between the Czar's and the Red soldiers.

Soviet foreign policy. Connection between Russia and other countries. Their capitals (towns).

Soviet export (raw material) and import (machinery).

Chief ports of the Soviet Union.

Recitation on famous travellers (discovery of America). Continents, oceans, seas.

Government forms in foreign lands.

Connection between foreign and Russian workmen. Who organized the international campaign of laborers? Meaning of the Communist International.

Exploitation of colonies by capitalists. Soviet relationship with colonial population. Recitations on the struggle of colonies for their independence.

Methods: This theme begins with a talk to collect children's impressions of the form and size of the earth. Written problems: "What was I told at home about the form of the earth?" Compare ideas of old and young people. Teacher should give a clear idea of the subject, based on observations that are accessible in the first grade (horizon with the child in the center, increase in space if viewed from a height). Observation of the rising and setting sun (observe in connection with an object, as a steeple). Make much use of travel readings.

Observe change of day and night, apparent motion of the sun and stars. Question the causes of the motion of stars: because of rotation of the earth or movement of the sky. It is hard to give the children concrete explanation of the earth's axis. But they will be greatly impressed by the stories about martyrs of science (Bruno, Galileo). Direction of the motion of the earth may be discovered through the recitation of children: which direction does the road take when one rides in a train?

Tell pupils about eclipse, moon, spaces between various planets, nature of sun, etc. The purpose of this theme: *To give children a scientific knowledge of the universe to counterbalance the religious conception of the origin of the world.*

REFERENCE NOTES BY CHAPTERS

CHAPTER I

Footnotes

1 (Page 3). *New Era,* London, January, 1928.

CHAPTER II

Bibliography

Korniloff, *Modern Russian History,* New York: Knopf, 1924; Mavor, *Economic History of Russia,* New York: Dutton, 1923; and Platonov, *History of Russia,* New York: Macmillan, 1925. These are new editions and give syntheses of the social evolution, with fair accounts of the old education. Baring, *Main Springs of Russia,* London, 1914, chapter iv; Hindus, *The Peasant and the Revolution,* New York: Holt, 1920, chapter iii.

Footnotes

1 (Page 8). Masaryk, *Spirit of Russia.*
2 (Page 10). Milyukov, *Russia and Its Crisis,* University of Chicago Press, 1905.
3 (Page 11). *Russian Year Book,* 1913, quoted by Baring, *op. cit.*
4 (Page 13). *New Era,* London, January, 1928.

CHAPTER III

Bibliography

In Russian: Krupsky, *About Lenin* (Krupskaya writes voluminously, in the newspapers, in journals, in books, but she has never permitted a biography of herself. This little volume is quite self-revealing, however); Shatsky, *Years of Searching* (autobiographical); Pistrak, *Fundamental Problems of the Labor School* (autobiographical pedagogy; also to be obtained in French, 8 Mathurin-Moreau, Paris).

In English: Louise Bryant, *Mirrors of Moscow,* New York: Seltzer, 1923, chapter iii; Magdeleine Marx, *Romance of New Russia,* New York: Seltzer, 1924, chapter xii.

Footnotes

1 (Page 20). Conway, *Art Treasure of Soviet Russia,* London, 1925.
2 (Page 22). March 30, 1924.
3 (Page 25). Pistrak, *Les Problèmes Fondamentaux de l'Ecole du Travail* (translated from the Russian), Paris, 1926.
4 (Page 27). Blonsky, *Pedology and the School,* Moscow, 1927.
5 (Page 28). *Public Education in R. S. F. S. R.,* Government Publication, 1927.

CHAPTER IV

Bibliography

In Russian: For an understanding of the political background, the urge behind probably every one of the great movements and leaders in Soviet education today, nothing is better than Fortunatov, *Theory of the Labor School and Its Historical Development,* Moscow, 1926, Part I, from Sir Thomas More to Karl Marx; *Public Education,* an official weekly devoted to the policy and organization of public education; and the government publications listed below, in chapter vi.

In English: Fülop-Miller, *The Mind and Face of Bolshevism,* Knopf, 1928, chapter xi; Krupsky, "Soviet Achievement in Public Education," the *Nation,* November 9, 1927, and "Soviet Russia's Campaign against Illiteracy," *Current History,* March, 1928; Nansen, *Russia and Peace,* Macmillan, 1918, chapter x; Strong, *For the First Time in History,* Boni and Liveright, 1926; *Russia after Ten Years,* International Publishers, 1927, chapter on education; "Education in Soviet Russia," *School and Society,* May 17, 1924; "New Schools in New Russia," *ibid.,* March 13, 1926; *New Era,* London, January, 1928.

CHAPTER V

Bibliography

In Russian: Krupsky, *The Kindergarten in a Rural Community,* Government Publication, 1926; Vilensky, *Pre-school Work in a Rural District,* Government Publication, 1925, 1926; *Pioneers of the New Peasantry,* Government Publication, 1927. See also the government publications listed in chapter vi, and the Appendix, pp. 172-187, 192-197.

In English: Borders, *Village Life under the Soviets,* Vanguard Press, 1927, chapters v and viii, Hindus, *The Russian Peasant and the Revolution,* Holt, 1920, especially chapter iii; *ibid., Broken Earth,* especially for changes in peasant psychology (compare chapter viii, "Youth," with Turgenieff, *Memoirs of a Sportsman,* "Byezhin Meadow"; see also chapter xi, "Village Teacher"; Poole, *The Village,* Macmillan, 1918, especially the last chapter; Albert Rhys Williams, *The Russian Land,* New Republic, 1927, remarkable first hand studies of village life, with illustrations from the new text books. Chapter vi gives an account of the Bolshevist Boy Scouts.

Footnotes

1 (Page 42). The peasants of the Kingisep district near Leningrad built, in 1926, with their own hands, at their own expense, seven large new schools.

2 (Page 44). 2,289,938 in towns vs. 7,672,672 in villages (82 percent of the population), *Soviet Union Year Book,* 1927, p. 374.

3 (Page 55). *Das Neue Russland,* July, 1927.

4 (Page 56). *Voks Bulletin,* October 22, 1926.

5 (Page 56). *Voks Bulletin,* November 19, 1926; *ibid.,* April 8, and August 19, 1927.

6 (Page 57). In 1901, Nicholas I established the first *Narodny Dom* in St. Petersburg, with a two cent admission fee. Here Chaliapin sang *Don Quixote,* and, later, *Boris Godunov.*

7 (Page 57). *Das Neue Russland,* February, 1927.

CHAPTER VI

Bibliography

In Russian: Programs and Methods of the Unified Labor School, Vols. I-VI, Government Publication, 1927; *Public Education in R. S. F. R. S.,*

1924-1927, Government publication, 1927; *On the Roadway to the New School,* a monthly publication of the Scientific Pedagogical section of the Council of Education; *The Life of the Labor School,* a social-pedagogical magazine, appearing every other month.

In English: Nearing, *Education in the Soviet Union,* International Publishers, 1926, chapter iv, "Where Schools Are Different," *School and Society,* October 2, 1926. See Appendix, pp. 170-216.

In French: Les Problèmes Fondamentaux de l'Ecole du Travail, Paris, 1926 (translated from the second Russian edition).

Footnotes

1 (Page 59). *Public Education in R. S. F. S. R.,* Moscow, 1926.
2 (Page 60). *Ibid.*
3 (Page 66). *Problems of the Complex System in the Schools,* 1924; *Organization and Classification of the Work in a Complex System,* 1925; *Applications of the Complex in Experimental Schools,* 1926 (in Russian), all edited by Ivanoff, Jordansky, Simonoff, Leningrad.

CHAPTER VII

Bibliography

In Russian: Summary of the Organization Materials of Industrial and Professional Technical Schools, Moscow, 1926.

In English: Nearing, *Education in Soviet Russia,* chapters v and vi.

Footnotes

1 (Page 79). *School and Society,* May 17, 1924.
2 (Page 80). *Soviet Union Handbook,* 1927.
3 (Page 85). *Voks Bulletin,* November 19, 1926.

CHAPTER VIII

Bibliography

In Russian: Grabotov, *Special Schools;* Kotchenko, *Pedology of Exceptional Childhood;* and the following government publications: *Mental Retardness, Blindness, Deafness, Method of Training a Physical Defective, Miscellany on the Education and Training of Defectives,* and the Ukrainian *Journal for Reflexology and Experimental Pedagogy,* Kharkov.

Footnotes

1 (Page 90). "In the House of the Sugar King," *Nation,* November 7, 1923.

CHAPTER IX

Bibliography

In Russian: Krupsky, *The Kindergarten in a Rural Community: Method Tiheef,* Leningrad, 1928; *Miscellany on Pre-school Education;* Vilensky and Surovtssenoj, *From Playground to Kindergarten,* Government Publication, 1927; *ibid.,* two volumes on *Pre-school Work in the Village,* Government *Publication,* 1925, 1926.

In English: Nearing, *Education in Soviet Russia,* chapter iii; *Childhood and Education,* September and October, 1926; "Public Health in the Soviet Union," *Survey,* December 1, 1924; *New Era,* London, January 28, 1928.

Footnotes

1 (Page 93). *Voks Bulletin,* July 22, 1927.
2 (Page 96). *Public Education in R. S. F. S. R.,* Moscow, 1926.
3 (Page 99). Krupskaya, "Soviet Achievement in Public Education," *The Nation,* November 9, 1927.

CHAPTER X

Bibliography

In Russian: Schventser and Shabalona, *Homeless Children in the Work Commune,* Commissariat of Education, 1926; Tizanova and Eppstein, *The Government and the Public in the Campaign against Child Vagrancy,* Government Publication, 1927. In addition, many earlier government publications, such as, *Help for Children's Homes, Homeless Children and Children's Homes, Homeless Children, New Solutions for the Problem* (Livshitz), *The Pedagogy of the Modern Homes for Children.*

In English: Anna Louise Strong, *Children of the Revolution,* Piggott, Seattle, 1926; "Moscow Schoolboy's Diary," *Living Age,* July 15, 1927, translated from the *Berliner Tageblatt,* May 29, 1927 (also in *Das Neue* Russland, July, 1927); "Russian Revolutionary Morals," *Current History,* November, 1927; "Stepchildren of the Russian Revolution," *Asia,* April, 1926 (also *Review of Reviews,* May, 1926).

Footnotes

1 (Page 103). *Voks Bulletin,* October 22, 1926.
2 (Page 103). Report of Harold Wade, director, November, 1926.

CHAPTER XI

Bibliography

In Russian: Party, League of Communist Youth and Young Pioneers, published by the Central Commission of the League of Communist Youth, Moscow; *Pioneer's Division and the Village Library,* Moscow, 1927; *Pioneers of the New Peasantry,* Government Publication, 1927.

In English: Borders, *Village Life under the Soviets,* Vanguard Press, 1927, chapter viii; Albert Rhys Williams, *Russian Land,* New Republic, 1927, chapter vi.

Footnotes

1 (Page 108). *Problêmes Fondamentaux de l'Ecole du Travail,* Paris, 1925
2 (Page 111). Pistrak, *op. cit.*
3 (Page 112). *Ibid.*

CHAPTER XII

Bibliography

In Russian: Extra-Mural Work with Children and Adolescents, Government Publication, 1927; *Party, Comsomol, and Pioneers for Extra-Mural*

Work, Central Committee for League of Communist Youth and the Commissariat for Education.

In English: Brief articles, some of them named in the text.

Footnotes

1 (Page 113). *Elementary English Review,* January, 1925, and *Elementary School Journal,* December, 1925.

2 (Page 116). *Russia after Ten Years,* International Publishing Company, 1927.

CHAPTER XIII

Bibliography

In Russian: Directory for Organizers of the Liquidation of Illiteracy, Moscow; *Assistance in Self Education,* a magazine for workers and peasantry; *Cottage Reading Room,* a monthly periodical for Political Education work in rural localities; *Communistic Education,* a periodical appearing every other month.

Footnotes

1 (Page 120). *Russian Review,* Washington, March 15, 1924.

2 (Page 122). *Voks Bulletin,* October 26, 1926.

3 (Page 122). *Soviet Union Year Book,* 1927; also Eppstein's Report, 1927.

4 (Page 124). Eppstein Report, 1927.

5 (Page 124). *Library Journal,* December 1, 1925.

6 (Page 125). *Daily Worker,* November 3, 1925.

7 (Page 128). *Voks Bulletin,* August 13, 1926.

CHAPTER XIV

Bibliography

In English: E. A. Ross, *Russian Bolshevik Revolution,* Century, 1921; *Russian Soviet Republic,* Century, 1923; Hullinger, *The Reforging of Russia,* Dutton, 1925, chapter x; "The Red Army," *Living Age,* July 15, 1927, translated from the *Preussische Jährbücher,* June, 1927. There is an informing article in *Das Neue Russland,* July, 1927.

Footnotes

1 (Page 131). *Russian Review,* Washington, April 1, 1924.

CHAPTER XV

Bibliography

In Russian: Summer Activity, Government Publication, 1927. See also the bibliography of chapter vi.

Footnotes

1 (Page 136). Sokoliansky, Chairman of Scientific Council, Commissariat for Education, Ukraine, in conversation.

2 (Page 138). Nearing, *Education in Soviet Russia; Voks Bulletin,* February 25, 1927.

3 (Page 144). "Educational Work Among National Minorities," *School and Society,* May 22, 1926; "Russian National Schools," *Review of Reviews,* January, 1927 (translated from a Russian magazine article).
4 (Page 150). *Soviet Union Year Book,* 1927.

CHAPTER XVI

Bibliography

In English: Nearing, *Education in Soviet Russia,* chapter x.
In French: Le Syndicalisme Universitaire en Russie Sovietique; le Corps Enseignant et la Dictature du Proletariat (Zinoviev)—both, Paris, 1925 (8 Mathurin Moreau); *l'Instruction Publique et les Travailleurs de l'Enseignement en Oucraine,* Kharkov, 1925.

Footnotes

1 (Page 155). *The Teachers International,* Paris, November, 1927.

CHAPTER XVII

Bibliography

In Russian: Public Education in the Russian Republic, Government Publication, 1927.
In English: Soviet Union Year Book, London, 1927, section on Finance and Education; *Commercial Handbook of the U. S. S. R.* (Union of Soviet Socialist Republics); section on Education; Soviet Union Information Bureau, Washington, 1927.

Footnotes

1 (Page 158). *Public Education in R. S. F. S. R.,* Moscow, 1926.

CHAPTER XVIII

Footnotes

1 (Page 162). Krupsky, "Soviet Achievements in Public Education," *Nation,* November 9, 1927; also "Soviet Russia's Campaign against Illiteracy," *Current History,* March, 1928.
2 (Page 162). Krupsky, *op. cit.*
3 (Page 162). *Soviet Union Handbook,* London, 1927 (the MS.).
4 (Page 163). Eppstein Report, 1927.
5 (Page 164). Paleologue, *An Ambassador's Memoirs,* Doran, 1927.

APPENDIX

1 (Page 168). *Handbook of the Soviet Union,* London, 1927.
2 (Page 170). For the translation of the programs I am indebted to Olga Simonoff.

INDEX

An effort has been made to index *ideas* even when expressed without the connoting word, e.g. *collectivism, cooperation,* and the like.

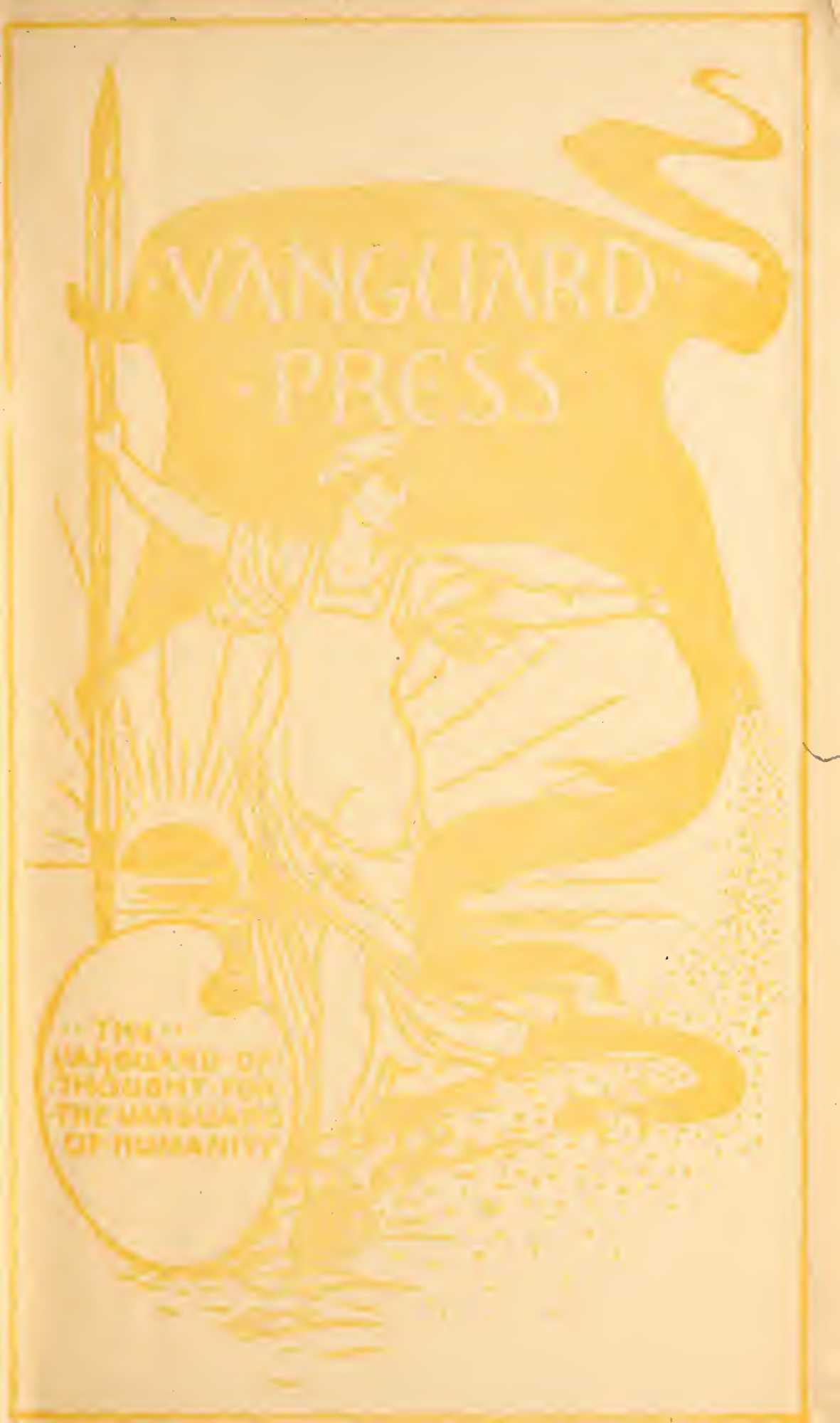
D

E

T

U

V


VANGUARD
PRESS
THE
VANGUARD OF
THOUGHT FOR
THE VANGUARD
OF HUMANITY