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PHYSICAL EDUCATION FOR SOVIET CHILDREN
AND TEACHER AND COACH EDUCATION

Physical education for children (to seventeen years). An historical overview and contemporary study of organisation and methods. An examination of the professional training of physical education teachers and sports coaches.

Two volumes - Vol.I

Lesley Jean EVANS-WORTHING B.Ed.

submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

University of Bradford
Postgraduate School of Studies in Languages and European Studies

1987
To my mother and father
with grateful thanks for
all their help and support
"In our country physical culture means sport for the whole people; in our country millions participate in the physical culture movement. It is obvious that talented athletes will sooner be found among those millions than among thousands, and that it is easier to find talented athletes among thousands than among hundreds".

Mikhail Kalinin
(Former Soviet President, 1938)
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PREFACE

The starting point for this study was when, as a specialist physical education teacher working in a school, I undertook a part-time inservice B.Ed degree and wrote a dissertation comparing the systems of physical education in the USSR and in England and Wales. I made one visit in 1979 to Moscow but, otherwise, had to rely heavily upon Western sources of material owing to my lack of knowledge of Russian and the difficulty in obtaining primary source material.

I discovered that virtually no profound study in English had been made of children's physical education in one of the world's largest and most important countries. Yet, since the early 1950s, the USSR has been one of the leading sporting nations in international competitions.

For many years I have been interested in comparative physical education and, helped by my background of foreign languages' study at school, have visited schools in the USA, Canada, Germany, Austria and Israel, as well as the USSR.

In 1981, I began work as a university lecturer with responsibilities for teacher training and started to gather information for this thesis for which I had to learn Russian, helped by staff at the Centre for Modern Languages at the University of Newcastle-upon-Tyne.

During several study visits to the USSR, I visited

* 1981 - Two weeks sports study tour to Moscow, Leningrad and Minsk.
1983 - Four weeks in Leningrad.
1985 - Six weeks in Moscow, Leningrad and Brest on a British Council Travel Scholarship.
USSR Ministry of Education Offices, teacher training institutions, schools, sports schools and other sports institutions, interviewed officials, lecturers, teachers, students and pupils and observed lectures, lessons and training sessions. In addition, I gathered text books, syllabuses and journals and, after several years of research and study visits, set out to describe and examine all aspects of Soviet children's physical education from preschool to school-leaving age as well as the training of their teachers and coaches.

It has been necessary to describe the whole physical education system since it is a more complex series of activities in and out of school than what we, in England and Wales, understand as physical education, that is, lessons in school. Descriptions are fairly extensive since readers are unlikely to be able to read the sources in Russian for themselves or to make their own visits.

Because the concept of physical education in the USSR is so different compared to our own, and because its structure is determined by the state of development and needs of Soviet society, a background description of the country and education system is given in Chapter I and an explanation of the development of Soviet sport and physical education in Chapter II.

The concepts of Soviet physical culture, sport and physical education are different to our own and are explained. Soviet terminology in direct translation is used, for example, school physical education programmes, but physical culture lessons and teachers to emphasise the different concepts which are employed.
The aims, methods and reasons behind the system of physical education for Soviet children are described and analysed and the theory and practice of its implementation have been investigated through primary sources - syllabuses, visits, observations, and interviews.

The effectiveness of physical education for all Soviet children is discussed and some cross-cultural comparisons are made. Finally, suggestions are put to physical educators in England and Wales on how this study might be useful to them when considering changes in their own physical education system.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I extend my most sincere thanks to my Supervisor Professor James Riordan; throughout the duration of the work he has always been available to offer support, encouragement and advice. I also wish to acknowledge a debt of gratitude owed to my employers during this period - initially to the University of Newcastle-upon-Tyne for generously supporting my research and allowing periods of study leave. Similarly I thank my current employers, The University College of Wales, Aberystwyth.

I am greatly indebted to the British Council and the USSR Ministry of Education for jointly sponsoring my study visit during 1985 and thank the many people, especially my interpreter, Miss Irina Anashkina, who so willingly helped me during my visits to Moscow, Leningrad and Brest.

I thank my husband, Julian, for his unfailing support and encouragement, without which I should have found great difficulty completing this thesis.

Finally, the presentation and typing of the thesis has been undertaken by Miss Jean Patrick; I thank her for her patience and good humour throughout the work.
CHAPTER I

BACKGROUND

Situation

The Soviet Union is the largest country in the world covering almost one-sixth of the world's populated land mass with an area of 22.4 million square kilometres. From east to west it stretches almost 10,000 kilometres, and from north to south nearly 5,000 kilometres. It accounts for half the land mass of Europe and one-third of Asia.

The country's European area extends from the Urals to the Baltic and it is there that approximately 70 per cent of the population lives, although it comprises less than a quarter of Soviet territory.

Of the world's 24 time zones, eleven cross the USSR, giving eleven hours difference in time between the country's eastern and western cities. Ten time zones span Siberia.

The Soviet Union has common frontiers with twelve nations, six European and six Asian. They are Norway, Finland, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary and Rumania in Europe, and in Asia - Turkey, Iran, Afghanistan, China, Mongolia and North Korea.

In total, Soviet state frontiers run for more than 60,000 kilometres, of which about two-thirds are coastal, including twelve seas and three oceans, the Pacific, the Arctic and the Atlantic.

To emphasise the vastness of the country - the USA and half of Canada would fit into Siberia alone and
FIGURE I  The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics
Leningrad is nearer to New York than to Vladivostok.

The defence of Soviet borders entails the deployment of large numbers of armed forces personnel, and conscription is mandatory for most males, with many reservists who can be called upon in times of need.

After the end of the Second World War the USSR formed, in 1949, with other eastern European states, the Council for Mutual Economic Assistance (CMEA or COMECON). Its members, nowadays, include Poland, the German Democratic Republic, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Rumania and Cuba (admitted in 1979) with the USSR exercising general control, especially in its trade and economy. Following the establishment of NATO, the USSR and its East European allies set up the Warsaw Pact military alliance.

Some of the implications for sport and physical education of these geopolitical features are that:

i) In order to ensure that as many of its people as possible are physically fit (for work and defence), the state has developed a sports and physical education system which attempts to involve everyone from early childhood to old age;

ii) The Soviet sports movement aims to teach its citizens physical and military skills and trains them to be strong in mind and body, imbued with patriotic feelings for their country;

iii) The close proximity of so many other countries has prompted the Soviet authorities to use their international sports links to promote and cement friendly relations with their neighbours.
Geography

The extensive land mass of the USSR includes diverse geographical variations. They range from deserts, vast plains, taiga, permafrost tundra and mountain ranges, a major one of which is the Urals which forms a natural border between Europe and Asia.

One third of the world's forests are within the USSR and cover one third of its territory - mainly in Siberia, the European North and the Far East. Some of the forests are the size of India.

There are almost 150,000 rivers of more than 10km in length and many freshwater lakes, including Lake Baikal in Siberia which is the world's largest lake and holds one fifth of the world's fresh water.

Deserts cover 300 million hectares of the USSR and are gradually being cultivated with the construction of irrigation canals and reservoirs. Deep wells are being sunk and pipes built to carry water to needy areas. There are approximately 1000 reservoirs in the country.

Siberia constitutes three quarters of the country's land mass but only a small minority of Soviet inhabitants live there. It was until recently virtually a vast virgin land and it has a wealth of minerals. The USSR is more or less self-sufficient in all natural resources and is the world's largest oil and natural gas producer.

The size of the USSR and the wide range of geographical conditions pose problems in the transportation of players and teams for sports events and for that
reason, regions have developed their own leagues and come together only occasionally for national finals such as the USSR Winter and Summer Games.

Climate

The USSR has a diverse variety of climates encompassing the range of severe cold in northern Arctic areas, subtropical in the south and Black Sea regions and dry heat in the sand deserts of Central Asia.

Within a single area there may be extreme variations of temperature over the year. For example, in Yakutia in Siberia there could be 230 sub-zero days out of 365. In its short summer the region can experience temperatures of more than 38 degrees Celsius and, during the winter, cold of minus 16 degrees Celsius.

The climate strongly influences the types of sport played and also the time of year each may be played. In the coldest climates indoor facilities are provided for sport, including soccer, which is played in the summer in all areas. Skiing and skating are well provided for outdoors during the winter in many regions but for many people indoor facilities have been built to ensure a more comfortable temperature whilst they participate in sport during the winter months. Hence the popularity of sports like basketball, volleyball, handball and ice hockey.
National and State Structure

The Soviet Union is a multinational federal state comprising fifteen constitutional-sovereign Soviet socialist states known as Union Republics. They are the Russian Soviet Federal Socialist Republic (RSFSR), the Ukraine, Belorussia, Uzbekistan, Kazakhstan, Georgia, Azerbaidzhan, Lithuania, Moldavia, Latvia, Kirgizia, Tadzhikistan, Armenia, Turkmenia and Estonia and together are also known as the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR).

Each Union Republic is guaranteed equal rights and representation by the country's Constitution. Within the Union Republics there are twenty Autonomous Republics, eight Autonomous Regions and ten Autonomous Areas. However, not every Republic includes these additional divisions. Every Soviet person, regardless of race or nationality, is a citizen of the USSR and all are entitled to equal rights.

Every Union Republic has its own Constitution, anthem, flag, emblem, capital, bodies of state authority, Supreme Soviet (parliament), Council of Ministers (government), Supreme Court, judicial system and laws. Each may enter into relations with other states and may, in theory, freely secede from the USSR.

The twenty Autonomous Republics are each national-state entities and integral parts of the Union Republic in which they are situated. Each has its own Constitution, bodies of authority, judicial system, laws, capital,
The eight Autonomous Regions are national territory entities and each has administrative autonomy on account of the specific national composition and customs of its people.

The ten Autonomous Areas are similar to the regions but have smaller populations.

Administrative-territorial units are villages, districts in large cities, towns, rural districts and regions. Each Union Republic, regardless of size, population numbers or any other factor, is part of the association of the Union Republics.

National equality is guaranteed by the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, the highest body of state authority, comprising two chambers of equal rights, the Soviet of the Union and the Soviet of Nationalities. The Soviet of the Union represents the common interests of all citizens, whatever their nationality, and is elected by constituencies with equal populations. The Soviet of Nationalities exists to represent the specific needs and interests of each nationality and ethnic group. From each Union Republic thirty-two deputies are elected, from each Autonomous Republic eleven deputies, five from each Autonomous Region and one from each Autonomous Area.

Both Chambers in the Supreme Soviet of the USSR have the same number of deputies - seven hundred and fifty - elected on the same day and all serve for a term of five years. Resolutions and laws must be agreed by a
majority in both Chambers before they may be adopted.

The system of government in the USSR is based on the principle of democratic centralism, that is the election at each level of the bodies of state authority. Once elected they must be accountable to the people, and the lower bodies are obliged to observe the decisions of those above. The system, in theory, allows for both central leadership and an involvement and initiative at local levels.

In total, the Soviets or Councils are administered by more than 30 million assistants at various levels.

There are 50,991 local Soviets which are elected for terms of two and a half years.

At the highest level the common interests of the working people are said to be represented, as the following figures indicate:

Table 1

Composition of the USSR Supreme Soviet in 1980

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
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<tr>
<td>Workers</td>
<td>522</td>
<td>(34.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collective Farmers</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>(16.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Party People</td>
<td>425</td>
<td>(28.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td>487</td>
<td>(32.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People Under 30 Years of Age</td>
<td>317</td>
<td>(21.1%)</td>
</tr>
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</table>

The frame of reference of the Soviets is to operate as a single system of bodies of state authority, each exercising supreme authority in its particular area and level. At the highest level the Supreme Soviet of the USSR expresses the sovereignty of the union of the Republics.

The Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR is the highest body of state authority in the country and is accountable to the Supreme Soviet for all its actions.

The Council of Ministers of the USSR is the government of the country, is accountable to the Supreme Soviet and is formed by the Supreme Soviet at a joint sitting of both Chambers.

Each Union and Autonomous Republic has its own Supreme Soviet which, in effect, are their governments and their highest bodies of state authority.

Local Soviets conduct regional government in the form of public organisations; they protect citizens' rights, maintain law and order and encourage social, economic and cultural development within their region. They are charged with the task of looking after people's everyday needs.

Just under ten million people are 'people's controllers'. They operate in almost every place of work and their duties include checking on bureaucracy, and in general they are supposed to look after the interests of employees.
Nationalities

The 1979 Census listed 103 nationalities, ranging in size from the Russians with 137 million people\(^1\) to the smaller communities which can be numbered in hundreds, for example, the Yukagirs (800), the Negidals (500) and the Aleutians (500). \(^2\)

Among the largest groups are the Russians (137.4m), Ukrainians (42.3m), Uzbeks (12.4m), Belorussians (9.4m) and the Kazakhs (6.6m), (see Table 2) and there are ten major ethnic groups: Slav, Baltic, Moldavian, Iranian, Turkic, Caucasian, Finno-Ugrian, Mongolian, Manchurian and Paleo-Asiatic. \(^3\)

Today in the USSR, as many as 180 languages and dialects are in daily use. One hundred and ten native languages are taught in the schools and most students have the right to use their native language for higher education. There is, however, no provision for Jews to be taught in Yiddish.

Under the tsars, public schools were obliged to teach in the Russian language, although each nation could teach through the medium of its own language in its private schools. After the 1905 Revolution, the nationalities wanted their own languages to be the medium of instruction in all their schools but this was refused. National unrest and hostility was a major contributory factor of the 1917 Revolution.

The right to teach in their own language was given to nationalities after the 1917 November Revolution, but
### TABLE 2

The larger nationalities of the Soviet Union showing their populations (000s) at the census of 1979. (The percentage of the total population is shown in brackets)

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>Population (000s)</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
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<td>Russians</td>
<td>137397 (52.42)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ukrainians</td>
<td>42347 (16.16)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Uzbeks</td>
<td>12456 (4.75)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belorussians</td>
<td>9463 (3.61)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kazakhs</td>
<td>6556 (2.50)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tatars</td>
<td>6317 (2.41)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Azerbaidzhanis</td>
<td>5477 (2.09)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Armenians</td>
<td>4151 (1.58)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgians</td>
<td>3571 (1.36)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moldavians</td>
<td>2968 (1.13)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tadzhiks</td>
<td>2898 (1.11)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lithuanians</td>
<td>2851 (1.09)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkmen</td>
<td>2028 (0.77)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germans</td>
<td>1936 (0.74)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kirgiz</td>
<td>1906 (0.73)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jews</td>
<td>1811 (0.69)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chuvash</td>
<td>1751 (0.67)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latvians</td>
<td>1439 (0.55)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bashkirs</td>
<td>1371 (0.52)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mordovians</td>
<td>1192 (0.45)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poles</td>
<td>1151 (0.44)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estonians</td>
<td>1020 (0.39)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chechens</td>
<td>756 (0.29)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Udmurts</td>
<td>714 (0.27)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mari</td>
<td>622 (0.24)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ossetins</td>
<td>542 (0.21)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avars</td>
<td>483 (0.18)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Koreans</td>
<td>389 (0.15)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesghians</td>
<td>383 (0.15)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgars</td>
<td>361 (0.14)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buryats</td>
<td>353 (0.13)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greeks</td>
<td>344 (0.13)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yakuts</td>
<td>328 (0.12)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Komi</td>
<td>327 (0.12)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kabardins</td>
<td>322 (0.12)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karakalpaks</td>
<td>303 (0.12)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Darkintsy</td>
<td>287 (0.11)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Russian remains a compulsory subject in schools as covered by Article 121 of the Constitution of the USSR.

Russian is the official 'lingua franca' of the USSR and the country's main business is conducted in that tongue; in order to 'get on' it is essential to know Russian well. The Red Army, for example, uses Russian without regard to the national composition of its units.

The Russian alphabet is written in Cyrillic and derives from the Greek alphabet. In pre-1917 Revolutionary times some of the nationalities which now make up the Union did not have an alphabet at all and, therefore, could not write in their own language. All now have their own alphabet, many of which take different forms.

Some of the languages are read by only a small number of people; for example, Avar by 358,000 people and Chukchi by 11,000, and many of the important works in different disciplines are translated into Russian so that they might reach a wider readership. Nonetheless, literary works are written in 76 languages, books are published in 89 languages, plays are said to be presented in 45 languages throughout the USSR, and each day newspapers are published in as many as 60 Soviet languages.

The Soviet nationalities fall broadly into two categories - European and Asian, and their respective shares of the total population have altered quite considerably since the early years of the twentieth century:
Table 3

Percentage Share of the Population of the USSR 1913-1979

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1913</th>
<th>1939</th>
<th>1959</th>
<th>1979</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>European</td>
<td>82.1</td>
<td>78.6</td>
<td>73.2</td>
<td>69.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>26.8</td>
<td>30.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The Europeans continue to dominate in numbers and in their control of industrial and agricultural production. However, between 1913 and 1979 the Asian population nearly doubled to 30.8 per cent while the European fell by almost 13 per cent of the country's total.

Some western sources report that this imbalance in the population growth of nationalities has both racial and economic implications for the country. The trend is continuing into the 1980s and Goldman referred in 1983 to:

"... a Russia fearful of being overwhelmed by an alien, and as they see it, uncouth horde. Particularly disturbing is the growth of the Moslem portion of the population". 6

From an economic viewpoint - in the most heavily urbanised and industrialised areas, that is, those settled by the European population, the labour-force requirements are high, yet the number of new entrants into industry is not increasing sufficiently to meet the demand. The Central Asians, for their part, with their growing population, are
reported to be reluctant to move from the countryside to cities in the European sector of the USSR. 7

The different nationalities tend to have their own folk sports which they continue to play as well as the major sports such as soccer and basketball. The country's sports movement does make provision for the more traditional sports in clubs and societies but not in the school physical education programmes (see Chapter IV). Folk sports are usually based on hunting skills but, since they are not included in the Olympic programme they are not pursued countrywide although the gross and fine motor skills and strength-building work involved in folk sports can provide a useful background to more widely-pursued sports.

Some nationalities follow religions whose beliefs hinder female participation in sport and physical exercise, especially the Moslems. These prohibitions have relaxed somewhat recently and the implications for schoolgirls are discussed in Chapter IV.

Population

The population of the USSR as of 1 January 1984 was 273.8 million. 8 This was the largest population of any state after China and India. The main population trends are shown in Tables 4 and 5. Complete censuses have been held only in 1897, 1926, 1939, 1959, 1970 and 1979 and so figures for other years may not be completely accurate and data vary from source to source, as some take account of boundary changes and others do not.

The figures show a rapid increase in the urban
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>TOTAL POPULATION (MILLIONS)</th>
<th>URBAN</th>
<th>FEMALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I</td>
<td></td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1913</td>
<td>159.2</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>50.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1917</td>
<td>163.0</td>
<td>18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1926</td>
<td>147.0</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>51.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1939</td>
<td>170.5</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>52.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940</td>
<td>194.1</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>52.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1951</td>
<td>181.6</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>56.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961</td>
<td>216.3</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>54.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>243.9</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>53.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>265.5</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>53.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1982</td>
<td>268.8</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>53.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Figures are for 1 January in each year, except for 1980 which is mid-year.
I refers to present (post-war) boundaries of the USSR
II refers to pre-1939 boundaries of the USSR

Sources: D. Kirk, Europe's Population Between the Wars, (1946), p63;
Narodnoe khozyaistvo SSSR v 1979g, (Moscow, 1980), pp7-8,
in R. Munting, The Economic Development of the USSR, (1982), p168,
## TABLE 5

### POPULATION CHANGES 1897 TO 1979

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>POPULATION (m)</th>
<th>CHANGE %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>URBAN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1897</td>
<td>124.6</td>
<td>18.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1913</td>
<td>159.2</td>
<td>28.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1926</td>
<td>165.0</td>
<td>33.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940</td>
<td>194.1</td>
<td>63.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1950</td>
<td>178.5</td>
<td>69.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1955</td>
<td>194.4</td>
<td>86.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960</td>
<td>212.3</td>
<td>103.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>229.2</td>
<td>121.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>241.7</td>
<td>136.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>253.3</td>
<td>153.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1979</td>
<td>262.4</td>
<td>163.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** Complete censuses were held only in 1897, 1929, 1939, 1959, 1970 and 1979.

population from the late 1920s, due largely to rapid industrial development which began after the 1917 Revolution. Millions of peasants left their work and homes in the countryside to enter the industrial work force for the first time and women became increasingly involved in industrial employment. In the 56 years between 1926 and 1982 the population living in urban areas rose by 46 per cent (Table 4). This is accounted for not only by people moving to urban areas but also by some rural areas becoming urban. Urbanisation continues: between 1970 and 1979, 15.6 million rural residents became urban. ⁹

Since the country needs agricultural workers the Soviet state has been trying to persuade people to remain in the countryside by raising their living standards which includes building cultural, sporting, housing, educational and health facilities. It also allocates jobs in rural areas to newly-qualified graduates who might not otherwise have chosen to work in such areas, but whose expertise will benefit the rural population. Every higher education institution is allocated a quota of places that it must fill to train students for rural employment. The graduate must fulfil this obligation and go where he or she is sent for at least two to three years. Of particular value to the rural population is the posting of good-quality teachers, in so far as educational standards in their areas tend to be somewhat lower than in urban areas.

Whilst total population figures have risen steadily and outpaced other European countries, there was an actual decline of 15.6 million people between 1940 and 1950 (Table 5). This was due to the loss of life of Soviet
citizens, civilians as well as servicemen, during World War II. Although no actual figures are available for war deaths, these are estimated at 10 million in the armed forces and 15 million extra civilian deaths. Additionally, there was a deficit of births owing to low fertility and infant mortality during and just after the war years and, combined, these factors probably accounted for a loss of 45 million people from the Soviet population in 1950.\(^{10}\)

Other estimates of the 'demographic loss' (the deficit of births plus the excess deaths compared with 'normal' rates) include Lorimer (1946) at 20 million,\(^{11}\) and Newth (1964)\(^{12}\) and Dewdney (1976)\(^{13}\) who both estimated 40 million losses.

The imbalance in the proportion of males to females (Table 4) after 1940 can be explained mainly by the numbers of men killed in World War II when about one-third of men of working age lost their lives. Stalin's purges also accounted for the deaths of many people in camps during the 1930s and many of these were males. In 1951, 56 per cent of the population were females but by 1982 the proportion had dropped to 53.2 per cent. The present imbalance can be explained in part by the number of surviving war and 'purges' widows. During and after World War II many women had to go into manual work in place of men and the losses of men meant that women continued to do this sort of work. Today, women dominate the construction industry, farm, factory and transport work, doing the kind of heavy work that Western women often do not undertake. Many Soviet women went into teaching after the war, and they dominate the profession in their numbers and many
are now headteachers. Only recently has the government been trying to redress the balance with drives to encourage more men to enter teaching (see Chapter VII). A further factor is that the Soviet Union has the world's highest sex difference in life expectancy: 64 years for men and 75 years for women— that is 11 years difference.

The Soviet government is concerned about the overall decline in the country's birth rate (see Table 6). Its plans to increase industrial output and the economic growth of the country are dependent upon a large labour force, as explained earlier, and this, in turn, requires a rising birth rate. Additionally, as workers retire, receive state pensions and have an increased life expectancy, an expanding economy is essential for their support. So much in need of workers is the economy that many people carry on working past retirement age and receive pensions as well as their salaries.

From a natural increase of 23.7 per thousand of the population in 1926, the figure dropped gradually to 8.1 per thousand in 1979 (Table 6). At present, many couples have only one child, particularly in the European cities. Housing conditions tend to be cramped in industrialised urban areas and it would be difficult to raise large families in the small apartments in which most urban families live. Other factors influencing couples to have small families include many women wishing to go out to work, although in the Eleventh Five-Year Plan (1981-1985) state aid to families has been boosted to allow mothers increased maternity leave, guaranteed return to their jobs and wider provision of preschool care for their children.
### TABLE 6

**VITAL RATES 1913 TO 1975 (All figures per 1000 of the population)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>BIRTH RATE</th>
<th>DEATH RATE</th>
<th>NATURAL INCREASE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1913</td>
<td>47.0</td>
<td>30.2</td>
<td>16.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1926</td>
<td>44.0</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>23.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940</td>
<td>31.2</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>13.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1950</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>17.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1955</td>
<td>25.7</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>17.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960</td>
<td>24.9</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>17.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>9.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>18.1</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>8.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1979</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Artificial birth-control methods are more readily available in urban than in rural areas where natural methods are often the only ones available. Their unreliability and the lack of availability of abortion in many rural areas are some of the causes of larger families in the countryside than in cities. The country's improved health service and comprehensive children's health-care programmes have resulted in a low rate of infant mortality which means that parents need only produce a few children to ensure the survival of their family whereas in the past, only large numbers of children ensured that families would be sustained. A Western source, Davis and Feshbach, claim, however, that in the USSR there has been a "sustained reversal of the normal downward trend" in infant mortality, with its incidence rising by more than one third between 1971 and 1976. Davis and Feshbach attribute the blame to poor medical care and to mothers waiting until their mid-30s, after several abortions, to have a baby. This postponement is due, they claim, to the housing shortage, as well as to general economic strains. Other factors influencing parents to have small families include children no longer being economically necessary to work on the family farm (now that state and collective farms exist) or business, or to keep their parents in old age (state pensions are given). The urban family tends to be nuclear, that is mother, father and child (or children) only and not as in the past, or in rural areas, with relatives such as grandparents and uncles and aunts helping to look after the children. Consequently, many mothers, particularly those
who work, prefer smaller families.

The shortage of space in living accommodation experienced by many urban dwellers, coupled with people's increasing prosperity and free time (the two-day weekend was introduced in 1967 and most workers have at least 15 days paid annual leave) have meant a greater need than in the pre-World War II era for recreational facilities, organisation and activities. These factors also lead some people to want to get away from their town or city and pursue a chosen form of recreation with their family or friends such as camping, hiking, cycling or touring by car.

The most heavily populated areas of the USSR are in the European regions, mainly as a result of people settling in and developing towns and cities based on deposits of iron-ore and coal for industry, rivers for transport and proximity to the West for trade, culture and communication. Since mineral deposits in those areas are becoming depleted and, as the country's requirements for natural resources increase, there has developed an eastwards drift in population to Siberia, where despite severely cold weather conditions, vast sums of money and effort are being expended to extract the huge quantities of minerals known to be in the region. Table 7 shows the decline in the population share of the western Republics and the increase of those in the east between 1959 and 1979. An analysis of the census in 1959, 1970 and 1979 showed the proportion of the population living east of the Urals to be rising:
TABLE 7

POPULATION SHARE OF THE UNION REPUBLICS IN THE TOTAL POPULATION OF THE USSR
AT THE CENSUS OF 1959 AND 1979 (in %)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>UNION REPUBLICS</th>
<th>1959</th>
<th>1979</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Russian Federation</td>
<td>56.28</td>
<td>52.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ukraine</td>
<td>20.05</td>
<td>18.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belorussia</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>3.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uzbekistan</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>5.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kazakhstan</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>5.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>1.94</td>
<td>1.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Azerbaidzhan</td>
<td>1.77</td>
<td>2.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lithuania</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>1.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moldavia</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>1.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latvia</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kirgizia</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>1.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tadzhikistan</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>1.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Armenia</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkmenia</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estonia</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>0.56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data in Table 8, based on the 1979 Census, show the proportions of land/population for areas in the USSR to be:

Table 8

Proportions of Land and Population in the USSR in 1979

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Population (m)</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Land %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>262.4</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European</td>
<td>181.1</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>24.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transcaucasion Republics</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kazakhstan and Four Central Asian Republics</td>
<td>40.2</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>17.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Siberia and the Far East</td>
<td>27.9</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


From this we can determine that, although they have only 24.4 per cent of the land, the European Republics account for 69 per cent of the population yet Siberia and the Far East have 57 per cent of the land and only 10.6 per cent of the population.

Planners are believed to want to see an increasing population in Siberia and the Far East for two reasons, firstly to develop the vast natural resources and secondly, from a strategic point of view, the area can be better defended and thus less likely to be invaded if it is populated and has good means of communication and transport.
The implications for sport of the rapid development of an area like Siberia with a severely cold climate are that facilities must be built which allow year-round participation, mainly indoors, and this appears to be taking place with the construction of indoor soccer pitches (at the moment, the USSR has its soccer league in the summer while most of Europe has it in the winter). For this and for the provision of teams which must often cover vast distances for matches, large sums of money will have to be allocated to sport.
The Education System

All educational institutions in the USSR belong to the public education system and their work is carried out under the direct supervision of the Soviet government. The Soviet public education system is said to be based on the following principles:

1) an equal right for all Soviet citizens to receive education irrespective of race, nationality, sex, religion, property and social status;
2) compulsory education for all children;
3) the state and public nature of all educational institutions;
4) free choice of the language of tuition; education in the native language or the language of any other people in the USSR;
5) the free provision of all forms of education and medical care, full state maintenance for some categories of students, scholarship grants and other material assistance;
6) the uniformity of the public education system and continuity of all types of educational establishments, ensuring progress from lower to higher stages of learning;
7) the unity of tuition and communist education, cooperation of the school, the family and the public in the upbringing of children and the youth;
8) the connection of the education of the younger generation with life and with the practice of communist construction;
9) the scientific character and constant improvement of
education on the basis of the latest achievements in science, technology and culture;

10) the humane nature and high moral standards of education and upbringing;

11) co-education;

12) the secular character of education, ruling out religious influence. 16

Education is provided in preschool institutions, various types of schools offering elementary, eight-year incomplete and ten-year (11-year)* complete secondary education, vocational technical schools (tekhnikums) which give professional training, other secondary specialised educational establishments and higher educational institutions. Thus, a unified system of education of compulsory ten-year (11-year) education for all children from the ages of seven (6) to seventeen can be followed by either a middle or higher specialist education or a job. Teenagers may leave the secondary school either at the end of class VIII (IX) (15 years of age) or at the end of class X (XI) (17 years of age) but those who leave at 15 must continue their education for at least two further years in another type of educational institution; this is usually a professional training school.

The public education system also incorporates various

* Because at the time of writing this study the school system has just started to change to entry at six years of age, class I will be assumed to be the seven year olds and the new class numbers and ages are indicated in brackets where appropriate.
non-school institutions which are:

"Designed to bring to light the aptitudes and abilities of pupils and develop their interests in labour, science, technology, art and sports". 17

and which include:

"Young Pioneer palaces and centres, young technicians' stations, young naturalists' stations, young tourist stations and children's libraries; sports, art and music schools; and a number of other non-school centres that promote the organisation of cultural leisure-time pursuits of children and adolescents and strengthen their health. Libraries, clubs, lecture halls, museums, cinemas, theatres, concert halls and people's universities participate in the communist education of youth and of all working people". 18

Their purpose is said to be:

"To help to expand the political and cultural horizons of youth and promote the dissemination of scientific and general cultural knowledge". 19

Additionally, the Komsomol and trade unions take an active part in the communist education of youth with help from the Voluntary Society for Assistance to the Army, Air Force and Navy (DOSAAF) whilst the V.I. Lenin Young Pioneer Organisation supervises the communist education of younger school pupils and is under the direction of the Komsomol. *

* The Komsomol and the V.I. Lenin Young Pioneer Organisation are described later in this Chapter.
The mass media - press, television, radio and cinema are also said to be used "in the interests of the communist education of the working people". 20

Thus, Soviet public education serves three main purposes:

i) to teach literacy and numeracy skills to the population so that they can work in the country's labour force and help strengthen the economy;

ii) give a cultural education;

iii) teach current political views which correspond fully with the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (CPSU) and are based upon Marxist-Leninist philosophy.

Education in the USSR has been described by a Western educationalist as "primarily a political tool for the construction of a communist society", 21 and this was confirmed in June 1983 at the Plenary Meeting of the CPSU Central Committee:

"The Party wants education not merely to give our people a certain amount of knowledge, but above all, to make them citizens of socialist society, active builders of communism with appropriate ideological views, moral attitudes and interests, with high standards of work proficiency and social conduct". 22

The Origins of Soviet Educational Policy

The pattern for the construction of a Soviet communist society is based upon Marxist-Leninist ideas and its aims are summed up in the Constitution of the
USSR:

"The supreme goal of the Soviet state is the building of a classless communist society in which there will be public, communist self-government. The main aims of the people's socialist state are: to lay the material and technical foundation of communism, to perfect socialist social relations and transform them into communist relations, to mould the citizen of communist society, to raise people's living and cultural standards, to safeguard the country's security, and to further the consolidation of peace and development of international co-operation". 23

Immediately after the 1917 Revolution, the new Council of People's Commissars, with V.I. Lenin at its head, appointed A.V. Lunacharsky as People's Commissar of Education. Within a week, his department had issued its first Decree to the population 'On Public Education', the first by the new government. Lenin is said to have been planning the future reorganisation of public education well before 1917:

"Twenty years before the October (1917) Revolution, the ideal of the future society vivid before him, Lenin was studying the questions of education and of practical training of the young generation for future work. He was carefully observing the life of students in tsarist Russia and the development of future revolutionaries among those in the secondary schools and colleges". 24
Lenin based most of his views on Marxist theory and, together with his wife, N.K. Krupskaya, developed the policy of combining instruction with productive work. N.K. Krupskaya first wrote about this in 1915 in her book Nadnoe obrazovanie i demokratia (Public Education and Democracy) and, after the 1917 Revolution, she directed the setting up of Soviet labour polytechnical schools. She considered the introduction of wide-scale productive work to be a major feature of schools under socialism:

"Productive work not only helps to prepare the child as a future useful member of society; it makes the child a useful member of society at once, and the child's realisation of this fact has a tremendous educative impact". In addition, she believed that all the work of the school should be so organised as to help the child choose his/her future vocation correctly. She also proposed that the setting up of various types of clubs to include electrical and radio engineering, mechanics, agriculture and general production clubs as well as dramatic, literary and athletic clubs, could play an important role in helping children choose a career.

The Soviet educator, A.S. Makarenko, developed techniques for collective upbringing through his work in the 1920s and 1930s, rehabilitating juvenile delinquents, mainly by housing them in communes. The children were formed into 'detachments' with commanders. Each detachment worked and also received an education. They worked in the fields, made furniture, kept animals, marched under a banner and had a band. The writer, Maxim Gorky,
was a patron and the Gorky commune was named after him. N.K. Krupskaya and other educators had already advanced the idea of rearing children in collectives after the 1917 Revolution:

"... but Makarenko transformed this idea into the well-organised, truly scientific, fruitful and original theory of the children's collective. He elaborated the problems of the structure and organisation of the collective, the methods of upbringing to be used in it, its interrelationship with the personality of the child, and its contact with other collectives".  

In his book *Two Worlds of Childhood*, in which he compared the ways North American and Soviet children are reared, Urie Bronfenbrenner wrote extensively about Makarenko's influence on Soviet methods. Of the continuing use of collective upbringing he wrote:

"... we have every reason to expect that Soviet society will continue to rely heavily on communal facilities for the care and education of children. And in all of these institutions, as well as in the regular schools, the well-proven techniques of collective upbringing, even if applied with greater tolerance for individual needs, will continue to be used".  

Makarenko also put forward the idea that work is not limited merely to physical activity but that it also requires the use of mental powers. He believed that these views should be expressed in educational terms by setting
children tasks which require mental powers and organis-
tional abilities and in this way they would have
educational significance. 31

The current education system continues to include the
main features of early Soviet educational policy and is
explained below.

Tasks of the Soviet System of Education

In pre-Revolutionary Russia vast numbers of the
population were illiterate, particularly in the more remote
rural areas. It is difficult to determine exact figures
since pre- and post-Revolution territories differed.
However, Lenin is reported to have written before the
First World War that:

"About four-fifths of the children and adolescents
in Russia were denied the opportunity of an
education". 32

and so were not taught to read or write. The situation was
clearly much worse in some areas, especially in Asian and
northern regions and some, for example Kirgizia, lacked
even a written language. 33 When Lenin and his
Revolutionary Party (Bolsheviks) came to power in 1917,
one of their first aims was to eradicate illiteracy and
improve the public education system. Lenin said:

"In order to take part in the revolution intelligently,
consciously and successfully, it is necessary to
study". 34

Lenin was particularly eager that everyone should be literate
so that he could then fully implement his planned programme
of political education.
"Soviet government decrees on public education issued immediately after the Great October Socialist Revolution were intended to bring about the practical implementation of the theoretical principles of Marxism and of the Party's demands in the sphere of education". 35

The Bolshevik Government wanted to create a New Soviet Person who would be a socialist in the first instance, and then develop into a communist in a newly-developed communist society. Every person was to be given the opportunity for an all-round development and brought up to be politically aware, patriotic, public-spirited and inspired by collectivism. With the help of a teaching force imbued with these characteristics, the new government hoped to begin to educate the population to become communists.

One of the main goals of communism is the elimination of class divisions of society. The abolition of capitalism and private enterprise and the recognition of manual labour as being as important for society as more intellectually-demanding jobs were also part of the new government's tasks. They also severed all religious links with education and the state.

Present Tasks

The USSR has not yet achieved Lenin's aim to become a fully-developed communist state and may not do so for many years, but in 1967, L.I. Brezhnev declared that it had now achieved 'developed socialism', and political education continues to be an important feature. The USSR Minister of
Education, M.A. Prokof'ev, wrote in 1981:

"Conditions of developed socialism require school knowledge to become a firm basis for a Marxist-Leninist view in its graduates". 36

The late Soviet leader L.I. Brezhnev is quoted as saying that Soviet youth should have a mastery of Marxist-Leninist theory, which does not mean rote learning but rather a 'mastery of the very essence of the Marxist-Leninist world view' which he said should include an ability to withstand 'alien influences'. 37

At the 26th Party Congress, V.V. Grishin referred to ideological threats from outside the Soviet Union:

"World imperialism and its accomplices are extending their hostile propaganda directed at undermining the ideological foundations of socialism. Our class enemies are slandering the policy of the CPSU and of the Soviet state and are trying to influence unstable people and to implant in them views and moral traits which are alien to us". 38

The Soviet leadership is concerned that its young people should not be affected by external influences, especially from Western society but should, instead, follow the Party programme and ignore disruptive factions, such as nationalist and religious groups.

In 1975, the country made ten-year secondary education compulsory for all young people, and in 1981 it was stated in an article in the teachers' journal Sovetskaya pedagogika:
"The school itself is in its entirety a system devoted to the production of good communists". 39

All school subjects are used for this purpose, including physical education, but mainly history and social sciences and, in general, political education in schools is increasing. At 1 January 1981, more than 800,000 teachers in general education schools were members or candidate members of the Communist Party 40 and a further 700,000 were in the Komsomol. 41 This meant that every fourth teacher was a Communist Party member and that, of the total Party membership working in education, more than 60 per cent were teaching in general education schools. 42 In this way, the Party can be fairly sure that its views are being put forward correctly by a large number of teachers. However, in 1981 at the 26th Party Congress, USSR Minister of Education M.A. Prokof'ev warned against:

"'Reactionary bourgeois pedagogical theories and concepts' which threaten to revive a 'petty bourgeois and nationalistic outlook' among ideologically immature pedagogues". 43

Student teachers and serving teachers must all attend courses which include a substantial amount of political education.*

* Teacher education is explained in Chapter VII.
The Present System of Education

The Soviet education system is shown in Figure 2 and indicates the progression from nurseries to postgraduate research work. All Soviet children undertake a ten-year (11-year) compulsory education which begins when they are seven (6) years of age and ends when they are seventeen. Before and after these ages, education is optional. All educational programmes are centrally directed by the various education ministries in Moscow and are subject to strict government control although individual Republics and institutions may make minor changes to suit their own local conditions and needs.

Administration

The education system is entirely state run and the following ministries exercise control over different parts of the system:

i) The USSR Ministry of Education and each Republican ministry of education - all types of general education schools, preschool institutions, extramural establishments, teacher training institutes and schools;

ii) The USSR Ministry of Higher and Secondary Specialised Education and the corresponding Republican ministries - universities, institutes (polytechnical, technical, agricultural, economic, law, teacher training,

* From September 1985, children began their general education at six (instead of seven) years of age in schools or in a reorganised final class in kindergartens. This is likely to take some years to organise for all children of this age group.
medical, institutes of physical culture and institutes of culture and art) and secondary specialised educational establishments;

iii) The State Committee of the USSR for Vocational Training and the relevant state committees of the Union Republics organise vocational schools.

Each of the above state-administrative bodies directs the public education system through the Union Republican Ministries and departments which are subordinate to them. They then direct all the work of each educational establishment of their category in their Republic. 44

The education system is entirely state-financed and an amount is allocated annually from the state budget for this purpose. As well as money from this budget additional sums are also paid by other state-directed public organisations such as industrial ministries, co-operatives, trade unions and collective and state farms towards the building and equipping of new schools, particularly in rural areas or where large new industrial enterprises are being constructed. 45

The Soviet public education system includes the following types of educational provision: preschool, general secondary, extramural, vocational, specialised secondary and higher education. At the end of 1983, there were reported to be a total of 105.7 million children and students in attendance at the country's educational institutions including 44.3 million pupils in general education schools 46 and a further 15 million who were said to regularly attend preschool institutions. 47
Each section of the education system involving children (up to 17 years of age) is described below and is shown in Figure 2.

Preschool Education

Preschool education is the first stage of the Soviet education system. In 1983, there were reported to be 132,800 permanent preschool establishments. On average, every second child under the age of seven (6) attends one and in large industrial cities the figure is 80 to 90 per cent. In 1985, there were said to be 17 million children in preschool education with plans to increase places to 20 million by 1990.

Preschool establishments cater for children from the age of a couple of months to seven (6) years of age. There are several types of preschool institution:

i) nursery - yasli (two months to three years)

ii) kindergartens - detsky sad (three to seven (6) years)

iii) nursery-kindergartens - yasli-sadi (two months to seven (6) years)

For the purpose of this study they will all be referred to by the general term 'kindergartens'. Before 1959, nurseries and kindergartens were usually housed in separate buildings but a government Resolution in that year called for them to combine and most have since been built in that way.

* From September 1985, where there are insufficient places in schools, six-year olds will receive the curriculum of school class I in the kindergarten, sometimes with the assistance of schoolteachers.
FIGURE 2

THE EDUCATION SYSTEM IN THE SOVIET UNION

Note: From 1985 schools will begin to enrol children at six years of age in class I.

Adapted from: E.J. King, Other Schools and Ours, (London, 1979), p. 349.
To comply with the needs of working mothers the preschool education system provides kindergartens where children are looked after for up to fourteen hours each working day, with two shifts of staff. Some provide boarding accommodation so that children whose mothers work on the night shift may stay over. Others provide for children to stay as boarders during the week and go home for weekends.

Physically- and mentally-handicapped children may attend special kindergartens where they receive care and training appropriate to their needs. Children who have been seriously ill and require medical care may be referred to a sanatorium-kindergarten by their doctor for up to a year. To give maximum benefit to a sick child the sanatorium-kindergartens are usually situated in the countryside. The city of Leningrad, for example, has a children's health settlement called 'Sunshine', situated on the Karelian Isthmus, offering stays of two months to a year to children in need of health treatment in its twelve separate establishments.

In rural areas, temporary preschool institutions are set up according to seasonal requirements, such as harvest time. Part-time kindergartens are, in some cities, staffed by volunteer teachers and allow mothers to work just a few hours each day, the children being looked after for three to four hours at a time.

The Soviet government considers the provision of preschool education for all who require it to be justified for the following reasons. A mother may return to work
whilst her child is still quite young and this makes possible the second wage that many Soviet families find essential to maintain a reasonable standard of living. She may also continue her education if she wishes and take the opportunity to enhance her own social status in society.

The child is supposed to receive qualified and close attention from his teachers (this is thought not always possible from the parents), and will be taught to walk, speak, think and do things with his/her hands. Through constant communication with other children he/she should become more independent, developed and alert. Because personality is thought to be shaped in early childhood the constant care and attention given to children in kindergartens should ensure that they are healthy, developing well physically and with a sound foundation for their future mental development.

The benefit to the State is that the child is being educated (and influenced) from a very early age by specially-trained teachers in such a way that the societal needs are instilled in him/her from the outset (see above) and this, explained a kindergarten headmistress, "cannot be done properly in the family" 51 - an opinion which has always been held by Soviet governments.

That preschool education prepares children well for entry into school is confirmed by a Soviet educationalist: ".... six year olds who have attended kindergartens attain, on average, a higher level of development and prove better prepared for school than their peers who have been reared under family conditions". 52
Despite the obvious advantages of preschool education, there are insufficient places for all children whose parents wish them to attend, especially in towns where new apartment blocks are being built. However, new housing areas are designed to include preschool establishments and Soviet law stipulates that they must take up no less than five per cent of new housing schemes and that factories which employ more than 500 women must also provide kindergartens.

The administration of preschool education is the joint responsibility of the USSR Ministry of Health and the USSR Ministry of Education. In each Republic the respective Republican ministries oversee the kindergartens, some of which are financed by the Ministry of Education and others by industrial enterprises or state or collective farms. In Leningrad, for example, of the one thousand or so kindergartens, 80 per cent are financed by the City's Ministry of Education and 20 per cent by industrial enterprises. The Headmistress of the Solnyshko kindergarten in Brest explained that it had been built in 1979 by a factory which makes gas stoves. She said that finance comes from the annual budget allocated by the state to the Ministry of Gas Industries and the kindergarten has a bank account into which the Ministry puts money for its upkeep. At Kindergarten No 5 in Leningrad, the Headmistress explained that finance is provided by the Bolshevik factory and that 80 per cent of the children's parents work in the factory.

Preschool education is neither compulsory nor free, and most parents pay a nominal fee which is calculated
according to their earnings. At the Bolshevik Factory's kindergarten in Leningrad, parents pay, on average, 12 roubles per month which is said to be 20 per cent of the true cost. This sum includes up to four meals a day. The Headmistress explained that, from July 1984, parents with four children or more will pay no fees at all. 58

The researcher has made three official visits to Soviet kindergartens, one in Brest and two in Leningrad. Each was the combined type - purpose-built, spacious and well-equipped. (foreign visitors are, naturally, shown the best examples). However, in 1981, she also made two unofficial visits to Leningrad kindergartens - one housed all preschool ages in an old building which had been converted into a kindergarten and the other comprised three separate but adjacent buildings with children of different ages in each. The exterior of each building was extremely shabby but inside, although less spacious and less well-equipped than the purpose-built kindergartens, they were meticulously clean and tidy.

Preschool children are divided into age groups:

i) first group of early age  2.5 months to 1 year
ii) second group of early age  1 to 2 years
iii) first junior group  2 to 3 years
iv) second youngest group  3 to 4 years
v) middle group  4 to 5 years
vi) older group  5 to 6 years
vii) school preparatory group (from September 1985 will be class I of general schools)  6 to 7 years
Although the preschool system makes provision for children from just a couple of months of age, many now enter at 12 to 18 months since from 1981 mothers may take maternity leave from work with partial pay for one year and may remain at home without pay for a further six months and still retain their jobs. Formerly, they have been allowed 112 days leave with full pay and the right to return to their jobs after one year's leave. The new policy was introduced by the government as an incentive to couples to have more children in an attempt to counter the falling birthrate in the European areas of the country as explained earlier in this Chapter.

Because preschool education serves so many important purposes in the Soviet Union, it is logical that the activities in its institutions should be centrally controlled by the state. The Soviet government has always promoted preschool education and based its format on the work of two of the foremost Soviet pedagogues of the initial period, N.K. Krupskaya and A.S. Makarenko as explained above. The USSR Ministry of Education produced its first curriculum for kindergartens in 1932 and since then has issued updated versions which must be followed

* In the Far East, Siberia and northern regions this is 50 roubles per month and in the rest of the country - 35 roubles.
in every kindergarten. They are compiled by researchers at the Institute of Preschool Education at the USSR Academy of Pedagogical Sciences in Moscow, and draw upon the work of researchers based in all parts of the country who conduct centrally-planned research. One such researcher is N.A. Notkina, a physical education lecturer at the Preschool Education Department of the Herzen Pedagogical Institute in Leningrad, who has conducted research into the content of physical education activities for preschool children and submitted a thesis on the subject in 1981 for the degree Candidate of Sciences (Kandidat nauk).

Programmes of activities for each age group are produced by the USSR Ministry of Education and are sent to kindergartens in booklet form with broad outlines of the work to be covered. This is known as the Programma vospitaniya i obucheniya v detskom sadu (Curriculum of upbringing and education in the kindergarten). In addition, text books are published which offer advice in conducting each aspect of the syllabus.

Preschool education is said to have three main aims:

i) with the family to form the foundations of a child's personality;

ii) to carry out the communist education of preschool children;

*a All research work in the USSR in the field of education is conducted in a planned and controlled manner and is coordinated by the USSR Academy of Pedagogical Sciences.

*b Candidate of Sciences is a research degree whose British equivalent is roughly a Ph.D.
iii) to prepare children for school. 61
and it tries to achieve these through children's physical, mental, labour, moral and aesthetic education. 62

Much of the work with the youngest children is done with individuals and, as they become older, they work in increasingly larger groups. The activities include (for the youngest children) learning how to speak and walk and, as well as play activities, there are also lessons of a very simple form with times for meals, walks and sleep (each kindergarten has a cot or bed for every child).

Examples of the recommended daily timetable for two age groups: 2 to 3 years and 5 to 6 years are given in Tables 9 and 10. They include details of how time with the family should be spent as well as kindergarten times and activities. Table 11 lists the number of lessons each week for the age groups two to six years. The six to seven-years age group has been omitted since this now uses a school curriculum and was not included in the most recent kindergarten literature (from 1984).

There are two parts to the work of preschool education:

i) The organisation of the lives and upbringing of the children;

ii) Teaching in the lessons. 63

The former occurs throughout the day, including lesson time, and teaches children to co-operate and work with each other and with adults. The latter occurs when specific subject material is taught in the lessons in accordance with the syllabus. The lessons are relatively short and
### TABLE 9

**EXAMPLE OF THE TIMETABLE IN KINDERGARTENS FOR CHILDREN OF THE FIRST JUNIOR GROUP (2 TO 3 YEARS OF AGE)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>At Home</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.30-7.30</td>
<td>Get up, wash and dress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>In the Kindergarten</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.00-8.00</td>
<td>Reception, inspection, taking temperatures, games, morning gymnastics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.00-8.30</td>
<td>Breakfast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.30-9.00</td>
<td>Games/play, preparation for lessons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.00-9.30</td>
<td>Lessons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.30-9.50</td>
<td>Preparation for a walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.50-11.30</td>
<td>Walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.30-11.50</td>
<td>Return from the walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.50-12.30</td>
<td>Lunch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.30-15.00</td>
<td>Sleep</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.00-15.30</td>
<td>Gradual getting up, air and water tempering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.30-16.00</td>
<td>Afternoon snack</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.00-16.20</td>
<td>Play-lessons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.20-16.40</td>
<td>Preparation for a walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.40-18.00</td>
<td>Walk, play</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.00-18.20</td>
<td>Return from the walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.20-18.45</td>
<td>Supper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.45-19.00</td>
<td>Children leave to go home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>At Home</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.00-19.50</td>
<td>Walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.50-20.20</td>
<td>Quiet play, washing and undressing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.20-6.30 (7.30)</td>
<td>Go to bed, sleep for the night</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Notes:** Swimming may be included during the day (every day in warm weather) where facilities permit.

**Source:** Tipovaya programma vospitanija i obucheniya v detskom sadu, (Moscow, 1984), p50.
### TABLE 10

**EXAMPLE OF THE TIMETABLE IN KINDERGARTENS FOR CHILDREN OF THE OLDER GROUP (5 TO 6 YEARS OF AGE)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>At Home</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.30-7.30</td>
<td>Get up, wash and dress'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>In the Kindergarten</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.00-8.30</td>
<td>Reception, inspection, play, morning gymnastics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.30-8.55</td>
<td>Breakfast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.55-9.10</td>
<td>Play, preparation for lessons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.10-10.10</td>
<td>Lessons - when two lessons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>when three lessons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.10-10.30</td>
<td>Preparation for a walk (after two lessons)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(after three lessons)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.30(11.00)-12.35</td>
<td>Walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.35-12.50</td>
<td>Return from the walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.50-13.20</td>
<td>Lunch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.20-15.20</td>
<td>Sleep</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.20-15.50</td>
<td>Gradual getting up, air and water tempering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.50-16.10</td>
<td>Afternoon snack</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.10-16.40</td>
<td>Play, preparation for work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.40-17.00</td>
<td>Preparation for a walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.00-18.10</td>
<td>Walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.10-18.20</td>
<td>Return from walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.20-18.45</td>
<td>Supper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.45-19.00</td>
<td>Leave to return home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>At Home</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.00-20.15</td>
<td>Walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.15-20.45</td>
<td>Quiet play, washing and undressing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.45-6.30(7.30)</td>
<td>Go to bed, sleep for the night</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Notes:** 1 Swimming may be included where facilities permit.

**Source:** Tipovaya programma vospitaniya v detskom sadu, (Moscow, 1984), pp120-121.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 11</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>THE WEEKLY LESSONS FOR EACH PRESCHOOL AGE GROUP - AGES 2 TO 6 YEARS</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### First Junior Group (2 to 3 Years)

1. Music  
2. Physical culture  
3. Expressive activities (drawing, modelling, applique)  
4. Speech development and acquaintance with one's surroundings  
5. Construction  
6. Educational games for sensory training  

**Total** 10

### Second Junior Group (3 to 4 Years)

1. Acquaintance with one's surroundings  
2. Construction, mathematics  
3. Speech development  
4. Artistic literature  
5. Drawing  
6. Music  
7. Physical culture  
8. Modelling, applique  

**Total** 10

contd ....
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Middle Group (4 to 5 Years)</th>
<th>Older Group (5 to 6 Years)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Acquaintance with one's surroundings</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Applique, construction</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Speech development</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Mathematics</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Drawing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Music</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Physical culture</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Artistic literature, modelling</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>10</strong></td>
<td><strong>15</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: *Tipovaya programma vospitaniya i obucheniya v detskom sadu*, (Moscow, 1984), p.159.
infrequent for these young children in an otherwise long day of mainly play and physical activities in the kinder-
garten. Chapter III of this study deals exclusively with preschool physical education.

The health-care of preschool children is considered to be of vital importance. In an interview with the researcher, I.A. Kutusova, Head of the Leningrad City Methodological Centre for Preschool Education said:

"We regard the good health of preschool children to be vital, both for society and for the narrower job of education". 

Each child is medically examined before entry and regularly during their time at the kindergarten and full medical records are kept. *a Every kindergarten employs at least one doctor and nurse and, in addition, children are examined by specialists and close contact is maintained between the kindergarten and each child's parents or guardians.

The staff of preschool institutions are usually females although there are recent moves to encourage men to work in kindergartens and they tend to be promoted in the profession more speedily than women. *b The teaching staff are known as vospitateli (upbringers) and are mostly graduates of the country's 229 specialised secondary-level teacher training schools which have preschool

*a See Chapter III on Preschool Physical Education for details of children's health care.

*b See Chapter VII for details of men training for work in preschool education.
courses or of the 39 pedagogical institutes which offer a higher education to kindergarten staff. Graduates of the pedagogical institutes are the most highly qualified and can usually progress more swiftly within the profession to become a kindergarten head, a teaching methods specialist or a lecturer in a teacher training institution.

Each upbringer works a six or seven-hour shift and so the children have two for the whole year. In addition, each group normally has an assistant (usually a woman) who may be unqualified or a student teacher. She wears a white coat and hat and helps the upbringer who is in charge of the group's activities and teaching. The assistant helps wash, dress, feed and walk the children and prepares the materials and tidies up after each activity (because of staff shortages some upbringers are trained whilst working in kindergartens, they study at night school and may first become assistants).

Preschool teaching staff are appointed by the USSR Ministry of Education and each Republican ministry of education. Medical staff are appointed by the USSR and Republican ministries of health.

Every five years, each kindergarten upbringer must attend an inservice course to update their work. In Leningrad this is organised and co-ordinated by staff of the City Methodological Centre which the researcher visited in 1981. Meetings are also arranged with preschool

* See Chapter VII for inservice teacher training.
staff to discuss music, art, nature studies, play and physical education. At the Centre there is a study room equipped with printed materials where teachers can meet subject specialists, bring children's work and receive advice on the planning and teaching of their own work. There is also an art room where children's work is displayed, a nature room with a collection of plants and information on their care, and a music room with examples of types of musical instruments and information on methods of teaching music to different ages of preschool children.

The researcher's visits to Soviet kindergartens have indicated a major difference between preschool education in the USSR and in England and Wales. In the former, all the work is conducted in accordance with centrally-controlled syllabuses and is the result of a great deal of research work. However, in England and Wales there is no set preschool syllabus and no central control of the work done. The Soviets have clearly recognised the value of educating children from early childhood as put forward by A.S. Makarenko in the early period of Soviet education:

"The main foundations of a child's education are laid before the age of five years and so you must conduct 90 percent of a person's education before this time". Soviet educational theory also holds the view that artistic ability is not inborn and so, through preschool education, it aims to influence the future schoolchild:

"Contrary to the view which is widely disseminated in foreign pedagogy and psychology that artistic ability is inborn and develops spontaneously in
the child independent of educational influences, research by Soviet psychologists (A.N. Leontiev, B.M. Teplov and others) and educationalists (E.A. Flerina, N.A. Vetlugina, N.P. Sakulina and others) indicates that this type of ability forms in childhood and that the child's environment, the character of his activity and his upbringing play a substantial part in its formation". 70

They believe, therefore, that kindergarten staff should actively introduce children to music, art and literature in order to encourage development of their artistic ability. As the children grow older and more able to cope with complex concepts they progress to the academic subjects of the general school.

General Education Schools

Secondary education in the Soviet Union lasts for 10 (11) years, is compulsory, co-educational and free, begins at the age of seven (six) and continues for ten (11) years. The 1984 Educational Reforms made provision for the school starting age to be six years and this will take place gradually over a number of years as additional places for pupils are created and teachers are trained to work with the younger children (experimental groups had already been operating for several years). Also taken into account, says the Document announcing the Reforms, will be "parents wishes, children's levels of development and local conditions". 71 As commented earlier, at first a number of children will continue to enter school at the
age of seven years while six-year olds will be taught from 1985 according to one common programme both in schools and in senior kindergarten groups. 72

In schools where children start at the age of seven, they are in class I and leave either at the end of class VIII or at the end of class X. Where they begin school at six, class numbers are altered and they join class I but leave either at the end of class IX or class XI. Because not all children can begin school at six, this starting age is not yet compulsory. Since not all children attend kindergartens and there are, anyway, insufficient preschool places for all whose parents wish them to attend, it is likely to be some years before there is a compulsory school starting age of six.

School education lasts for ten (11) years and in non-Russian language schools the term of study may be extended for a further year. Most general education schools cater for all school classes with pupils of 7 to 18 (6 to 18) years of age but in some places, usually remote rural areas, they may have separate schools for primary classes I to III (I to IV), known as primary schools (nachal'naya shkola), incomplete middle schools (nepolnaya srednyaya shkola) for classes IV to VIII (V to IX), and middle general education and professional schools (srednyaya obshcheobrazovatelnaya i professional' naya shkola) for classes IX and X (X and XI). The trend recently has been to increase the number of schools which can cater for classes I to X (I to XI) (srednyaya shkola) and to decrease the numbers of the others as shown in Table 12.
**TABLE 12**

**THE NUMBER OF GENERAL EDUCATION DAY SCHOOLS 1970 TO 1981**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of schools (in 000s) - total</td>
<td>174.6</td>
<td>149.5</td>
<td>134.6</td>
<td>132.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary - classes I-III (I-IV)</td>
<td>74.5</td>
<td>47.9</td>
<td>34.5</td>
<td>32.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incomplete secondary - IV-VIII (V-IX)</td>
<td>53.8</td>
<td>47.7</td>
<td>42.2</td>
<td>41.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complete secondary - I-X (I-XI)</td>
<td>44.2</td>
<td>51.5</td>
<td>55.4</td>
<td>56.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total pupil numbers - (in millions)</td>
<td>45.4</td>
<td>42.6</td>
<td>39.6</td>
<td>39.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In primary schools</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In incomplete secondary schools</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In complete secondary schools</td>
<td>30.2</td>
<td>32.4</td>
<td>32.1</td>
<td>32.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: Figures are for the start of each academic year.*

The total number of pupils has fallen over the ten years shown in Table 12 by 5.9 million. This is due mainly to the long-term effects on population figures by Second World War losses and other factors explained earlier in this Chapter. Falling pupil numbers have probably made closure of some of the smaller primary schools essential and schools offering education to all pupil ages are no doubt more economical than those which have the different ages on different sites. Additionally, the school syllabus is designed for both primary and secondary school ages and is continuous. It is, therefore, logical to have just one school unlike the split system in England and Wales.

At the end of class VIII (IX), all pupils sit an examination, the results of which help determine whether they remain at the school for classes IX and X (X and XI) or enrol in a specialised secondary or vocational school (both are described below). A small number, put in 1983 at 0.8 per cent of those who complete class VIII (IX), do not go on to any further education. Others who wish to go into a job after class VIII (IX) may also attend an evening (shift) school to complete their secondary education. In 1983, there were said to be 4.8 million students in evening (shift) schools. (See Table 13)

The teknikums and specialised secondary schools each offer a three year course as a continuation of the incomplete secondary school curriculum to students who enter after leaving school at the end of class VIII (IX) and also offer a professional-vocational training.

* These are explained more fully in Chapter VII on The Training of Teachers and Coaches.
**TABLE 13**

**EVENING AND VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS 1970 TO 1981**

(Numbers in thousands)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of general secondary</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>schools (day)</td>
<td>44.2</td>
<td>51.5</td>
<td>55.4</td>
<td>56.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of evening/shift</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>schools</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of professional-</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>technical schools (tekhnikums)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of specialised</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>secondary schools</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pupils who stay on at school until the end of class X (XI) must take an examination and receive a leaving certificate which can help them enter a teknikum or specialised secondary school for a shortened job training of one year or, if they received good grades, entry into higher education, and some go straight into a job.

The Soviet school, as well as being a major political socialisation institution, is also charged with the task of preparing young people for socially-useful work in the national economy. This means that they should have a willing attitude for work, be literate, numerate, able to communicate and have a basic scientific-technical knowledge, which they can apply to any type of profession. The 1984 Educational Reforms envisage supplementing the term 'universal secondary education' with 'universal professional education' during the course of one or two Five-Year Plans as the schools, teknikums and specialised secondary schools prepare every young person either for a profession or for entry into higher education. The school curriculum is shown in Table 14. It is drawn up by the USSR Ministry of Education and may be altered only slightly by each Republic to suit their own conditions. The curriculum is then compulsory for each school of the Republic concerned. Instruction is usually in Russian but in some Republics it is in the national language. However, the teaching of Russian is still compulsory.

Each new school year begins on 1 September which, from 1984, has been declared a national holiday - the Day

* See Chapters IV to VI and Appendices E, F and H for full details of the physical education syllabus.
TABLE 14

MODEL CURRICULUM FOR THE SECONDARY GENERAL SCHOOL (1985)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PERIODS PER WEEK PER FORM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

First language and literature |
Mathematics |
Principles of Information Science and Computer |
Technology |
History |
Principles of Soviet State and Law |
Social Studies |
Ethics and Psychology of Family Life |
The World Around Us |
Nature Study |
Geography |
Biology |
Physics |
Astronomy |
Chemistry |
Technical Drawing |
Foreign Language |
Art |
Music and Singing |
Physical Education |
Elementary Military Training |
Labour and Vocational Training (1) |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Socially-useful Productive Labour (Compulsory) (2) |
Options |
Labour Practice (in days) (3) |

Notes:

(1) Vocational training takes place in forms VII-XI. One period a week in each of these forms is devoted to the course 'Principles of Production. Choosing a Career'.

(2) The time allocated to compulsory socially-useful productive labour may be concentrated.

(3) 3 hours a day in forms V to VII, 4 in forms VIII to IX, 6 in form XI.

of Knowledge - and ends on 30 May for classes I to VII (I to VIII), 10 June for Class VIII (IX) and 25 June for classes IX and X (X and XI). The school day begins at around 8.00am and ends between one and two o'clock in the afternoon allowing children free afternoons to pursue extracurricular activities either in or outside school. *

In some areas, especially in cities, where there are shortages of school buildings, a shift system operates and half the pupils attend school in the morning and then go home and the second group uses the building in the afternoon and early evening. The researcher has noted that this occurs in many Soviet schools and indicates a serious shortage of school buildings. It also permits considerable financial savings and allows second-shift pupils to utilise out-of-school activities such as sports schools in the mornings when first-shift pupils are having their lessons and vice versa. All schools operate a six-day week and, if a national holiday has disrupted the week, they go into school on Sunday instead.

Pupils usually wear school uniform which for boys consists of dark blue trousers and jacket with their Young Pioneer badge on the top of the left sleeve and for girls, a brown dress with white collar, and some wear white pinafores. Boys and girls who are members also wear their scarlet Young Pioneer neckties. To the Western observer they appear very smart but, at the same time, rather old-fashioned.

* See later in this Chapter for details of activities directed by children's organisations and Chapters V and VI for extracurricular and out-of-school sports activities.
In 1983, there were said to be 2.6 million teachers working in general education schools. Those working with the primary classes I to III (I to IV) usually stay with a class and teach that class for most of their lessons. The exceptions are music, physical education and art where specialists are being introduced. Teachers of classes IV to X (V to XI) may be attached to one class as a form teacher and, in addition, are subject specialists teaching different classes. Teachers' qualifications, training and inservice training are explained fully in Chapter VII. Traditionally, schools have been staffed by women since the pay has been too low to attract men, but teachers' pay has increased recently and men have started to be attracted to the profession. It is quite usual to find women in the position of headteacher, despite all schools being co-educational.

As well as schools making provision for different age groups, there are also various types of schools. However, all are administered by the USSR and Republican ministries of education and are funded from the State Education Budget. Some schools may receive additional finance and assistance from patrons such as industrial enterprises.

**Prolonged-day Schools** - These are otherwise ordinary schools which make provision for pupils of classes I to VIII (I to IX) to remain at school after lessons until late afternoon or early evening. This is chiefly because both parents are at work and children would, otherwise, be alone at home for most of the afternoon (or the morning if in a two-shift school). The system of prolonged-day
schools was first introduced in the late 1950s and by 1985, 50 per cent of all schools were said to be of this type with 14 million pupils in their groups and almost half the pupils in Classes I to VIII (I-IX) are now in these groups. It is planned to increase the number of prolonged-day places in order to help free parents, particularly mothers, of child-care responsibilities during working hours. This, it is hoped, will help to stem the decline in birthrate and offer a solution to the still acute labour shortages in many areas.

Children also derive benefits from staying on at school: they are given a hot meal, can do their homework, may seek advice from teachers if they have problems with their schoolwork, join hobby clubs, have a 'sports hour',* read books and be taken on visits to the cinema, theatre, museums or on hiking trips. In this way, they are helped with their schoolwork, receive meals, have physical exercise and can undertake interesting activities. This is understandably preferred by many parents to having their children at home unsupervised.

In some prolonged-day schools the regular teachers stay on to assist with these activities and are paid extra for this. Other staff come in specially and are known as vospitateli (upbringers) and in some cases older pupils assist with activities.

* See Chapter V for a description of the 'sports hour' in prolonged-day schools, and examples of timetables of the day's activities.
The 1984 Educational Reforms supported prolonged-day schools and recommended:

"As material prerequisites are created it is necessary to develop the network of these schools in order fully to satisfy the demand for them". 79

Specialised Schools - Although the majority of schools offer a general education some have been designated 'specialised schools'. Their syllabus is biased towards a particular subject, for example, a foreign language, music, art, sport, *a mathematics or a science. They study all the other school subjects but, in the case of a foreign language school this is, for older pupils, through the medium of that language. In this way their fluency in the foreign language is assisted. *b Their study of the foreign language begins in class II (III) compared with class V (VI) in ordinary schools. In 1983, there were said to be more than 600 schools with emphasis on foreign language studies. 80

There is usually competition for entry into a specialised school and, since it is rather difficult to assess a 7 or 8 year old's linguistic, mathematical or

*a See Chapter VI for descriptions of schools with sports classes.

*b In 1983, the researcher visited School No 185 in Leningrad which specialises in English. A sixteen year old pupil acted as guide and interpreter and, although she spoke with a Russian accent, her English was clear and fluent.
scientific ability, it may be parents' influence, position and powers of persuasion which decides to whom places should be offered.

Some specialised schools offer education only to senior classes and entry to these is by competitive examination. Some offer boarding school accommodation to permit pupils from other areas to attend and take advantage of a specialised education. If a pupil fails to achieve prescribed standards then he/she is transferred back to an ordinary school to complete their education. In a sense, these specialised schools are out of place in the Soviet education system which claims to offer equal opportunities for all. This can hardly be true when the State pays for an elitist education for a few selected pupils. Since these schools tend to be in the cities, they favour urban children and there are, as yet, too few specialist subject boarding schools to cater for children from rural areas, so giving them less chance of access to higher education.

Boarding Schools (Internats) - Accommodation is provided along with schooling for children who, for a variety of reasons, may not be able to live at home. These include orphans, children who live too far from a school to travel every day, mentally and physically-ill children, delinquents and 'talented' children who attend specialised boarding schools for academic subjects, music, sport.

* Sports boarding schools are described in Chapter VI.
or ballet. Finance comes from the State budget, trade unions, co-operative organisations and collective farms. For most children, boarding school accommodation is provided either free of charge or is heavily subsidised.

In 1985, the researcher visited a boarding school in Brest for pupils suffering from scoliosis of the spine. The school provides free accommodation, treatment and education for around 240 children from the ages of 7 to 15 years and is one of six such schools in Byelorussia and one of 48 in the whole country. The school was founded in 1964 on the initiative of M.M. Nepravsky, Lecturer in Physical Education at the Brest Pedagogical Institute and, since 1969, has used the building of a former orphanage which was built after World War II to house the region's many orphans.

The school's Deputy Headmistress explained that class numbers are kept low - around 20 compared with 40 or more in other schools - to allow greater individual care and attention - and that for classes I to IV there is one class per year and for classes V to VIII there are two classes per year since it is in this later stage that the problem usually emerges.

Parents are told that without intensive treatment their children will grow up deformed and become invalids and most willingly agree to send their children to the school, explained the Deputy Headmistress. Children go

* See Chapter IV for a description of the health care and physical education programmes for children at this school.
home only infrequently since their treatment must be continuous, said the school's doctor T.P. Boreko.

The educational programme is the same as in ordinary schools but with an adapted physical education programme and a special timetable to cater for the children's specific health care needs as explained in Chapter IV.

**Sanatorium Schools** - These are short-stay boarding schools situated either in the countryside or at the seaside and offer accommodation, health-care and education to children who are physically weak, possibly as a result of an illness. They concentrate on strengthening the children's health whilst, at the same time, continuing their education. Children are referred to the sanatorium schools by their doctor and may stay between a few weeks and six months.
Recent Reforms and Future Trends in Education

In April 1984, the USSR Ministry of Education issued 'Reforms of General Educational and Professional Schools' in which it set out new tasks and changes:

"To raise the work of schools to new qualitative levels, corresponding to the conditions and requirements of the society of developed socialism". 

It again warned about harmful foreign influences:

"Under conditions of marked intensification of international relations we must increase our vigilance towards the intrigues of aggressive imperialist forces who carry out wild attacks on socialism and count on the political inexperience of young people".

and says, therefore, that young people should receive an ideological and political education based on Marxist-Leninist teaching.

The Reforms have the following aims:

i) to raise the quality of education and moral training; ensure a higher scientific level of teaching of every subject, give a firm mastery of science and improve ideological-political education, labour and moral training and aesthetic and physical development; perfect teaching plans and programmes, text books and teaching aids and methods of teaching and upbringing; avoid overloading the pupils and excessive complexity of teaching materials;

ii) to improve radically the organisation of labour training,
teaching and careers advice in general education schools; strengthen polytechnical, practical trends in teaching; considerably widen the preparation of qualified working personnel in the system of professional-technical teaching; complete the transition to universal professional education for all young people;

iii) to increase pupils' responsibility for the quality of studies, for maintaining discipline during learning and working and increase their social activity on the basis of developing self-government in pupils' collectives;

iv) to raise the social prestige of teachers and masters of industrial training and improve their theoretical and practical training and provide sufficient teachers for the public education system; increase salaries and improve teachers' material and living conditions;

v) to strengthen the material and technical bases of educational institutions including preschool and out-of-school establishments;

vi) to perfect the structure of the general education and professional school systems and the management of the education system.

The major changes in the education system as a result of the Reforms are to be as follows:

i) from 1985, children may begin their general education at six years of age - either in school or at a kindergarten and they will receive a common programme; elementary education will therefore last for four
years instead of three and allow more time for teaching in reading and numeracy;

ii) incomplete middle school (classes V to IX) to offer a five-year study of the sciences and help young people choose a career;

iii) complete secondary education to be given in classes X to XI and in professional-technical schools (tekhnikums) and middle special educational establishments;

iv) pupils in classes VII to XI may attend extra classes in science, mathematics or social sciences if they wish;

v) the number of IX formers entering professional-technical schools (tekhnikums) is expected to double and greater links will be formed between schools and professional-technical schools (which is a development of Lenin's ideas about a single work-training polytechnical school);

vi) increase young people's sense of patriotism;

vii) improve art and aesthetic education;

viii) increase the amount of physical education so that it is done every day;

ix) raise the level and effectiveness of initial military training in general and professional schools to prepare males for conscription;

x) raise the authority of the Komsomol and Young Pioneer organisations and increase their role in political education and use of pupil collectives;

* This is explained in Chapter IV.
xi) improve the work of Octobrist groups for small children;

xii) improve labour training to encourage in pupils a love of work and respect for people who work;

xiii) improve organised entry into professions according to the needs of each area;

xiv) ensure that each school has links with at least one industrial enterprise;

xv) improve preschool education with a new programme taking into account age physiology and psychology, national cultures and traditions;

xvi) increase and improve prolonged-day schools;

xvii) further develop out-of-school establishments including those at pupils' places of residence; *

xviii) improvement and expansion of the system of special schools and boarding schools for children with health problems;

xix) parents to be called upon to support the work of schools and to ensure that their children behave correctly, including showing respect to their parents;

xx) improvements in teacher training including raising teachers' qualifications;

xxi) increase the number of teachers and teacher training establishments;

xxii) improve rural schools and try to stop young people leaving rural areas;

xxiii) encourage greater local Party involvement in schools.

* See Chapter VI which explains children's clubs at their places of residence.
It is envisaged that the main measures of the Reforms are to be implemented gradually in the course of the Eleventh and Twelfth Five-Year Plans (1984 to 1990) and all workers, teachers and parents are asked to help in their implementation. It is claimed that:

"The aims of the Reforms are noble, highly moral and humane. Their realisation will have great significance for raising the level of education and culture of Soviet people and will create better conditions for teaching and bringing up our growing generations, preparing them for life, work and active social activity. All this will have a beneficial effect on strengthening the ideological-political, economic and defence potential of our country, the comprehensive progress of our society and its movement towards communism".

Children's Organisations and their Role in Political Socialisation

The Soviet education system uses two terms to describe its work with children - obuchenie and vospitanie. They both mean teaching or training but the former refers specifically to academic instruction, and the latter to upbringing, a term which in the Soviet Union means character training. Whilst the school system is responsible for academic instruction through its subject curricula and lessons, children's organisations assume the main responsibility for ensuring that upbringing takes place.
Young people's organisations are inseparably inter-linked with schools in as much as they are based in schools and have the same basic aims as the education system by involving almost all Soviet children in the Party's drive to create a communist society. In the West, children's organisations are usually outside school and run by autonomous bodies such as the Girl Guide and Boy Scout Movements, churches and youth clubs. However, in the Soviet Union, all children's organisations come under the general direction of the Communist Party and are funded from the main education budget. They offer such a wide variety of recreational, vocational and educational activities that, in theory, there is no need for most children to look elsewhere for ways to spend their free time.

The role of the children's organisations is quite clearly to produce a unified and acceptable form of behaviour in young people. At its meeting in June 1983, the Central Committee of the CPSU affirmed the following aims for its work with young people:

"An urgent matter in the ideological and mass-political work of the Party is to attract greater numbers of young people towards social-political activities and to bring them up in the spirit of devotion for communist ideals, to develop in them a sense of pride for their country and encourage them to work to contribute to its prosperity". 89

All children receive a certain amount of political instruction in school lessons but the children's
organisations, which are really huge collectives for political socialisation, help reinforce this work by applying the theory in everyday activities in and out of school.

From the age of seven, children are encouraged to join with their friends in enjoyable activities such as parades, festivals, ceremonies, sports competitions, trips and holidays when they can be taught to mix and work with others of their own and different ages, in other words, how to behave in Soviet society. Also provided are opportunities for learning experiences in areas including music, theatre, art, writing, hobbies such as model-making, sport, journalism and foreign languages. Some of these take place in school and others out of school in buildings specially set aside for children's organisations.

These organisations are also used during normal school times to channel children's behaviour and efforts in academic work to comply with the standards of moral behaviour espoused by Marxist-Leninist ideology. In doing so, they can greatly assist the teachers' work since many matters of discipline and assisting children who are weak in their school work are dealt with by children's organisations and peer pressure. 90

Since almost all children from the ages of 7 to 15 are members, these organisations are able to influence children's behaviour in school. The American, Bronfenbrenner, noted of grouping children into collectives:

"Since each child's status depends in part on the standing of the collective of which he is
a member, it is to each pupil's enlightened self-interest to watch over his neighbour, encourage the other's good performance and behaviour, and help him when he is in difficulty".  

and he added:

"In this system the children's collective becomes the agent of adult society...... The individual is taught to set the judgement of the group above his own and to subordinate his interests to those of the collective". 

It is in young people's organisations that the early training of Soviet citizens to become willing members of communist society begins. They start for each child at the age of seven and form a three-tiered system. Membership is voluntary, but at the early stages, is expected of all children, and can continue into adulthood when, at 28, entry into membership of the Communist Party may be possible. The three levels are:

i) Octobrists (Oktyabryata) ages 7-10 years  
ii) Young Pioneers (Pionery) ages 10-15 years  
iii) Komsomol' ages 15-28 years 

From the first level, movement to the second and then the third level and, ultimately to full Party membership is planned and carefully controlled but is not automatic. Details of the background and organisation of each group are given below.

Although directed overall by the Communist Party,
the children's organisations are run by the Komsomol which was formed in October 1918 by the new revolutionary government. 93 It was called the Rossiisky Kommunistichesky Soyuz Molodezhi (The Russian Communist Youth League), and the abbreviated name Komsomol was taken from the last three words of its name. The Komsomol was set up as the militant youth arm of the Party and was to train young people for Communist Party membership. 94 Membership of the Komsomol has risen as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Members</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1918</td>
<td>22,100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1926</td>
<td>1,780,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1936</td>
<td>3,981,777</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1949</td>
<td>9,283,289</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1958</td>
<td>18,825,327</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1966</td>
<td>23,050,700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1978</td>
<td>37,807,399</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983</td>
<td>41,802,565 95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In 1984, there were said to be 8 million Komsomol members among school pupils. 96

The Komsomol has its own publishing house Molodaya gvardiya which publishes 234 Komsomol and Young Pioneer magazines and newspapers 97 including the monthly magazine Pioneer for Young Pioneers, the twice-weekly newspaper Pionerskaya Pravda (Pioneer Truth) and for its Komsomol members, the monthly magazine Molodoi Kommunist (Young Communist) and the newspaper Komsomolskaya Pravda (Komsomol Truth). It also publishes books and is said to have produced some 40 million copies in 1980 for young people and those who work with them. 98 The Komsomol also broadcasts on the radio and television and employs
permanent staff who work in this media. 99

Komsomol members help with Young Pioneer activities and Young Pioneers help with the Octobrist movement. The Young Pioneer movement was founded in 1922 at the Fifth Komsomol Congress and was to be for children aged 10 to 14. 100 N.K. Krupskaya advocated that it should be organised along the lines of the by then banned Boy Scout Movement, since that organisation had proved attractive to young people and seemed to her to promote some of the personal qualities required of future communists. 101 The Young Pioneers have retained the Boy Scout motto 'Be Prepared' (Bud' gotov) and also use a similar emblem to the fleur-de-lys. The Young Pioneer movement was aimed at improving the political socialisation of schoolchildren. By 1925, there were 1.5 million Young Pioneers, 102 and by 1984 this figure had risen to 19,506,000. 103

In 1925, the Union of Little Octobrists, named in honour of the October Revolution, was set up for children of 9 and below as the junior section of the Young Pioneers. By 1926, there were said to be 273,909 Octobrists. 104 This movement was not as popular as the Young Pioneers and membership remained relatively low until 1957 when it was revived and the ages altered to 7 to 9 years rather than for preschool children. 105

The single aim of each of the three branches of children's organisations is political and is quite clear - the building of communism. 106 It relies on the belief that, as long as children can be persuaded to undertake Party-controlled activities, and if only these are offered,
then outside influences should be cut to a minimum.

The Octobrists

Membership of the Octobrists is voluntary for all children soon after they enter school and is automatic for those who wish to join since there are no entry requirements. It is open to children of the first three classes and members are required to learn the following rules of the organisation and behave accordingly:

i) Octobrists are future Pioneers.

ii) Octobrists are diligent, study well, like school and respect adults.

iii) Only those who like work may be called Octobrists.

iv) Octobrists are brave, honest and truthful children.

v) Octobrists are good friends who read, draw and live happily.

The initiation ceremony takes place on 7 November each year and is known as the 'Little Red Star Ceremony'. Each child is informed beforehand about the country's history, the Revolution, Lenin and of Soviet life. Young Pioneers also help them in this 'orientation' and the initiation ceremony is conducted in a joyful and friendly atmosphere to encourage the youngsters to feel happy to become Octobrists. They receive a little red five-pointed badge with a picture of Lenin as a baby in the middle as a symbol of their Octobrist membership and Young Pioneers are assigned to care for them and prepare them to become Young Pioneers.

Within their school classes, Octobrists are encouraged to work and play in groups - in this way the spirit of collectivism can begin to develop. Each class
is split into groups of five or six children known as *zvyozdochki* (little stars) and one of them is elected *komandir* (commander/leader). 108 This position is held by each 'little star' in turn and encourages leadership qualities. An older Young Pioneer or Komsomol member is put in charge of each group and is known as a *vozhaty* (Young Pioneer leader). In this way, Octobrists of class I learn the skills of living in their little star collective and Octobrist groups whilst working collectively under the leadership of their commander and Young Pioneer leader. 109

Each Octobrist is given a small job to do in the class such as 'blackboard monitor' or 'door monitor' and so learns to take a responsible part in the daily life of the collective.

The use of ritual and symbolism is considered important for all levels of the children's and young people's organisations to stimulate youngsters' emotions and interests; this includes meetings, parades, festivals and talks. 110 The badge too is symbolic with its picture of a very young Lenin and the five points of the star, representing workers of the five continents of the world.

The Young Pioneers

In their final year as Octobrists, children are prepared for entry into the Young Pioneers. This is not an automatic transfer as they must first prove themselves worthy of membership. Some go up at the age of nine, but most are ten and in class IV (V) when their school Young Pioneer council votes on entrants. At a ceremony at
which parents, teachers, friends, ex-servicemen and pensioners may be present, each new Young Pioneer recites a promise which affirms his/her patriotism and willingness to obey the Young Pioneer Laws which are given below:

A Pioneer is devoted to the country, the Party and communism.

A Pioneer prepares to become a Komsomol member.

A Pioneer emulates heroes of struggle and labour.

A Pioneer honours the memory of fallen fighters and prepares to defend the country.

A Pioneer is persistent in study, work and sport.

A Pioneer is an honest and loyal comrade who is always truthful.

A Pioneer is comrade and leader of the Octobrists.

A Pioneer is a friend to Pioneers and working people's children of all nations. 111

Symbolism and ritual continue to play an important part in the organisation - Young Pioneers wear a red triangular necktie and there is a salute, uniform, badge and banner. 112 All these were first advocated by N.K. Krupskaya who believed them to be features which would attract young people to the movement. 113

Like the Octobrists, Young Pioneers are grouped: with 6 to 8 other children they form a link (zveno), have an elected leader (vozhaty) and meet each week. Each zveno joins with two or three others to form a detachment (otryad) of 20 or more children. In each school the detachments join together to form a brigade (druzhina). The brigade is led by an elected council of three or more of the oldest Young Pioneer members and they elect a chairperson. The school head, senior teachers and the
senior Young Pioneer leader guide the council. 114

Young Pioneer leaders may be pupil Komsomol members, but the school's senior Young Pioneer leader is usually employed full-time in this position and has trained at one of the 24 pedagogical institutes or 157 teacher training colleges which offer a teaching qualification with a Young Pioneer leader specialism. 115 In 1981, there were said to be more than 120,000 qualified full-and part-time Young Pioneer leaders. 116

Although Young Pioneers are school-based, many of their activities take place out of school. Most towns have at least one Young Pioneer house and larger towns and cities have Young Pioneer palaces which are larger and better equipped. In 1979, there were 4785 Young Pioneer palaces and houses in the USSR. 117 Here children may attend educational, recreational and vocational groups and in some, sports schools. * The standards of the buildings vary, but the Central Young Pioneer Palace in Moscow and the Zhdanov Young Pioneer Palace in Leningrad, which is housed in the former Anichkov Palace, are considered to be the 'showpieces'.

The Zhdanov Young Pioneer Palace was the first in the Soviet Union to provide out-of-school facilities for

* See Chapter VI for further details of sports schools in Young Pioneer palaces.
recreational and cultural activities for the city's children when it opened in 1937, and it operates six days a week from 3.00 to 9.00pm with some 1000 children attending daily. 118 It has over 300 rooms and halls including laboratories, sports facilities, workshops, science study rooms, lecture and concert halls, cinemas and a library. There are clubs for a wide variety of activities including sport, chess, engineering, music, art, natural sciences, outdoor activities, geology and readers' clubs. There is also an International Friendship Club which has contact with young people abroad and its members are often asked to meet with parties of visiting schoolchildren. In 1983, a theatre was under construction in the Palace grounds, and this was to be large enough to seat 800 people. The Palace gardens are used for exhibitions and there is an outdoor theatre in which plays, shows and concerts are staged. 119 It houses three sports schools and the City Physical Education Methods Centre.

Other activities which are held out of school but are, nonetheless, organised from schools are Young Pioneer camps. These provide heavily subsidised countryside or seaside holidays for Young Pioneers during school vacations. In 1983, there were said to be more than 63,000 out-of-town camps and, additionally, urban camps which are non-residential and are held in city or town schools, parks or stadiums. * These continue Young Pioneer activities in vacation time.

* The organisation, direction and activities of Young Pioneer camps are explained in Chapter VI.
The work of the Young Pioneer movement has been summarised under the following headings in a handbook for student teachers:

i) ideologial, political and moral education;
ii) labour education;
iii) the formation of responsible attitudes towards learning as a basic civic duty and developing cognitive interests among children;
iv) aesthetic education;
v) physical culture and sport leading to comradeship, collectivism, patriotism, courage, composure, boldness and persistence. 120

and has been described by one Soviet writer as:

"... an active educating medium of society and a necessary part of communist education in the USSR". 121

Membership of the Young Pioneers is voluntary but may be withdrawn if a child misbehaves and is thought to be unworthy, although he/she is encouraged to reform and can be taken back into the organisation. Whilst not all children are Young Pioneers, the numbers who are not are very small and consist almost entirely of misbehavers. Since the activities of Young Pioneers form such an important part of school life, non-membership would set a youngster apart from his friends to an almost intolerable degree. Similarly, a non-conforming child would find himself/herself excluded from most out-of-school activities. This submission to conformity is a preparation for adult life when all Soviet people are expected to take their share of work in society and to comply with Soviet laws and
Party directives in all aspects of their lives.

The Komsomol

Almost all schoolchildren of the ages 10 to 15 years are Young Pioneers, but by no means all older pupils either wish, or are able, to become Komsomol members although all come under the influence of the organisation in school due to its domination of school-based activities.

The Komsomol's full title today is the Vsesoyuzny Leninskii Kommunisticheskii Soyuz Molodyozhi - VLKSM (the All-Union Leninist Communist Youth League). Their members are said to be "helpers and reserves of the CPSU" and the task of the organisation is to "educate young people in Marxist-Leninist ideology". In 1984, there were said to be around 8 million pupil Komsomol members, one-fifth of the total membership, yet only around 70 per cent of pupils of the eligible age were said to be members.

Only pupils who have achieved good marks in their academic subjects and have exemplary records as Young Pioneers are allowed to become Komsomol members. Only by having first been a good Komsomol member can anyone hope to be considered for Party membership and then they must have worked hard and first become a Candidate member. When they apply for a job, or for entry into higher or further education, it is very much to a school-leavers advantage to have a good character reference from his/her Komsomol group, as well as a good academic record. Similarly, job promotion is enhanced in the same way and the best jobs are often available only to Party members.
Pupils are aware of this and those who wish to pursue a career, particularly in an academic area, usually become Komsomol members and fulfil the obligations which are required of them.

Entry to the Komsomol is by sponsorship: each Young Pioneer must be recommended by the council of his/her Young Pioneer detachment, or by two Komsomol members or one full Party member. 126

In schools, Komsomol members undertake their own further political and social education. They also organise discipline among their members and participate in work schemes, especially through summer camps in the countryside when they help on collective and state farms or construction sites and are paid for this work. They also assist with the organisation of the Octobrist and Young Pioneer movements both in and out of school by becoming Young Pioneer leaders, directing activities such as sports competitions and giving talks to younger pupils. They also help prepare Young Pioneer members for entry into the Komsomol. 127

Soviet children's and youth organisations provide an all-embracing framework of activities for children inside and outside the school. The Party initiated its policy soon after coming to power of educating Soviet people from early childhood towards communism and conformity. The unified organisations bring together young people of the country's many different nationalities and help bond them into one Soviet people and may help break down some of the nationalistic feeling which exists.
The Octobrist and Young Pioneer organisations aim quite specifically to enrol all children of ages 7 to 15 and, although it does ban misbehavers, it also makes stringent efforts to help them reform and subsequently rejoin their ranks. On the other hand, the Komsomol organisation is deliberately more selective. It has been trying to improve its effectiveness and encourage a larger membership, yet continues to insist that they must be worthy of admittance. This is a preparation for Party membership which is open only to those who have proved themselves to be politically aware, well-educated and exemplary Soviet citizens. Their records during Komsomol and Young Pioneer membership are taken into account for this. In this way, selection and preparation for full Party membership begins at a relatively early age and, as noted earlier, around 30 per cent of senior pupils either choose not to undertake the work and commitment, or quite simply do not make the grade.

Inevitably, not all children are committed to Octobrist and Young Pioneer activities but, since these permeate most aspects of school life and out-of-school activities, they can scarcely avoid coming under their influence at some time.

The children's organisations greatly assist the sports activities and physical education of youngsters of school age since they encourage their members to join sports clubs and to take their GTO awards.

* See Chapter II and Appendix A for details of the GTO National Fitness Programme.
In Young Pioneer camps, great importance is placed upon the inclusion of several hours of sport and physical exercises daily.
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86. Ibid., p3.


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108. V.V. Lebedinsk, T.N. Mal'kovsk, Metodika vospitatel'noi raboty s pionerami i oktyabryatami, (Moscow, 1984), p104.

109. Ibid., p104.

110. Ibid., p113.


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CHAPTER II
THE DEVELOPMENT OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND SPORT IN THE USSR

The Development of Physical Education and Sport in Tsarist Russia

The Ordinary People

Soviet writing on the subject of physical education and sport in tsarist Russia makes only scant reference to the sporting activities of ordinary people. Professor N.I. Ponomaryov indicates that they were exploited and took part in:

"Only the traditional types of physical exercise: swimming, skating and skiing, wrestling, ball-games, gorodki, and some others". 1

Before 1861, the great bulk of the population were serfs. Many lived 'tied' existences, they were worked hard, cruelly exploited and ill-treated by their masters.

When serfdom was abolished in 1861, many people found themselves worse off: they had 'freedom', but no land and no money to buy any. Virtually all peasants were illiterate and suffered from hunger, poverty and high infantile mortality. In 1885, the Society of Russian Surgeons reported a peasant death-rate of thirty-six in every thousand owing to a deficiency in food 2 and, in 1897, the average life expectancy was just 32 years of age for European Russia.

The loss of their work on the land and the lure of employment in urban areas owing to the upsurge of industrial

* Gorodki is a game similar to skittles.
development saw many workers and their families going to live in slum conditions in the cities.

Before the 1917 October Revolution, sport for the working classes was not widely organised and they were seldom allowed to join the existing sports clubs and societies. More to the point, the cost of entrance, competition and sports clothes were too high for most manual workers, and their long working days left them with too little time, energy or enthusiasm to take part in sport. Only occasionally were manual workers permitted to represent clubs and societies and this was when their strength could prove to be an advantage. However, some objections were raised about their participation:

"Being engaged in manual labour these people consequently have an unfair advantage over gentlemen, just as the professional has over the amateur. We therefore call upon the authorities to put the matter in order".  

Despite attempts by Russian and foreign physical educationists to promote and organise popular sport and physical exercise, as explained below, the tsarist government gave the proposals little support, regarding organised physical education and sport as an instrument by which the classes could be kept separate. The authorities were also afraid that sports associations might be utilised for other purposes, allowing progressive and revolutionary groups to challenge the existing government and social order.

"They could not and would not accept the idea that the basic condition for the development
of sport is civic activity and self-government as well as a certain freedom of action that leaves room for the development of a human being's personality."  

Very few children went to school and physical education was virtually non-existent in primary schools. Working-class and peasant children, therefore, received no organised physical exercise from the authorities. These children never reached the secondary schools where gymnastics was an obligatory subject (for boys) from 1889, although the lack of teachers, finance and facilities hampered the implementation of those lessons, even in the cities.

Working-class men in the army were subjected to regimes of physical training which were developed to increase their efficiency. *

By the early 1900s, social and political unrest had led to strikes, violence and revolutionary activities within Russia. The tsarist authorities were being challenged from within and humiliated abroad by the Japanese who defeated them in the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-1905. As one attempt to pacify the proletariat and distract and divert them from political struggle, the authorities gave them access to some of the existing sports clubs and societies and new ones were formed for the growing numbers of participants.

According to official data, by 1913, there were 1,266

* See later in this chapter for development of military physical training courses.
sports associations each with an average membership of 50 to 70 people; of these there were forty academic youth clubs and only a few workers' clubs at large industrial establishments. Of the 1,266 associations, however, 378 were hunters' and anglers' circles, leaving around 900 actual sports clubs with a membership of approximately 50,000, taken mainly from the bourgeoisie. 5

The Military, Middle and Upper Classes

Organised sport before the early 1900s was provided almost exclusively for the military (particularly the officers) and the middle and upper classes. The reforms of Tsar Peter I (the Great) 1682-1725) promoted the development in Russia of culture, science and education. He had lived in the West and brought Western ideas to Russia. His reforms assisted in the development of physical culture for the ruling classes. Clubs were subsequently set up exclusively for the military, aristocracy, gentry and the middle classes (see Table 15).

The Olympic Games

Russia was one of the founder members of the modern Olympic movement, but its athletes did not participate until the fourth Olympics held in 1908 in London. Five Russian competitors, sponsored by voluntary contributions, took part. Nikolai Panin-Kolomenkin was their first Olympic champion; he took the gold medal in the figure skating, and wrestlers A. Petrov and N. Orlov won silver medals. 6 The Russian squad was placed fourteenth overall out of the twenty-two participating nations.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PERIOD</th>
<th>SPORT</th>
<th>EARLIEST ORGANISATION SET UP</th>
<th>DATE FOUNDED</th>
<th>CLASS</th>
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</thead>
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<td>1700-1799</td>
<td>Yachting</td>
<td>Neva Flotilla</td>
<td>1718</td>
<td>Military</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Shooting</td>
<td>Amateur Shooting Society</td>
<td>1802a</td>
<td>Aristocracy</td>
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<td>St Petersburg Horse Racing Society</td>
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<tr>
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</tbody>
</table>

Notes: a Approximately. b Heavy athletics comprised a wide range of strongman feats and exercises: weightlifting, wrestling, bodybuilding and various circus acts. c The Petrov Society's members confined themselves to running, mainly cross-country; the St Petersburg Circle at first engaged in a number of athletics events, then branched out into other sports, such as soccer, cycling, hockey and lawn tennis. d Other clubs had played soccer as a sideline to other sports before 1897, but the Victoria (an Anglo-German Club) was the first to be exclusively concerned with soccer.

The tsarist government, determined to gain prestige through success in sport, set up the Russian Olympic Committee in preparation for the 1912 Olympic Games in Stockholm. A government-financed contingent of 169 (of whom over half were army officers from the Fencing-Gymnastics School) was trained to represent their country in all fifteen events but many, including the committee's head, missed the boat and the Games - it seems, no-one had informed them of the travel arrangements. In the Stockholm Games, the Russian team managed to win just two silver and two bronze medals and were placed joint fifteenth with Austria out of 16 teams in the unofficial team placings.

A year before the Games, the Russian Olympic Committee had issued an appeal saying:

"Given the correct organisation, Russia can give a good account of herself at the 1912 Olympics".

However, the poor results reflected the poor organisation and inadequate training. Yet, as a consequence, the clubs began to work harder to train their athletes. The Russians did not compete again in the Olympic Games until 1952, but instead began to hold annual national championships called 'Olympiads' in an attempt to improve the performances of the country's athletes. Neither St Petersburg (now Leningrad) nor Moscow had the facilities nor the finance to build any, so the first Olympiad was held in 1913 in Kiev and the second was in 1914 in Riga. The problem, previously, had been that it was extremely difficult to select and bring together a national team, but with the help
of the Olympiads the sports societies and clubs were encouraged to prepare athletes for competition. As a result of the competition a national team could be selected and brought together for training.

A new government body was set up by the tsarist state and given the title Office of the Chief Supervisor for the Physical Development of the People of Russia. Through this Office sport began, in a small way at first, to be organised centrally and to be coordinated. As war commenced in 1914, a Provisional Committee was set up comprising representatives from various sports societies and, along with the Chief Supervisor's Office, they were supposed to encourage enthusiasm for physical activity to produce fit men to fight for their country. However, there was not much response to their call, but they did provide a form of centralised control of the sports and physical education movement for the incoming Soviet authorities to build upon, despite the numerous, and soon to disappear, private clubs. 13

Influences on the Development of Physical Education in Tsarist Russia

Foreign Influences

Sweden

P.H. Ling, 1776-1839

Although he did not directly influence Russian physical education personally, the work and theories of the Swedish-born Per Henrik Ling were taken to Russia by his pupils. Ling trained first as a linguist and travelled extensively in Europe. He learned fencing, mainly in
Denmark, and from 1804, taught the sport back in Sweden. He later began to teach some gymnastic-type exercises with apparatus. In 1806, he began to study anatomy and physiology and from 1807, he taught gymnastics and fencing as a 'double art'.

In the early 1800s, Sweden was engaged in disagreements with other nations, including Russia. Ling felt deeply that the army should be both physically and mentally strong to defend their country and he suggested the opening of a central training school in Stockholm to supply teachers of gymnastics. This was to be based on the work of Franz Nachtegall in Copenhagen, who had already trained teachers of gymnastics for the Danish army and schools. In 1814, such a school opened in Stockholm, with Ling as its first director. It was, and still is, called the Royal Central Institute of Gymnastics.

Ling believed that there should be four branches of gymnastics - educational, aesthetic, medical and military, and he taught the subject accordingly. His pupils took his work to many countries including Russia, Finland, Britain, Belgium, Norway and Central and South America and their physical education systems all owe at least a small debt to him.

"As one of his successors at the Institute has said, his greatest service to gymnastics was the attempt to give it a scientific basis, and it must therefore change and develop with every advance in the sciences upon which it rests".
G.M. Pauli. 1808-1839

Professor Gustav Mauritz Pauli was one of P.H. Ling's personal students, and from 1828 to 1829, he taught swimming at Ling's swimming institute in Stockholm. In 1830, he went to work in Finland and then in 1831, was invited by the Russian Government to develop a system of gymnastics. He established a gymnastics school in St. Petersburg and gave instruction to the officers of the guard in gymnastics and fencing. Pauli died at the age of thirty-one and, although his own influences were relatively small, he did train a number of army personnel and brought Ling's ideas to Russia. 17

K.F. De Ron. 1809-1887

Karl Frederick de Ron succeeded Pauli both in Finland and in St. Petersburg. He was also a personal student of Ling and taught Ling's theories of medical and educational gymnastics. He worked in St. Petersburg from 1837 to 1858 in military and civilian circles and, by around 1845, he was conducting gymnastic exercises in many of the city's schools. De Ron put forward comprehensive plans for the founding of a gymnastics institute in the Russian capital which would be similar to the Royal Central Institute of Gymnastics in Stockholm but he was not able to realise his plans. He did, however, open a private institution in 1847 and ran a profitable medical-gymnastics practice.

The Crimean War (1853-1856) and the death of Tsar Nicholas I in 1855 ended de Ron's hopes of establishing a gymnastics institute in Russia, and in 1858 he returned to work in Sweden. 18
As a result of the Russian army's bad experience in the Crimean War and the poor physical state of their troops before going into battle, the then reigning tsar, Alexander II (1855-1881) ordered an improvement of the training of the troops with daily prescribed gymnastic exercises and a fencing and gymnastics hall for the officers. The recommendation of daily exercises for the military continues for pupils in the Soviet education system today as described in later Chapters.

**Other Swedish Influences**

Dr Berglindt came from Stockholm; a leading gymnast, he tried to promote the activity in Russia, giving demonstrations and distributing literature. Lesgaft, one of the most notable early Russian physical educationists was a pupil of Berglindt.

Mandolini established a Swedish gymnastics school in 1870 in Moscow with courses for the training of teachers but these were only short-lived. Wahlfeldt, de Genst, Lindstroem and Unmann also worked to promote gymnastics in Russia. 19

**German Influences**

F.L. Jahn. 1778-1852

Credited as 'the father of popular gymnastics' in Germany 20, Friedrich Ludwig Jahn developed a system of gymnastic exercises (Turnen) involving work on gymnastic apparatus such as the horse, horizontal bar, parallel bars,

* See later in this chapter for details of P.F. Lesgaft's work.
ropes and hoops.  

His political activities were frowned upon by the authorities but in 1842, due to his work, the German government formally recognised gymnastics as a part of the 'popular' education for males. Jahn wanted physical education through gymnastics to make the youth of his country strong to achieve political objectives.

A parallel may be drawn with the aims of the physical education system of the Soviet Union today as outlined earlier and, clearly, Jahn's teaching in some way influenced Soviet thinking.

British

The Boy Scout movement, founded by Major Robert Baden-Powell, a British army officer, at the start of the twentieth century, was introduced in Russia in 1909. The first Russian troop was formed in Tsarskoye Selo near St. Petersburg by tsarist army officers who had trained abroad. The movement was later extended to include Girl Scouts and activities included gymnastics, sport and paramilitary-type activities.

"It may be that the authorities saw the Scouts as a means of training an army reserve and a youth group dedicated to the well-known trinity of Autocracy, Orthodoxy and Folkdom - that is, to Russian absolutist monarchism, obscurantist Russian Christianity and Russian great-power chauvinism".

Sokol

The Sokol gymnastics and sports movement originated
in what in 1918 became Czechoslovakia. It was, in its own land, a centre for nationalism and independence aspirations. When the movement spread to Russia, its members were urged to strive for the unity of all Slavs under the patronage of Russia. They were a nationalistic Pan-Slav (and anti-Semitic) movement and found the support of young Russians. Their physical activities included gymnastics, track and field athletics, outdoor team games and military training. Their gymnastics was, however, of a more complex and artistic nature than the disciplined German system - and to some extent was the forerunner of the aesthetic formation tableaux at Soviet spartakiads (sports festivals).

**Russian Influences**

**K.D. Ushinsky. 1824-1870**

Konstantin D. Ushinsky has been referred to as the:

"Father of Russian pedagogy ..... the greatest scholar and pedagogical theoretician and practitioner". 

His work was not fully recognised in tsarist Russia but has since been acted upon in the Soviet education system. He particularly supported the use of physical exercises, games and physical work to give an all-round physical and mental training to the individual and these ideas form the basis of Soviet physical education today.

Ushinsky believed that the scientific study of anatomy, physiology and pathology should take place in order fully to understand the basic theory of physical training. He advocated the introduction of physical exercises into classroom lessons, and as a result physical culture pauses
and physical culture minutes are conducted in Soviet kindergartens and schools. He also tried to include courses of physical training into teacher training courses, recommending that student teachers ought to study psychology and physiology in order to know the human organism and all its stages of development. This has now been introduced into current teacher training courses in Britain as well as in the Soviet Union.

A contemporary Soviet writer, V.V. Stolbov, comments that Ushinsky's work had its shortcomings since he thought about physical education from a purely biological standpoint. Stolbov does, however, concede that:

"Despite some weak aspects of the educational system, Ushinsky was the spokesman of the educational trends of his time".

I. M. Sechenev. 1829-1905

The Russian physiologist, Sechenev, is credited with Pavlov (see below), as having built the foundations upon which the present system of physical education exists. Sechenev was the first person to show the presence of a strong connection between the activities of the central nervous system and muscle movements. His work formed the basis of further studies from a physiological standpoint of the movements required in work and sport; he studied fatigue and showed the importance of active rest.

Sechenev made his studies of the muscular activities of humans in 1903 and found that resting by moving is

* See Chapters III and V.
better than passive rest. 32 Today, Soviet workers take part in exercise breaks while at work which greatly resemble physical culture minutes in schools. In Brest in 1985, the researcher observed an exercise break in a clothing factory. Everyone stopped work and stood up to exercise to music relayed throughout the factory. A young girl worker stood on a work bench at the front to lead the movements which had been devised by staff and former students of the Brest Pedagogical Institute Physical Education Department under the leadership of lecturer V.P. Artem'ev. The first shift did the exercises for several minutes each morning and afternoon and the second shift just once in their working hours since it was assumed that they were already fully awake when they arrived for work. 33

Sechenev's work is applied today in the setting out of training schedules for various sports and also in terms of active rest, in physical culture minutes, pauses and breaks in the education system.

I.P. Pavlov. 1849-1936

Ivan Pavlov subsequently developed Sechenev's work. His studies of higher nervous activity, the unity of people's physical and mental aspects and the training in a person of conditioned reflexes have had major significance for the further study of the role of physical exercises in the formation of motor skills for work and sports activities. 34

Pavlov's work in the area of physiology and psychology, and particularly in demonstrating the importance of conditioned reflexes, was considered important in many
countries in the development of physical education and sports training methods. He is said to have played an important part in establishing a scientific basis to the Soviet system of physical education and to have advocated regular participation in a variety of sports activities for the benefit both of the individual and of society as a whole.

"The work of the great Russian physiologists Sechenev and Pavlov, as well as of their followers, formed the basis of the entire system of physical education. Their theories, checked by scientific experiments, have enriched the practice of physical education and have played an important role in improving the health of the population and developing physical fitness and sports in the country".  

Whilst the names of Sechenev, Pavlov and Ushinsky appear in many contemporary books on the history of physical education and are given their due in Soviet books, P. F. Lesgaft, despite being almost unheard of outside the Soviet Union, has much larger sections devoted to his work.

P. F. Lesgaft. 1837-1909

Pyotr Franzevich Lesgaft, the son of a jeweller, was born on 21 September 1837 in St. Petersburg. He is considered in his own country to have been the founder of the Russian system of physical education.

"The name of P. F. Lesgaft and his scientific-theoretical and educational work take a worthy place in the study of science
and education in our native land ....
the system of physical education was created
by him, was notable for its originality and
was advanced for its time". 37

Lesgaft was a great believer in the need for, and importance
of, educating women:

"P.F. Lesgaft was one of the very fervent
champions of women's education in Russia". 38

Lesgaft was educated in St. Petersburg and graduated
in 1861 from the Medical College. From there he began his
scientific and educational research activities and
defended his two dissertations: the first in 1865 for the
award of Doctor of Medicine and the second in 1868 for the
award of Doctor of Surgery.

In 1869, Lesgaft was invited to begin work as a
professor, teaching at the University of Kazan in the
department of physiological anatomy. In an article,
published in 1871, entitled "What is Happening at Kazan
University?", Lesgaft was critical of government policy
regarding the University and of reactionary and, in his
opinion, unscientific methods used by the professors. As
a result, he was dismissed (possibly unjustly) by his
employers from the University.

Lesgaft returned to St. Petersburg and worked from
1872 in the laboratory of his former teacher, Professor V.L.
Gruber. At this time, Lesgaft began to interest himself in
the study of physical education and, with his thorough
knowledge of anatomy and physiology, he began to do some
foundation work in the scientific theory of physical education.
In 1874, he published his first article on the subject entitled "The Principles of Natural Gymnastics". This and some of his other work attracted the attention of Russian educationalists and the War Ministry who sent him to Western Europe for two summers to study contemporary physical education systems. Lesgaft visited 26 cities and 13 sovereign states including Germany, Sweden, Austria, Italy, Holland, Denmark, France, Britain and Switzerland.

In Britain, he found that there were no specialist educational institutions for the training of teachers of gymnastics and that in the public schools gymnastics was not taught systematically. However, Lesgaft felt that the level of organisation of physical education was higher in Britain than in other countries. He particularly approved of the organisation of games outdoors, the strict rules of hygiene, the long walks and boat trips and other systematic lessons for the more privileged pupils in English public schools, and he returned home in 1877 with a favourable impression of them. He also visited the Central Army Gymnastics School at Aldershot, the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich and Oxford University. On his return to Russia, Lesgaft presented an account of his foreign observations under the title "The Training of Teachers of Gymnastics in Western European States".

In 1877, Lesgaft also published "The Relationship of Anatomy to Physical Education and the Major Purpose of Physical Education in Schools". In it, he proposed a physical education programme for military colleges which he was then able to implement and supervise in twelve academies. He also organised the first courses in Russia for physical
Lesgaft believed that the family should play a major part in, and be the basis of, the child's education, and in 1884 he published "Family Upbringing". The family was to teach cleanliness, movement, grooming and how to carry out the sequence of 'word and deed'. It should also provide an environment free of tyranny, violence and oppression for their youngsters to grow up in.

Using the results of educational experiments in the Second St. Petersburg Military Gymnasium and of his experience abroad, Lesgaft was allowed to devise a series of exercises in accordance with the sequence of development of the human body and to prepare a programme for the teaching of physical exercises to 10 to 18 year olds. He prepared a two-volume work "Guidance in the Teaching of Physical Education to Schoolchildren" (1888 and 1901) and at the same time made public his opposition to the reactionary theories regarding the alleged superiority of one race over another (Lesgaft believed that heredity was relatively unimportant and that much of life's phenomena can be explained in environmental terms) and to the negative attitude towards lessons in sport for women. His opponents argued, meanwhile, that teachers of gymnastics did not need a high level of education and one should not allow joint lessons of physical education for boys and girls.

Lesgaft scientifically substantiated the content, means and methods of physical education in schools, but the authorities gave little support to his wishes to organise sport in civilian schools, considering it to have little educational value. As a result, in 1892, Lesgaft founded
and became Secretary of the public charitable organisation, the Society for the Encouragement of the Physical Development of Student Youth. Following the St. Petersburg model, other branches opened in Moscow, Kiev, Tiflis (now Tbilisi), Tomsk and Odessa. The Society's activities resulted in the opening of facilities for games, excursions and hikes which took place out of town and in the country. There were also other forms of recreational activities such as skating; all mainly for children from poor and needy families. 43

In 1896, the Society persuaded the Minister of Education to set up the first courses of physical training. These were 'Part-time courses for Training Women Instructors of Physical Exercises and Games'. They were for women only although Lesgaft had intended them to be mixed. Lesgaft took charge of them and eventually extended them from two years to three. 44 The courses were based on those in the military academies and were considered most progressive for the time. 45

In 1901, Lesgaft was under surveillance by the political Okhranka * and at a speech in defence of student demonstrations he was arrested because of his progressive activities and was banned from teaching and from living in any of Russia's large cities for two years, after which he returned to St. Petersburg to resume his former courses. These, however, were closed in 1905 because of the participation of women students in revolutionary activities. 46

Undeterred, Lesgaft opened a 'Higher School of Free

* Secret political police department in Tsarist Russia.
Exercises' in 1905, the premises of which were used in this first year of the revolution for political meetings, debates and various general education courses. Lesgaft's new courses were now open to men and women but in 1907, the School was the subject of persecution by the tsarist government and once again Lesgaft's courses closed. Illegally, Lesgaft continued to teach his students and tried to re-open his School but, owing to ill-health, he went abroad and died in 1909 in Cairo.

Four months after his death, Lesgaft's courses were re-opened and continued until October 1919 when they became the country's first institute of physical culture situated in Petrograd (St. Petersburg's wartime name, subsequently Leningrad) and named by his followers after him, that is, the P.F. Lesgaft State Institute of Physical Culture.

**Lesgaft's Theories**

**Physical Education**

Lesgaft's studies in the fields of medicine and anatomy led him to believe that only through planned and directed exercise could the whole organism develop in a balanced and correct manner, based on the concept of the "whole person".

He put forward two laws which he felt governed both physical and mental education:

i) the law of gradualness and sequence: - which would lead without harm to the correct development of the organism.

ii) the law of harmony: - that is, the necessity for the development of the whole organism so that it would function most efficiently. 47.
Lesgaft studied the concept of the succession of 'words and deeds' in the process of physical education and he required that each exercise be clearly and briefly explained before asking a person to perform it. The pupils, in their turn, should carry out the exercises with understanding, not mechanically. He also recommended medical inspections and anthropometric measurement of schoolchildren twice a year—this practice continues today in Soviet schools.

**Lesgaft's System of Physical Education**

Lesgaft divided his system of physical education for children into four sections which were to comprise exercises and games. At the base, he placed the didactic principles of consciousness, clarity, activity, simplicity, gradual development and succession.

1) Simple exercises: which are explained to the child but not demonstrated. These begin with movements of the head, trunk and extremities and go on to the more complex exercises of walking, running, throwing and jumping. The child should be able to distinguish each movement and begin to analyse them.

2) Exercises involving increased complexity and effort: exercises for the intermediate classes to include the use of sticks, weights, throwing differently-weighted balls, high and long jumping, running against the clock, wrestling and climbing. The sequence of exercises progresses from simple to more complex.

3) Harmony of movement: exercises are presented which combine with the study of temporal and spatial
considerations, such as throwing at a target, running in a set time and jumping to defined distances. The child learns muscular control and the optimum course of action for all circumstances.

iv) Consolidation: using the exercises and skills he/she has learned, the child may now participate in more complicated activities such as various games, swimming, skating and work movements. 48

Using this sequence and classification for the teaching of physical education, Lesgaft believed that what was for him the fundamental aim of the educational system, namely "the harmonious and comprehensive development of the activities of the human organism" 49 could be achieved. Included in the overall development of the child, in addition to its physical education, for Lesgaft, were aesthetic, moral and mental education. He also believed that a physical education programme should require the following task to be achieved:

"The ability to isolate individual movements and to compare them with each other, consciously to direct them and adapt them to obstacles, overcoming them with the greatest possible agility and persistence; put another way: 'to learn to produce the greatest amount of physical work with the least amount of effort in the shortest possible time' or 'to act gracefully and energetically' " 50

Games Activities

Lesgaft did not approve of competitive sport as he felt it could lower moral standards and encourage egotism
in youngsters; he saw nothing of educational value in it. However, in free play and games, he believed that socially-acceptable outcomes could be achieved:

"Games arouse and gradually develop social instincts .... In every school game the player is a member of a small society, actively participating in it, forgetting about his personal, selfish aims and engrossed exclusively in the attainment of common aims, all the while adhering to all the accepted principles and laws that restrict the right of every individual .... A sense of justice, of comradeship, of fair play, an acquaintance with public opinion - these are all given us by games. Are not these the feelings we wish our children to possess, both as future citizens and as useful and active members of society?". 51

**Lesgaft's View of German and Swedish Gymnastics**

Lesgaft particularly criticised German and Swedish gymnastics because of the absence in them of a scientific-educational approach to the selection of exercises and because of their utilisation of gymnastic apparatus. He did, however, approve of Ling's system of gymnastics in Sweden which allowed free and natural movements. He had, of course, visited Ling's Academy in Stockholm during his visits to Western Europe.

**Teachers and Instructors of Physical Education**

Lesgaft recognised the need for teachers and instructors
of physical education to be well-trained. He believed that they should know their subject thoroughly, possess a good knowledge of anatomy, physiology and psychology and should set by example high standards in discipline, discretion, tidiness and refinement in movement. For him, each teacher should also have a high regard and respect for the pupils.

Physical Education and Sport for Women

Lesgaft spoke out as a champion of higher education, including physical education, for women and, contradicting the official Russian view that women were not suited to sport, he gave physical education and anatomy courses to women students at his home prior to 1896 and, from that date, at university. The social and physical benefits to women were, in Lesgaft's opinion, important as he trained them in physical education.

The Contemporary View of Lesgaft

Outside the Soviet Union, few references are made to Lesgaft's work, except to acknowledge him as probably the principal influence on the development of the Russian system of physical education from which the Soviet Union has taken some aspects of his theories.

Physical education textbooks in the USSR carry sizeable sections about Lesgaft in their descriptions of physical education in tsarist times, and he is accorded a place of high honour:

"In spite of a number of shortcomings (misunderstandings of the class character of education, attributing physical education to a section of biology, the
rejection of sports competition, exercises (on gymnastic apparatus and some others) ....
many of the scientific works of P.F. Lesgaft have not lost their significance and are relevant today". 52

Lesgaft was a progressive worker of a type which is favoured by the Soviet authorities today and he always maintained this stand in both his public and educational work. In study, and in practice; he stood for a position of scientific-materialism which accords with Marxist philosophy. His teaching, that physical education is concerned with the all-round harmonious development of the individual, uniting the physical, mental, moral and aesthetic aspects, is a major theory in the ideology of physical education in the USSR today and the school and kindergarten physical education syllabuses are based upon it.

It seems that Lesgaft's work received little practical attention in schools and colleges in pre-revolutionary Russia (although it did in the military). Instead, their physical education programmes were modelled on German and Scandinavian callisthenics and the games and sports of America and Britain, and that only in the USSR, after his death, has Lesgaft's work been truly appreciated and implemented.

Physical Education in Schools in Pre-Revolutionary Russia

Very few peasant children attended school; education was provided mainly for children of the upper classes and those who were being educated for careers as officers in
the army. For the latter, there was some gymnastics, usually taught by specialists. Both Ushinsky and Lesgaft taught for a time in the Second Military Secondary School in St. Petersburg. Meanwhile, the elementary national schools did not provide any gymnastics or games for their pupils.

In 1870, gymnastics was introduced in the programmes of teacher training colleges which meant that most new teachers had some knowledge in teaching the subject. In 1872, gymnastics became a compulsory subject in classical secondary schools (where the upper classes were educated). In 1873, a book giving guidance on teaching gymnastics in rural schools was published.

Reaction against the assassination in 1881 of Tsar Alexander II caused the classical secondary schools to be turned into military cadet schools, but in them gymnastics became a supplementary method of military drill and so lost its true identity. The military was, however, showing an interest in the promotion of gymnastics among young people as a means of strengthening them for military service and Colonel A.D. Butovsk was said to have played an active part in producing the "Instructions and programme for teaching gymnastics in boys schools" which was published by the Ministry of National Education in 1889. The Instructions indicated that gymnastics would help strengthen boys from the illnesses to which inactive children are prone to suffer. It claimed that gymnastics would build up their strength, agility, character and courage. Gymnastics was to include exercises on apparatus (beams, horse and horizontal bars) and with apparatus (sticks, dumb-bells and weights).
There were also to be active games conducted in extracurricular time outdoors. In theory, the Instructions made physical education a compulsory subject in schools. In practice, however, a lack of apparatus and facilities as well as insufficient competent and qualified teachers caused the failure of the measures to include gymnastics and games in school syllabuses. The Soviet writer, Stolbov, claims that:

"The Departments of National Education, the Zemstva* and other government bodies simply did not show sufficient interest in organised physical education in the national schools". 55

Despite the apparent lack of interest by the authorities, physical educationists, such as P.F. Lesgaft, did try to promote physical activities for children, especially from poor and needy families as explained earlier in this chapter. They organised children's games activities in out-of-school time, constructed sports grounds and set up clubs. Much of their work was conducted through the public charitable organisation, the Society for the Encouragement of the Physical Development of the Student Youth founded in 1892 by Lesgaft and other social reformers. The absence of qualified physical education teachers in schools was counteracted slightly by employing ex-army officers and non-commissioned officers to teach gymnastics and games, but their lack of knowledge of teaching methods proved to be a problem.

Most children of the working people in pre-Revolutionary Russia, therefore, received little or no organised physical education, and girls received none at all.

* Elective district councils in pre-Revolutionary Russia.
The Development of Physical Education and Sport from the 1917 Revolution to 1985

The period 1917 to 1985 will be described in periods:

i) 1917 to 1918 - the Revolutionary Period

ii) 1918 to 1925 - the Period of Searching

iii) 1925 to 1929 - the Experimental Period

iv) 1929 to 1941 - the Period of Construction

v) 1941 to 1945 - the Period of War

vi) 1945 to 1958 - the Period of Rebuilding

vii) 1958 to 1985 - the Period of Developed Socialism and Building of Communism

i) The Revolutionary Period - 1917 to 1918

The 1917 October Revolution was the result of long-term dissatisfaction with life in tsarist Russia, numerous peasant revolts and an intellectual revolutionary movement. The country was weakened by war, famine and disease, and the incoming Bolshevik government was faced with the task of ruling a country in a desperate economic condition and with a mainly illiterate population in a poor state of health. The new government decided to impose centralised control in order to cope with the many problems facing it.

The October Revolution became the turning point for sport and physical education in the country. As part of their centralised control, the government took over the organisation of sport. In May 1918, they set up the Central Board of Universal Military Training (vseobshcheye voyennoye obuchenie) which became known as the Vsevobuch and was concerned with military training for civilians. The training was designed to include gymnastics and was to involve the
preparation of young men for conscription into the Red Army which was compulsory from April 1918. It was also intended to involve young women whom Lenin hoped to draw into social life to help contribute to their emancipation. Physical training, therefore, was intended to be for military means; however, deficiencies in the provision of facilities, equipment and coaches meant that the work that could be achieved was severely limited. To remedy this, the Vsevobuch requisitioned equipment and facilities from existing sports clubs and organisations, and the resultant clashes with club organisers over the next few years led to the government disbanding all those not run by the State, including the Sokol, Maccabi and the Boy Scouts as they allegedly supported anti-revolutionary factions. As a result, there was a decrease in the amount of sport which could be played. The country withdrew from the Olympics because it did not have sufficiently prepared athletes or the organisation to train them, its people were not fit enough to participate in much active sport and the ideology of the Revolutionary movement was opposed to what the Bolshevik government considered to be 'bourgeois' Olympics.

On 16 October 1917, the government published a Decree making education free and universal for all boys and girls (before this only some 20 per cent of children attended primary schools). Schools became the responsibility of the Education Commission headed by the Bolshevik educational activist Anatoly Lunacharsky. The Decree included physical education on the timetables of schools and said that "Gymnastics and sport must not only develop strength and skill, but also the capacity for collective enterprise and a spirit of co-operation alongside other useful qualities".
In the early days of Bolshevik leadership, Decrees were issued to help protect people's health: all sanatoria and resorts were nationalised and child-labour was prohibited so that children could no longer be exploited. An eight-hour working day was introduced for adults, reduced to six hours for youths. Physical education and sport began to be considered a valuable means of improving people's health, but existed in very few schools in 1917 except those for the upper classes and those training boys for military service as officers.

ii) The Period of Searching - 1918 to 1925

The government, having decided to make physical training an important element in people's lives, was faced with the problem of deciding what form it should take. They knew that they wanted the population to exercise regularly, and the reduced work day gave people more leisure time in which to do this. They also believed that through physical exercise they could educate people in hygienic habits, especially those peasants who had recently moved into the cities to look for work.

The government was concerned that it needed to strengthen people's health, but could not at first decide what it should take from the tsarist-Russian system of physical education, which had been devised at a time of antagonism among the classes, and what should be taken from foreign systems. A new system was required for the building of the world's first socialist state which required the population to be healthy, highly productive workers for the newly industrialised economy and also to be fit for
rapid mobilisation for war.

In the spring of 1918, summer camps were set up by the Education Commission to improve children's health. The Education Commission was renamed the People's Commissariat of Education and its Department for School Hygiene, headed by Vera Bonch-Bruyevich - physician and Party activist - began to prepare recommendations for health and physical education in schools which were supposed to:

"Create healthy, properly developed citizens who are capable of performing any task and defending themselves and others ... It must promote initiative in young people and teach them to take the path of creative endeavour in life". 59

The Vsevobuch continued to gain control of more sports organisations in the country and set up courses to train coaches. Great emphasis was placed upon the political education of athletes, coaches and sports organisers. This was the beginning of the strong links between sport, physical education and politics which, as we describe in the later chapters, continues into the 1980s with increasing strength.

Two higher education institutes were opened, the Lesgaft Institute of Physical Culture in Petrograd (formerly St. Petersburg) in 1919 and the Moscow Institute in 1918. Although both started with shorter courses, each quickly developed four-year teacher training courses and were state-run. The government, by now, had control of the organisation of sport and physical education in most parts of the country as well as teacher and coach education.
In 1920, a Supreme Council of Physical Culture was formed in Moscow, along with regional and district councils of physical culture, to co-ordinate sport and physical education activities in all the country's schools and clubs (it was attached to Vsevobuch).

The term physical culture was being used to describe the group of activities which the state wished to promote among the population to achieve its aims of building a new socialist state. The term continues to be used today and encompasses competitive sport, physical education, hygiene, aesthetic activities, games and recreation. Many of Lesgaft's views were reflected in the early Soviet development of physical culture. He had been opposed to competitive sport as he believed it could lower moral standards and encourage egotism in youngsters and this view was supported in the early years of physical culture since competitive sport could have diverted people from the utilitarian purpose of physical culture, that is, from strengthening their health.

There was, nonetheless, considerable controversy surrounding the decisions regarding the content of physical culture. Until the end of the Civil War in 1922, it had a military function, mainly to provide men and women for military service and was run by the Vsevobuch. Other agencies now began to exert their influence on the concept of physical culture:

The Komsomol

The Young Communist League (Komsomol) was set up in 1918 to encourage young people to assist the Communist Party.
During the Civil War it assisted the Vsevobuch to organise sport at places of work and in clubs, as well as helping build sports facilities. Additionally, it opposed all sports organisations which held beliefs contrary to those of the communist government, and began to form its own sports clubs for young people. It also undertook political propaganda campaigns through sports club activities, sports demonstrations and parades and by having its own instructors trained on Vsevobuch courses which included political instruction.

Trade Unions

With the end of the Civil War in 1922 came the end of the period of militarisation of physical culture and so the Party decided that there should be a different type of organisation. This was to be at people's places of work and to be undertaken by trade unions. The Vsevobuch was disbanded and the Supreme Council of Physical Culture was transferred in 1923 to the All-Russia Central Executive Committee for the purpose of co-ordinating physical culture activities and research in the Russian Republic. Each Republic had its own newly set-up committee which was to organise sports groups and activities, most run by the trade unions who have continued to be deeply involved in the country's sport and physical education activities for adults and for children until the present day. The Party leadership favoured trade union organisation of sport.

Throughout the early development of the Soviet system of physical culture, two groups, the Proletkul'tists and the Hygienists, expressed their strong views about the way they believed physical culture should develop once the
Vsevobuch had been disbanded and with it the strong militarisation trends.

The Proletkul'tists

The Proletkul'tists were opposed to competitive sport and all aspects of sport which could be connected with bourgeois society. They wanted physical culture to serve the people and to take the form of 'labour gymnastics' (callisthenics) which would imitate the movements used by workers and prepare them for their manual labour. This view continued in part and the use of 'labour gymnastics' has been included for 16 to 17 year olds in the school physical education programme from September 1985. *

The Hygienists

As their name suggests, the Hygienists believed that the main aim of physical culture should be to improve and maintain people's health. Many of them worked in the medical profession and were well aware of the poor state of health of many people. They recognised that a programme of education about personal hygiene could dramatically reduce the spread of disease. They rejected sports such as boxing and weightlifting which they believed to be dangerous and instead preferred 'hygienic exercises' designed to strengthen the body. Hygienists exerted a strong influence over the physical education courses at the Moscow and Petrograd institutes which, for a time, excluded games and sport and concentrated their teaching on medical subjects and 'hygienic gymnastics'. 62 The use of 'hygienic gymnastics' and health education continues today, both for adults

* See Appendix H for details of the 1985 school physical education programme.
and for children. Daily radio and television programmes broadcast instructions and music for exercises and school physical education programmes include regular compulsory periods of exercise. Even factory workers are provided with exercise breaks, as the researcher saw in 1985 in a Brest clothing manufacturing factory, as explained earlier.

These were the main influences on the development of physical culture and sport in the early years of Soviet rule. Since physical education for children is a component part of the Soviet system of physical culture, it follows that they were also important influences on its development. A single system of physical education had not yet emerged. Where they existed, some schools did include exercises and games and in the larger cities there could be two 45-minute periods a week, and in other areas, one period a week, but there were no instructions stipulating what should be done and too few teachers with specialist knowledge to do much worthwhile work. In fact, it has been estimated that in Moscow, physical education was taught in 60 per cent of schools and that for the country as a whole, this figure was less than three per cent.

The turning point came in July 1925 when the Party issued its first Resolution on physical culture entitled 'The Party's Tasks Concerning Physical Culture', which defined the aims, tasks and means of physical culture:

"Physical culture must be considered not simply from the standpoint of public health and physical education, not only as an aspect of the cultural, economic and military training of young people (rifle shooting, etc.). It should also be seen
as a method of educating the masses (inasmuch as it develops will-power and builds up teamwork, endurance, resourcefulness and other valuable qualities). It must be regarded, moreover, as a means of rallying the bulk of the workers and peasants to the various Party, Soviet and trade union organisations, through which they can be drawn into social and political activity ..... Physical culture must be an inseparable part of overall political and cultural upbringing and education, and of public health". 65

The Resolution was intended to include all physical culture and sport in schools, trade unions, the Komsomol, public health services (sanatoria and summer camps), schools and the Red Army. 66 It also spelled out the political and social functions of physical culture. Since it was (and remains to this day) an initial stage of their physical culture, these tasks and aims also applied to children's physical education. The Resolution expressed Party support for physical culture as a tool for building a new communist society. It particularly favoured sports competitions and rallies, including those with workers of other socialist countries. The mass aspect of the movement was to develop collectivism among the population who were spread over vast distances and who belonged to many different nationalities. Physical culture was to include public and personal hygiene, nutrition, aesthetics, a correct regime of work and rest, as well as physical exercises in various gymnastic forms, sport and games. 68
When the Vsevobuch had taken control of the country's physical culture and sport, its purpose had been primarily to provide soldiers but, after a few 'years of search', the decision was made to provide a framework for people's all-round development and to put it on a more voluntary basis. Nonetheless, since physical culture and sport could serve such a useful purpose, the Party decided to try to take control of it from the onset and this, in the next few years, was to include the physical education of school-children and students as well as teacher training, which were all entrusted to the People's Commissariat of Education.

iii) The Experimental Period - 1925 to 1929

The first few years of Soviet power had seen the beginnings of a system of physical education for children but, for most, shortage of teachers, equipment and facilities meant that they did not receive its benefits. Nonetheless, the system of physical culture as a whole had become more or less clear - to bring up physically-healthy people. However, there were no criteria for assessing the methods, and rural areas in particular were almost totally neglected. For many schools, physical education was merely included among a combination of other subjects, often primarily the study of health and hygiene, until 1926 when schools in the Russian Republic were told to teach the subject 'physical culture', but not all had staff capable of undertaking this work. In 1929, the Russian Republic confirmed its determination to strengthen the place of physical education.

* The other Republics have usually followed the example of the Russian Republic (capital Moscow) almost immediately.
in schools by allocating two compulsory lessons each week (of 45 minutes each) to the subject. The other Republics immediately followed Russia's example. Much assistance was given to schools, especially in organising extracurricular sports activities, by the Young Pioneer and Komsomol organisations which also included sports, games and exercises in their own activities. Indeed, at the opening of the Moscow Dinamo Stadium in August 1929, more than 32,000 Young Pioneers are said to have taken part in various games and dance activities. This period, then, was one of attracting youth to physical culture and sports and of trying to introduce compulsory physical education into schools to comply with the aims of the physical culture movement.

iv) The Period of Construction - 1929 to 1941

Physical education was made a compulsory subject in higher educational institutions in July 1929 and in all other types of further education in 1930, thus making it a compulsory subject for all schoolchildren and students. Despite this, neither physical education in the educational system nor physical culture and sport in the country as a whole were proceeding in a satisfactory manner. The ordinary people were not taking part in sufficient numbers and the government could see that the organisation was weak, especially since the trade unions and Komsomol were not cooperating well. As a result, in September 1929, the Communist Party Central Committee adopted a Resolution which called for more centralised and direct government control. For this purpose, in April 1930, the All-Union Physical Culture Council was set up to act as a Ministry for Sport.
and was given overall control of all physical culture and sports activities. Physical culture had been designated a matter of state importance and was to help people be fit to defend their country and it was also to be an obligatory part of their labour training. The new All-Union Committee on Physical Culture was charged with the task of drawing people into physical culture. The National Commissariats of Education were to organise school-children's physical education. The 1929 Resolution, in effect, tightened state control of physical culture and sport as well as school physical education.

By the early 1930s, the country's economy had improved and industrialisation was well under way. The government, fearful of possible imperialist invasion with the rise of fascism in Europe, decided that it wanted a population which could be quickly mobilised into a fit defence force. As a result, the national fitness programme Ready for Labour and Defence of the USSR (Gotov k trudu i oborone SSSR), abbreviated to GTO, was initiated in a Stage I form for adults. Full details are given of the development of the programme later in this chapter but, briefly, it comprised physical fitness tests, many of which were of a paramilitary nature. GTO was made the basis of the Soviet system of physical culture and later of children's physical education.

The number of schools in which physical education was taught had risen steadily: in 1924 - 823 with a total of 320,000 pupils, in 1927 - 3,650 schools with 1,845,000 pupils and by 1931 - 32,117 schools with 5,220,000 pupils. At the same time, the amount of money spent on physical
culture and sport increased and they were included in the budget allocated for health care.

Of significance to school physical education were the Resolutions of 5 September 1931 and 25 August 1932 in which individual subjects were ordered to be dealt with separately on the curriculum. Physical education could now develop as a subject in its own right. The main form of teaching was to be the compulsory lessons of physical culture for which the methods and material were to be devised. Additionally, there were to be extracurricular physical activities as well as sport and other activities outside school for children. 75 There had been some discussions about the form the physical education programme should take, some people believed the 'lesson' to be old-fashioned but it was selected as the main form for teaching (and continues to be so). 76 Sports sections (clubs) were formed in many schools to accommodate extracurricular work and the Young Pioneer Organisation assisted with these.

The physical education syllabus was to stress the health of the schoolchild and included for the first time elementary knowledge of sports theory and first-aid. The syllabus did not specify gymnastics or any particular sports but, instead, listed skills which were to be taught: walking, running, jumping, throwing, balancing, climbing, swimming, combat exercises and dancing, as well as theory of hygiene and sports. Classes I to IV were to have two-and-a-half hours of physical education and Classes V to X three hours per ten-day 'week'. 77

In 1934, a further stage of the national fitness programme, Bud' gotov k trudu i oborone SSSR (Be Ready for
Labour and Defence of the USSR) - BGTO - was introduced for schoolchildren and they were expected to be trained in school to pass the award.

The first sports schools (clubs in the Western sense) were set up in 1934, in Moscow and Tbilisi, to train talented children. The Dinamo and Spartak sports societies set up their own clubs for children, Yuny dinamovets and Yuny spartakovets, and the education ministries also set up sports schools. By 1937, there were said to have been more than 200 children's sports schools in the country as a whole. They were introduced for several reasons:

i) to train talented children for top-class sport;

ii) to compensate for the deficiencies in the school physical education system;

iii) to help train coaches and teachers for work in physical culture

In sports schools, children could undertake sports which were not usually available to them in their general education schools.

In the early 1930s, some sports organisations began to put their facilities at the disposal of children and teachers as requested by the All-Union Council of Physical Culture because of the deficiencies in school facilities. This decade also saw some growth in the number of coach and teacher training institutions which helped increase the number of specialist teachers, but there were still very few and most children's sport took place in extracurricular time or outside school, either with sports societies or

* Sports schools are described fully in Chapter VI.
with the Young Pioneer Organisation.

In 1935, the Uniform All-Union Sports Classification system was introduced to provide a framework for the training of athletes. It included standards for school-children training in clubs and sports schools. The physical culture movement was trying in the 1930s to develop sporting talent and its athletes were competing against other nations in both worker games and against border nations but they were not in the 'bourgeois' Olympics. By 1939, there were 300 sports schools in which the best children were training and some half a million children had BGTO badges. 79

A new physical education syllabus in 1937 included gymnastics for the first time with prescribed exercises on apparatus. The weekly time allotted to physical education was reduced to one lesson per week for all ages, but specific activities were to be undertaken including gymnastics, athletics, skiing, team games and swimming. Intra-school competition was introduced to play its part in the encouragement of competitive, organised sport in the country as a whole. 80

By 1939, war and invasion seemed imminent and so the physical culture movement shifted its emphasis to preparing the population for defence. Military training was introduced in the 1939/40 educational year for pupils aged 12 to 17 and included drill and unarmed combat. 81 With just one lesson of physical education each week, little could be achieved, but emphasis continued to be placed on extracurricular **This is explained fully later in this chapter.**
and out-of-school activities. In 1940, over 830,000 pupils of Classes V-X were said to be members of school physical culture sections (clubs), and 46,000 were said to be in sports schools. 82

The militarisation of physical culture was promoted by a new GTO programme (with BGTO) in 1939 with more para-military-style activities and 700,000 children are said to have been awarded BGTO badges in that year and 50,000 civil defence clubs were said to be operating in schools. 83 The Komsomol played its part when, in 1939, it organised an All-Union military physical culture competition for school pupils and students. 84 The country worked hard to prepare everyone physically for the now inevitable war, not only in a militaristic sense, but also through sports competition including the continuation of top-level sports training.

v) The Period of War - 1941 to 1945

From 22 June 1941, the Germans invaded, devastated and occupied parts of the USSR. They destroyed many towns and villages and killed large numbers of people. The Central Committee of the Communist Party and the government rallied the population with the cry "All for the front, all for victory!" All areas of public life were ordered to prepare people for the war, especially the physical culture movement. On 25 June 1941, the All-Union Committee for Physical Culture and Sport issued the Resolution "On the work of physical culture organisations concerning military training" which ordered all physical culture workers to help the Party prepare the population for the war and the Vsevobuch was reformed. 85 Schools had already been told in April 1941 to raise the status of physical education to the levels held
by other subjects such as the Russian language and mathematics. 86 In July 1941, the RSFSR increased the time allocation for physical education for older classes to three hours for Class VIII (14 to 15 years), to four hours for Class IX (15 to 16 years) and to five hours for Class X (16 to 17 years). The other Republics, as usual, soon followed this lead. 87

On 24 October 1942, the Decree was issued "On the introduction of military physical training for pupils of incomplete (7-year) secondary schools, secondary (10-year) schools and students of tekhnikums". It required schools and tekhnikums to train reserves for the Red Army, giving them basic military training, organisational skills, a good level of physical development and qualities of courage and determination. 88 Shortages of teaching personnel were alleviated by engaging men in the army.

In occupied areas, most education and sport ceased temporarily but continued almost uninterrupted in other regions. However, many of the top athletes were called for military service and many died. Where it could continue, the sports movement concentrated on paramilitary activities such as skiing, unarmed combat and swimming. In 1942, the GTO system was altered to include entirely paramilitary activities. The drive for sports mastery continued despite the war: in 1942 - 140 new sports schools were opened and in 1943 - 280. 89 The staff and students of several physical culture institutes formed special military units and fought together during the war, most notably those from the Lesgaft Institute in Leningrad which, in 1942, was awarded the Military Red Banner. 90
Considering the terrible devastation of their country, the material deprivations and the losses of so many of their people, the Soviet nation's repelling of the invaders was a tremendous achievement and some of the credit must be given to the way the Party rallied the physical culture movement to prepare the population mentally, spiritually and physically. Schools, other educational institutions and the Komsomol, despite the still chronic shortages of specialists, facilities and equipment, also played their part in preparing young people for military service.

vi) The Period of Rebuilding - 1945 to 1958

Once hostilities ended in May 1945, the country began the enormous task of reconstruction. Victory had been achieved only at the expense of many millions of lives, extreme deprivation, destruction and misery in occupied areas in particular and material cost. Many towns and villages needed to be rebuilt and families had to adjust to life without their members who had died in the war (some 20 millions). One positive aspect to emerge with victory was the Soviet Union's position of power and influence in Europe, although this was affected by its uneasy relationship with many other countries. The Party embarked on a plan of reconstruction in an effort to raise the status of the Soviet Union to that of a world superpower, and this included the sphere of sport.

The ultimate aim included re-entry to, and victory in, the 1952 Olympic Games, but many top athletes and coaches had lost their lives or been wounded in the war. In 1945, among the country's physical culture workers, only 7 per cent are said to have had a higher specialised training and 15.7
per cent a middle specialised training. In October 1945, the government issued a Decree which gave cash awards to athletes who set records or who were placed in top-class competitions. Salaries and bonuses were also awarded to ranked athletes and 80 young people's sports schools were set up to train athletes so that they need not work to earn a living but were, in effect, professionals. Complaints from international sports federations, which the USSR had begun to join after 1945, forced the Soviet leaders to announce in 1947 that only badges would be awarded for top performances and athletes were assigned token professions, usually students, servicemen or coaches.

Although the greatest efforts were made to train top-class athletes, the public at large was not entirely neglected. In 1946, the GTO programme was simplified and made more accessible (and more easy to pass) to larger numbers. The number of institutions training teachers and coaches to work in physical education and sport was increased and money was assigned to improve facilities and equipment.

School physical education was faced with the task of strengthening children's health. Many were suffering ill-health and growth deficiencies owing to a poor diet during the war and immediate post-war years. A new syllabus in 1947 classified the activities by motor skills rather than by sports, and team games were almost completely neglected. Teachers were faced with the dilemma of conflict between the syllabus material and BGTO activities which differed, but were both to be undertaken in schools. The Ministry of Education gave teachers strict details on methods and content of lessons and insisted that children's biological and
physiological requirements be considered, especially those children with ill-health. Nonetheless, only 33 lessons a year for Classes I and II and 66 hours a year (one each week and two each week respectively) were given over to physical education. 94

A further new syllabus in 1954 reflected the Party's 1948 campaign to promote sports proficiency. The emphasis in schools reverted to gymnastics, sports and team games. Children were to be taught basic skills of each activity by means of a syllabus based on BGTO and GTO awards and were expected to attain the badge for their age-group. 95 Those children who wished to pursue a sport or a variety of physical activities beyond the usually very basic level which schools could offer (owing to continuing shortages of equipment, facilities and specialist teachers), had to go to out-of-school organisations, such as clubs, sports schools and Young Pioneer palaces and houses.

In 1952, the government issued a decree requiring all sports organisations, including the trade union sports societies to allow children to use their facilities in the daytime to try to compensate for the deficiencies in schools. However, it seems that many organisations were reluctant to permit children to use their facilities which they could have damaged. 96

The first All-Union children's summer spartakiad was held in 1954. The sports included athletics, gymnastics, swimming, cycling, volleyball, basketball and shooting and the competition was intended to "promote physical education work and raise levels of performance in a variety of sports". 97 The first All-Union winter spartakiad was held in 1959. It
seems likely that most (possibly all) of the finalists were members of sports schools since only they could have received a sufficiently high level of training in these sports. The number of sports schools continued to rise – in 1946 there were 460 and, by 1957, there are said to have been more than 1220. 98

The 1952 Olympic Games provided the Soviet Union with the opportunity to prove to the world that it had become a leading sports nation. Soviet athletes came joint first with the USA in the unofficial points table and had been able to enter athletes in all events except field hockey – a measure of the success of their sports training programme which had been undertaken despite the disruptions of the war and its aftermath. Members of the Soviet team even broke two world and six Olympic records at the 1952 Games, despite their lack of previous international competition. 99

The number of trained specialists continued to rise over the period of reconstruction with greater numbers graduating from higher education institutions than before but, despite this, there were still acute shortages of specialist physical culture teachers in schools and hardly any teaching in junior classes (I to III). Most specialists, instead, preferred to work in sports schools and clubs with their better standards of facilities, equipment and children's ability.


The Soviet leadership continued to pursue its immediate post-war goal of world domination of sport for ideological
purposes to prove the benefits of life in a socialist society. Soviet successes were used within the country to promote loyalty and to engender a united spirit of patriotism among the many different nationalities. International competitions were, and still are, used to promote friendly relations with other nations when other means have been impossible or, at best, difficult. A particular area of international contact has been with third world countries some of whose sports systems have developed with Soviet guidance. The USSR has also guided other aspects of their life and, by installing advisers and by offering education to their students, they have exerted a degree of influence in leading the countries towards socialism and friendship with the Soviet government.

This period saw greater prosperity, a shorter working week (some 40 hours in a 5-day week from 1967) for most people with whole weekends free, a wider range and greater amount of consumer goods than previously and a continuing population shift to urban areas. The population now had the time, the means and the desire to indulge in sport for its recreational value and for their own pleasure rather than for entirely extrinsic purposes as demanded by the state in previous periods.

The state, with its stronger economy, spent greater amounts of money constructing new sports facilities so that more people could spend their increased free time in state-organised and, therefore, state-approved (that is 'useful') activities. This was also a period when the Party leadership, having confirmed that the country had achieved the position of a strong socialist state, was now embarking on
plans to provide the material-technical base to become a communist country. In schools, the 1954 physical education syllabus was considered to be weak as it "lacked any instruction regarding the appraisal of the pupils' progress in physical training". All this "did not help establish physical culture as one of the main, general education subjects in the school".

A new syllabus for Classes I to IV (ages 7 to 11), introduced in 1960, attempted to overcome these weaknesses by emphasising the need to teach each activity and, where necessary, to distribute pupils into groups according to fitness and ability to be taught according to their different needs. The syllabus had as its main aim (as for other subjects in schools) the preparation of children for life and for socially-useful work with particular emphasis on the promotion of their good health and all-round physical development. Much of the work was to be conducted outdoors and include teaching the motor skills: walking, running, jumping, climbing, overcoming obstacles and skiing, as well as various physical exercises, rules of hygiene and social skills. To assist teachers (most of whom were non-specialists), definite goals for each grade were prescribed in each section of the syllabus.

The second part of the syllabus, for Classes V to VIII, consisted of two sections, one of which was common to all schools and another which enabled each school to choose a sport in which it could specialise according to local conditions and the teacher's specialisation. Health Days and tournaments were introduced which accounted for 11 to 12 whole sports days in the school calendar. From 1960, end-of-
year marks (out of five) were awarded for physical education as for the other school subjects. The BGTO norms were used as guidelines for standards of achievement. In 1963, the Russian Education Ministry added physical education to the school-leaving certificate. This, and the end-of-year marks introduced in 1960, gave the subject added status.

On 11 August 1966, the Central Committee of the CPSU and the USSR Council of Ministers issued the Resolution "Measures for the Further Development of Physical Culture and Sport" which assigned physical culture and sport as one of the main elements in the communist education of the population, beginning with their physical education in school. As a result of the Resolution, Republican ministries of education were urged to ensure that all schools had facilities suitable for implementing their physical education programme. Two lessons of physical culture per week were made compulsory for all classes and money for new equipment was to be increased. From 1967, all rural schools were to be able to establish the position of 'teacher of physical culture' on full salary, despite there not being a full timetable for the subject, but he/she was also to conduct extracurricular activities. Improvements in teachers' qualifications and in their training were also to be undertaken.

In 1967, a new physical education syllabus was introduced, taking into account the gradual transition from eight to ten-year schooling. The school-leaving age was to be 17 by 1970 and from 1967 physical education lost some of its status since its marks were excluded from the school-leaving certificate until 1971. The main aims of the
syllabus were "to teach techniques of movement, develop motor skills and impart a system of knowledge". Teachers were set problems in the syllabus which they were to solve and the educational aspect of the lessons was emphasised. Each class was assigned 70 lessons each year. Skiing and dance exercises were included from Class I and swimming from Class IV as a required section.

The syllabus for Classes I to IV consisted of material required in all schools and from Classes V to X of a basic section plus a supplementary section in which choice was allowed. Twelve hours each year were allocated for the optional material in Classes V to VIII and 14 hours in Classes IX and X. Standard tests were introduced for Classes IV to X to allow evaluation of pupils' progress which in Class VIII matched the BGTO standards and in Class X the GTO-I standard tests.

A new GTO programme was introduced in 1972 and was to be "an important part of the mass physical culture work in schools". The country was being urged to train specialists and workers for the many professions to boost the country's economy. School physical education was to play its part by strengthening pupils' health, developing their physical capabilities, forming their motor skills and teaching them correct moral skills, such as patriotism, collectivism, boldness, resoluteness, persistence and clarity of purpose.

All aspects of the physical education programme for schoolchildren, including lessons, extracurricular activities, physical culture and health measures and out-of-school physical activities, including sport in Young Pioneer camps
and sports schools, was to be based on the new GTO programme which lowered the starting age for awards to 10 years of age.

Teachers were given very clear instructions on the method and content of lessons: a 1973 Kniga uchitelya fizicheskoi kul'tury (Handbook for physical education teachers) gives timetables for each year-group indicating the material which should be covered in each of the 70 annual lessons. The book also explains that the lesson should be split into parts and gives examples of what should be done in each. In fact, very little is left to the teacher's own choice or imagination, but we must not forget that in 1974 at least 20 per cent of the country's physical education teachers did not have a specialist training (in 1966 this figure had been 40 per cent). For Classes I to III the situation was even worse:

"Many physical culture classes are conducted without even the most basic equipment in unadapted buildings. And after all, the foundations for motor skills, proper posture, walking and good social manners are laid at this age".

Virtually no specialists were employed at this time to teach Classes I-III for physical education activities in schools.

From the mid-1970s, the subject regained some of its former status when it was allocated a marking system along with other subjects. It was again included in the school-leaving certificate and twice-weekly homework was to be given. Theoretically, if a pupil failed to pass in physical education at the end of a year, he/she could be made to repeat that year.
During this time, although top-class athletes were sought and trained, this was not a function of the school physical education programme since this was done mainly through special sports schools. On 22 December 1977, the government issued a Resolution 'On the further improvement of the teaching and upbringing of pupils in general education schools and preparing them for work' which included directions for increased health-care in schools and also more work on mass participation in sport by schoolchildren. There was, in addition at this time, a drive to build more facilities for sport in response to the 1980 Moscow Olympics and to train young athletes in the sports school system for international competition. However, for most schoolchildren, an education/upbringing which had utilitarian and political aims was the main purpose of their physical education and led towards life in socialist Soviet society. But this was not to be achieved at the expense of the physical fitness of the child. Because the physical education of children is not concerned entirely with teaching activities and with ensuring children's fitness, but also includes ideological, ethical and moral tasks, the government and Communist Party are concerned that teachers are qualified not only in their specialist subject but also to teach communist values.

A new syllabus was introduced in 1983 for Classes IV to X and this and the earlier syllabus for Classes I to III are explained in later chapters. In 1985, a new syllabus was introduced in accordance with the 1984 Educational Reforms. This appeared after the main research for this study had been completed and is, therefore, included only in Appendix H without comment on its implementation.
Physical culture, sport and the physical education of children have, in the Soviet Union, always played an important part in the country's economic, political and social plans. They have never been undertaken without some specific purpose, or solely for people's pleasure. Ever since 1917, given central control of all sport and PE, the authorities have used physical culture as a vehicle of social change, even nation building; this is a role that far exceeds the utilitarian functions of school PE and sport in the "liberal democracies" of the West.
Mass Participation and Proficiency in the Soviet System of Physical Culture and Sport and their Application in the Physical Education of Schoolchildren

The All-Union Physical Culture Complex *Gotov k trudu i oborone SSSR* (Ready for Labour and Defence of the USSR), upon which school physical education programmes are based, forms the foundation of the official 'sport for all' policy and also encourages Soviet youth to become involved in regular physical exercise (*massovost*).

The Uniform All-Union Sport Classification *Yedinaya vsezoyuznaya sportivnaya klassifikatsiya*, meanwhile, provides more serious athletes with the means to develop their talents in one or more sports to levels of proficiency (*masterstvo*). It enables the talented to compete within a district, town, regional or national league and the best to represent their country in international competitions.

Complementing one another, the GTO programme and the sports classification system provide a basic, all-round physical training for people and enable coaches to detect talent and then nurture and develop that talent to the highest levels. For children, kindergarten and schools teach the skills required in the GTO programme and sports schools and clubs teach the more specialised skills for the sports classification system (see the later chapters).

Since the introduction in 1935 of the sports classification with its system of rankings, the USSR, despite not competing in the inter-war period against the world's top athletes, has been able to raise substantially the levels of its athletes' performances. In 1945, Soviet athletes...
set 108 All-Union (national) records of which 13 are said to have exceeded official world records. From 1946 to 1955, levels were raised still further when more than 3,500 new Soviet records were set, of which more than 320 are said to have bettered world records.

When in 1952 the USSR made its debut in the Olympic arena in Helsinki, its athletes were able to enter all events except field hockey and finished joint first with the USA. This is an indication that, despite its lack of experience of top-class foreign competition, the Soviet sports movement had kept pace with international sport, in part due to raising the rankings standards to keep in touch with world records and levels.

Of the introduction of the massovost and masterstvo system a former Soviet president, Mikhail Kalinin, (paraphrasing de Coubertin) said:

"In our country physical culture means sport for the whole people; in our country millions participate in the physical culture movement. And it is obvious that talented athletes will sooner be found among those millions than among thousands, and that it is easier to find talented athletes among thousands than among hundreds".

Although Mikhail Kalinin spoke these words more than forty years ago, they sum up the principles of the search for sporting talent still employed in the 1980s.

* Using the points allocation in the Olympic Bulletin.
Massovost

The GTO Programme

The All-Union Physical Culture Complex 'Gotov k trudu i oborone SSSR' (Ready for Labour and Defence of the USSR) comprises scientifically-devised standards in running, jumping, swimming, throwing, skiing, hiking, orienteering, shooting and strength-building exercises. The activities are graded in stages according to age and, from 1985, cater for people from the age of 6 to 60 years.

The officially stated aim of the Programme is:

"To promote the formation of the moral and spiritual features of Soviet people with an all-round harmonious development of their moral, spiritual and physical capabilities, improving their health and promoting creative and labour activities". 118

Its tasks are said to be:

i) to make physical culture one of the most important aspects of the Soviet way of life;

ii) to attain high levels of preparedness of Soviet people, providing them with good health and the ability to work hard and defend the Motherland;

iii) to offer wide-scale and all-round propaganda of physical culture among different groups of Soviet people;

iv) to give everyone a feeling of need for interest in regular physical exercise throughout their entire lives;

v) to help people master the fundamentals of the Soviet system of physical education, giving them knowledge and practical skills for independent exercise, hygiene and civil defence;

vi) to promote mass involvement of the population in active
participation in running the physical culture movement;

vii) to promote the use of different forms of physical exercises in education, work and rest;

viii) to organise rational forms of movement regimes for all age-groups, men and women and all socio-demographic groups of the population;

ix) to develop mass sport and promote talent. 119

It is through the GTO programme that most people participate in sport and physical exercise. The government encourages mass participation and uses the programme for broad social functions. The Chairman of the All-Union GTO Council, A. Leonov, explained in 1977 that:

"All-round development of the individual is an imperative of the times. It is not enough today to be simply a scientist, a worker or a collective farmer. To be a useful member of society you must be physically fit". 120

Its function to strengthen the workforce was clearly illustrated in the following published list of tasks of the GTO programme in 1976:

i) to draw people into participation in sport;

ii) to promote the all-round moulding of the individual;

iii) to encourage physical fitness in an age of urbanisation and labour-saving machines and devices;

iv) to help raise labour productivity by three to four per cent;

v) to cut the sickness rate by half and reduce the incidence of accidents at work;

vi) to provide the first rung on the ladder to the top in sport. 121
Since its inception in 1931, the GTO programme has served, inter alia, to strengthen the population in readiness for swift mobilisation in the event of war. Several of the activities are of a paramilitary nature * and therefore serve this function.

Development of the GTO Programme

At a time when the Party Central Committee was calling for more centralised and direct government control of the country's sports movement, one of the results was the setting up in 1930 of the All-Union Physical Culture Council, attached to the government, the Central Executive Committee of the USSR. In effect this was a Ministry of Sport and one of its major functions was to encourage participation in sport and to motivate people towards independent physical activity.

The newspaper Komsomolskaya pravda published an article on 24 March 1930 in which it expressed the view that it was necessary to introduce a universal set of criteria for the appraisal of the physical preparation of young people, with set standards and requirements. It recommended that badges be given to those who met the standards along with a certificate from the All-Union Physical Culture Council. 122

The Council worked out the GTO programme and, after discussions with the country's sports organisations, it approved the project on 7 March 1931. This initial programme consisted of one stage encompassing 15 standards for

* See tables of GTO activities in Appendix A.
different activities, including running, jumping, grenade throwing, pull-ups on a horizontal bar (men), climbing a rope (women), swimming, cycling, cross-country skiing, carrying cartridge cases (men), rowing and moving about wearing a gas mask. 123

Additionally, participants had to learn about the principles of the Soviet physical culture movement, about military training and about self-control, health, hygiene and first-aid when doing physical exercise. The strong military bias to the programme reflected the Party's fear of attack on the USSR by 'imperialists' who were opposed to socialism in the Soviet Union (such an invasion had already happened from 1918 to 1921 and was again being threatened in the 1930s with the rise of fascism). The GTO programme presented the Party with an opportunity to give the youth of the country basic military training.

A second stage to the GTO programme was introduced in January 1933 in order to widen the requirements. The new stage was rather more complicated than the first and included standards in 22 activities and three theoretical requirements. The new activities included ski jumping (men), diving, fencing and overcoming obstacles. 124 It was now necessary to undergo systematic training in order to achieve the required levels of proficiency, 125 and facilities were needed to undertake the activities, which precluded many casual participants.

The BGTO Stage (Bud' gotov k trudu i oborone)

In 1934, the Komsomol suggested that the GTO programme be widened to include schoolchildren. The new 'Be Ready for
Labour and Defence' (BGTO) stage consisted of thirteen different activities and three theoretical requirements. BGTO badge-holders had to be able to conduct a class in one aspect of sport and to know the rules and be able to referee games in team sports such as volleyball and soccer. This was to encourage the dissemination of sports knowledge and helped to organise sports for the public.

The new BGTO stage influenced school physical education programmes and children had to work towards the BGTO test during their physical culture lessons. At the age of seven years in Class I, they had to reach the requirements of one standard, two standards in Class II, eight in Class III and nine in Classes IV to VII. The recently-formed children's sports schools (detskie sportivnye shkoly) used BGTO and GTO Stage I as the basis of their work in training young athletes.

With the BGTO stage and the two GTO stages, many Soviet people now had the opportunity to be drawn into the growing sports movement from an early age (seven years old) and to take part in organised physical training. The importance of this is acknowledged in the 1980s:

"In the thirties the GTO programme played an enormous part in the development of the physical culture movement in the country and became the foundation of the physical culture organisations' activities, and thanks to it, millions of young men and women received a comprehensive physical training". 127

* See Chapter VI for details of training in sports schools.
Despite this acclaim, a major weakness (from the point of view of children) in the GTO programme at that time was its strong military bias. The first people to pass the GTO Stage II were in fact twelve military students and officers and, by January 1935, 85 per cent of all servicemen were said to have passed GTO Stage I tests. The military bias may have caused many civilians not to work towards their GTO badges, but it did provide a good basic physical training for the military who generally had access to the necessary sports facilities. But something more was required for the physical training of the remainder of the country's populace. As a consequence, a revised programme was introduced by Resolution of the Council of People's Commissars of the USSR on 26 November 1939, and it was put into effect on 1 January 1940. The stages remained the same but each now consisted of two sections: the obligatory standards, which included theoretical knowledge, general development and military exercises, and optional standards, which were to help develop physical qualities in the participant. In order to make the award accessible to more people, the numbers of standards for each stage were reduced (BGTO - 11, GTO I - 14, GTO II - 15). The new regulations also gave two classes of GTO Awards - 'Pass' and 'Excellent'.

During the Second World War, the GTO programme served as a basis for the military-physical training of the population, and to cater for war-time demands, the programme was altered. The number of norms was raised (BGTO - 16, GTO I - 15, GTO II - 22) and some were replaced by others of a paramilitary nature (a knowledge of topography and of weapons, running, jumping and throwing in everyday or army
clothes, bayonet fighting and swimming). Through this training, reserves were prepared for the Red Army and for the defence of the Motherland.

In the post-war period, further adjustments were again made to the programme to enable it to serve a useful purpose. In 1946, the number of norms was reduced (BGTO from 16 to 7, GTO Stage I from 15 to 9, GTO Stage II from 22 to 9). Again, this measure improved accessibility to the awards and increased the number of participants accordingly (see below). 130

A new programme was introduced in January 1955 as a result of criticism that the levels of requirements for the norms were uneven, that age was not being taken into account, that standards were too low and that entrants for the award were not maintaining their standards once the tests were passed. The number of norms was increased (BGTO - 10, GTO Stage I - 12, GTO Stage II - 11). 131 The norms requirements were standardised and raised, as they had tended to drop below those of the country's physical culture and sport movement, and it was made compulsory for the practical tests of the GTO to be repeated every three years.

The new programme was not the hoped-for success: the public was still not being given a basic programme of physical training, high standards were not being achieved and schools were not being given time on the syllabus to train pupils for the BGTO and GTO tests that their pupils were supposed to pass. An important aspect of the new programme in 1955 was that age groupings were now applied (BGTO - 14 to 15 years old, GTO Stage I - 16 to 18 years old, GTO Stage II - over 18 years). 132
The 1955 programme failed to raise standards sufficiently and the public was still not participating in large numbers. If anything, the popularity of GTO was waning and so a new programme was drawn up and introduced on 1 January 1959 with several major changes.

The age-groups remained as before except that for GTO Stage II sub-divisions were introduced:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MEN</th>
<th>WOMEN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>19-35 years</td>
<td>19-25 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-45 years</td>
<td>26-35 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46+ years</td>
<td>36+ years</td>
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Activities included gymnastics, running, jumping, throwing, skiing and swimming. 'Tourism' (outdoor recreation activities) was added to the BGTO stage, cycling and walking to GTO Stages I and II and shooting to Stages I and II for men only. A new points system was devised for the appraisal of the results of the norms and the 'Pass' and 'Excellent' gradings were retained. The number of norms was again altered: BGTO - 7, GTO Stage I and II - women 7, men 8 (in Stage II, for women of 36 years and over, only 4 norms were necessary - morning gymnastics, 500 or 800 metres run, swimming and skiing, and for men of 46 years and over 6 norms were to be tested - morning gymnastics, 1500 metres run, swimming, putting the shot, shooting and skiing).

Health and hygiene instruction was a required element for all the stages, and BGTO schoolchildren were receiving a training which stressed the importance of the influence of physical exercise on the human organism, the significance of regular participation in physical culture and sport and
instruction regarding disease, diet, the importance of hygiene and use of the natural elements sun, water and air. At Stages I and II, in addition to the above, participants were also instructed in hygiene when using sports facilities and the harmful effects of smoking and alcohol.

The GTO regulations of 1959 required that tests be carried out only in competitions and with proper organisation and supervision. GTO Olympiads were initiated at this time with the purpose of generating popular interest, but weaknesses still remained in the system. It was found that all-round fitness was not being achieved and that the movement qualities (strength, speed and endurance) were only poorly developed. Additionally, the same critics claimed that the GTO programme was neither sufficiently demanding nor attractive enough to stimulate modern youth and they recommended a greater sports emphasis. 133

In 1965, a specialist GTO stage was introduced for the armed forces and was called the "Voennop-sportivny kompleks" (VSK) (Military-Sports Programme). It included exercises of a military nature, including swimming fully-clothed carrying a weapon, obstacle-training, cross-country running, ski racing in uniform, rowing in sea-going boats and underwater swimming. As a result of VSK, annual sports competitions for servicemen were initiated. 134

In 1966, on the initiative of the Central Committee of DOSAAF *, a further GTO stage was devised. Designed for

* DOSAAF - the Voluntary Society for Aid to the Army, Air Force and Navy which is the Soviet civil defence organisation. It trains reservists and is led and supervised by active and retired army officers.
young men of pre-military age, it was known as "Gotov k zashchite rodiny" (GZR) (Ready for Defence of the Motherland). Those taking this award had to master a military-type specialism such as motor mechanic, driver or wireless operator, in addition to the usual physical training exercises.

Between them GZR and VSK were responsible for the physical training of many of the young men of pre-conscription age and of the country's servicemen.

The five stages and their age groups were now:

I BGTO for boys and girls of 14 to 15 years
II Juniors aged 16 to 17 years
III GZR for males of pre-conscription age
IV a) Women 18 to 34 years  b) Men 19 to 39 years
V a) Women 35 years and over  b) Men 40 years and over

In August 1966, a Party Central Committee Resolution "On Measures Concerning the Future Development of Physical Culture and Sport" called for more sports facilities, more and better qualified sports personnel, larger and better sports festivals, higher standards in sport and more participants from among ordinary people. The GTO programme, accordingly, was revised, and after much discussion was approved and implemented on 1 March 1972. The age groups were altered and BGTO was abolished. The awards were given titles:

I 'Smelye i lovkie' (Bold and Skilful) for 10 to 13 year olds.
II 'Sportivnaya smena' (Sporting Reserve) for 14 to 15 year olds.
III 'Sila i muzhestvo' (Strength and Courage) for 16 to 18 year olds.
IV 'Fizicheskoye sovershenstvo' (Physical Perfection) for men of 19 to 39 years and women of 19 to 34 years.
'Bodrost' i Zdorov'ye (Fitness and Health) for men of 40 to 60 years and women of 35 to 55 years. (Older persons were permitted to compete only with their doctor's permission).

This now included younger children than previously and brought many more school-age children into the GTO programme. The country was looking for international success from its athletes and it was believed that through GTO promising talent could be detected and then nurtured from an early age. Lowering the minimum age to ten also ensured that youngsters could be attracted to sport and physical exercise and might remain enthusiastic for longer than if they had started at the previous minimum age of fourteen, when other interests might already have distracted them.

Military training and civil defence activities were prominent in the 1972 programme, particularly for youths of pre-conscription age. Once again, efforts were made to encourage mass participation in the country's GTO programme and in the sports movement generally. At this time, the importance was stressed of the need for a healthy and, therefore, productive workforce.

Minor alterations were made to the programme in 1973 with the addition of swimming and 'tourism'. The inclusion of swimming was a large part of a national campaign which aimed to teach every youngster to swim.

"The teaching of swimming, especially to children and teenagers, was done not only to strengthen them physically, but also to protect their lives".

Swimming was to be tested, without time limits, for the silver badge at Stages II, III and IV. A government
Resolution "On Measures for the Further Improvement of Mass Instruction of Swimming to the Population" recommended that small, shallow learner pools be built and that literature be published on the organisation and mass teaching of swimming. Some changes were also made in the programme to the civil defence sections.

On 1 September 1979, a new GTO stage 'K startam gotov' (Ready to Start) was introduced for children aged seven to nine years (previously GTO had begun at ten years of age). There were no theoretical aspects to the badge which could be awarded at silver or gold levels.

In Summer 1982, the first GTO Week was held. Initiated by the main organising body, the GTO National Council, headed by former cosmonaut Alexei Leontov, the aim of the Week was to introduce more people to sport. To prepare for the event, sports facilities were improved and, to cope with the vast numbers of expected participants, new sports instructors and judges were trained. Competitions were held in stadia and other sports centres, in parks, public gardens, recreation areas and on beaches. Overall, the events were planned to have a festive spirit to attract participants and to act as an incentive to take part in further sporting activities.

In 1982, the seventh edition of the handbook detailing the 1972 GTO programme referred in eloquent terms to the situation at its tenth anniversary:

"It is striding about our land with giant steps. As a welcome friend and as a companion to labour and study, the GTO programme comes into
the life of the group, the enterprise, the collective and state farm, the higher educational institution, the school, into each home and into each family". 138

Of its position in the Soviet sports movement, it was said in 1982, that the GTO programme was:

".... an important stage in the development of the Soviet system of physical education. It promotes and facilitates the establishment of physical culture in daily life and creates essential opportunities for the comprehensive physical training of the population for the labour and defence of the Motherland". 139

From 1980 to 1984, research was conducted into the GTO programme which had been operating since 1972. The results showed that GTO work was not being conducted satisfactorily in 11.4 per cent of the 43,710 physical culture collectives which were checked. The researchers blamed poorly-trained graduate physical education and sport workers from institutes and colleges who had insufficient knowledge of mass GTO work, a shortage of manuals on GTO, irrational use of sports facilities, a lack of proper planning and an extremely slow increase in the number of physical culture and health groups and their participants. 140 The researchers were concerned that not many adults were passing GTO awards. They reported that for Stage IV (men 19 to 39 years, women 19 to 34 years) only 6.4 per cent of the age group were badge-holders and that for Stage V (men 40 to 60 years, women 35 to 55 years) the figure was only 2.5 per cent
of the age group. They also criticised the age groupings for the tests which were not alike for men and women. This, they said, meant that it was not possible to determine fitness levels for the whole age groups of the population. Further, they believed that tests were not being carried out in a uniform manner: distances were not accurately measured and throwing implements were not always of the correct size and weight. These factors were leading to unreliable results, both for the award of badges and for the investigation of data.

As a result of the four years research a new GTO programme was introduced by the USSR Sports Committee on 1 January 1985. It had some significant changes, particularly in its age ranges which were lowered to include six year olds (school entrants from September 1985) and all but one were made uniform for men and women. The BGTO badge was reintroduced for schoolchildren. The 1985 stages are:

BGTO "Bud' gotov k trudu i oborone SSSR" (Be Ready for Work and Defence of the USSR)

I 'K startam gotov' (Ready to Start) 6 to 9 year olds.
II 'Startuyut vse' (All Start) 10 to 11 year olds.
III 'Smelye i lovkie' (Bold and Skilful) 12 to 13 year olds.
IV 'Sportivnaya smena' (Sporting Reserve) 14 to 15 year olds.

*a See Appendix A for standards of the 1985 GTO programme.
*b The official retirement ages in the USSR are 55 for women and 60 for men.
GTO "Gotov k trudu i oborone SSSR" (Ready for Work and Defence of the USSR)

I 'Sila i muzhestvo' (Strength and Courage) 16 to 17 year olds.

II 'Fizicheskoe sovershenstvo' (Physical Perfection) 18 to 39 year olds in four age groups (18-24, 25-29, 30-34, 35-39).

III 'Zdorovye v dvizhenii' (Health in Movement) men 40 to 60 years, women 40 to 55 years.

The current (1985) programme and its organisation are described in greater detail below.

Numbers of Participants in the GTO Programme

Since the start of GTO in 1931, the number of participants has risen, albeit rather slowly at first. Early figures, claimed by sports writers for the numbers of badge-holders, are recognised now to be unreliable for the following reasons:

i) they were often inflated to give a false impression of the programme's success and so meet set quota and draw in more people;

ii) awards were given to people who had not achieved the necessary standards - again in order to meet set quotas and, therefore, 'live quietly' (zhit' spokoino) as the saying goes in Russian.

The following early ('global') figures should not, therefore, be considered to be totally reliable.

Between 1931 and 1940, 1.5 million youngsters passed BGTO, more than 7 million people passed GTO I and over 134,000 passed GTO II. Rural areas were beginning to develop sporting activities - in 1936, more than 120,000 rural athletes fulfilled GTO standards. Women were
evidently being drawn into the sports movement because, in 1937, just over 400,000 were awarded GTO badges, although many more would have been forbidden to take part owing to religious constraints and other social pressures. From 1941 to 1944, 1,101,000 young people passed GTO, 2.5 million received their GTO I badges and 48,300 their GTO II badges. These figures represent the sports movement's endeavours during war-time to strengthen the population.

In the late 1940s, efforts were made to make GTO still more accessible by reducing the number of tests. The number of new badge-holders increased between 1945 and 1948 - from 470,000 to 1,433,000 for BGTO and from 936,000 to 2,624,000 for all GTO awards.

In 1957 alone, 2,567,700 people were said to have reached the standards for GTO I, 455,000 for GTO II and 1,498,000 for BGTO. This was at a time when it was felt that insufficient people were participating and a new programme was being planned for 1959. Indeed, in 1957, the total number of new badge-holders was 4,510,700 which was only 2.25 per cent of the total Soviet population of 200 million. Clearly, greater effort was required to induce more people to begin training for GTO awards.

The figures began to rise particularly sharply after the revised programme was introduced in 1972. In 1974, over 17.5 million new badges were awarded and, in 1975, 19.5 million. In 1976, the GTO standards were said to have become "a symbol of courage, strength, beauty and health to the people of the Soviet Union". The numbers continued to rise and, in 1977, some 23 million people passed GTO awards, as follows:
Stage I  10-13 years  5,209,000
Stage II  14-15 years  3,522,000
Stage III  16-18 years  5,970,000
Stage IV  19-39 years (men)  6,432,000
            19-34 years (women)
Stage V  40-60 years (men)  1,234,000  153
            35-55 years (women)

GTO combined-events tournaments, sponsored by the newspaper *Komsomol'skaya pravda*, involve many people in sporting competition. They are held in schools, factories, educational institutions and collective and state farms with heats from which the winners go forward to compete at district, regional, Republican and national levels. Many more are said to have taken part in various GTO competitions than have been awarded badges; for example, the first round of GTO competitions in 1978 attracted some 42.6 million participants (approximately one-sixth of the population) - 2.7 million more than in 1977 - with an increase of 1.2 million in the age group 10 to 28 years. 154 The total number of people being awarded GTO badges each year at that time was said to be around 22.4 million, 155 leaving around 20.2 million people without anything tangible to show for their efforts. In 1981, the numbers rose again and 27 million people received a GTO badge whilst 50 million took part in various GTO competitions. 156 In 1983, 30 million people between the ages of 7 and 60 years are said to have been awarded badges, 157 some 11 per cent of the entire population.

The GTO programme is used extensively by the military both as physical training for youths of pre-conscription age and also once they are in the armed forces. However, official
reports admit that there are problems. For example, in 1981, 98 per cent of young army recruits claimed to hold GTO badges, yet, when tested, many could not achieve the norms. Either they never had the badges originally, or the badges were awarded when they were young and these recruits did not maintain the levels of fitness which they had achieved in school.

The Current (1985) GTO Programme

The Stages

The GTO Programme has been devised according to age and sex criteria; it involves the population from six to sixty years of age and consists of seven stages:

BGTO

I "K startam gotov" (Ready to Start) for boys and girls of 6 to 9 years of age.

The aims of this stage are to develop children's elementary skills for doing physical exercises and to encourage their interest in games and physical exercises.

II "Startuyut vse" (Let's all Start") for children of 10 to 11 years of age.

The aims of this stage are to strengthen children's interest in regular games and physical exercises and develop their basic physical skills.


The activities and standards are given in Appendix A.
III "Smelye i lovkie" (Bold and Skilful) for children of 12 to 13 years of age.
The aim is to perfect the different physical skills which are necessary to develop positive attitudes to physical culture and sport as a means of improving academic progress and health.

IV "Sportivnaya smena" (Sporting Reserve) for pupils of 14 to 15 years of age.
The aims are to achieve a level of physical development that will enable these youngsters to take part in a variety of sports.

GTO

I "Sila i muzhestvo" (Strength and Courage) for 16 to 17 year olds.
The aims of this stage are to achieve a highly developed level of physical skills necessary for service in the Armed Forces and to become workers afterwards.

II "Fizicheskoe sovershenstvo" (Physical Perfection) for 18 to 39 year olds (with four age groups: 18 to 24, 25 to 29, 30 to 34, 35 to 39).
Its aims are to achieve an optimal level of physical development to maintain a good state of health, be efficient workers and able to defend the Motherland.

III "Zdrav'ye v dvizhenii" (Health in Movement) for men 40 to 60 years old (with four age groups: 40 to 44, 45 to 49, 50 to 54, 55 to 60), and for women 40 to 55 years old (with three age groups: 40 to 44, 45 to 49, 50 to 55).
The aims are to preserve a good level of physical fitness,
to provide good health, the ability to work and a readiness to defend the Motherland.

Men over 60 and women over 55 may take the tests of the final age group.

Armed forces personnel have their own Military Sports Programme.

Each stage consists of four sections:

i) **General Knowledge**

   This comprises two topics: physical culture in people's everyday life and civil defence measures.

ii) **Ability**

   Participants should be able to show that they can make use of different forms of physical culture for work, study and recreation. They should also be able to make use of hygienic and strengthening techniques whilst exercising in groups and independently.

iii) **Weekly Motor Requirements**

   This section defines the minimum number of weekly physical exercises which are considered to be sufficient to pass the tests.

iv) **Tests and Standards**

   Here are listed the types of tests which should show how each person's physical abilities have developed and how well that person can apply those abilities. The tests should indicate how physical qualities such as strength, speed, endurance and agility have been developed in each person, taking into account their age and sex.
Organisation of the Tests for Schoolchildren

The USSR Committee for Physical Culture and Sport has overall responsibility for the organisation of the GTO programme whilst throughout the country local committees for physical culture and sport co-ordinate GTO work in their areas. For children, local ministries of education and sports societies are also involved, along with the Komsomol and Young Pioneer organisations. Children receive instruction from physical culture teachers, teachers of initial military training, civil defence and other subject teachers, Young Pioneer leaders, medical personnel and coaches. The programme is organised so that pupils in odd-numbered classes should train for their awards and be tested when in even-numbered classes. "Well-prepared" pupils may take the tests a year early, that is, in odd-numbered classes.

Those who receive a 'Pass' mark are awarded a certificate, whilst those who pass the tests with results which correspond to a 'Gold Badge' receive a certificate and the badge which should be worn on the right lapel (if a badge or certificate is lost it can be replaced only if the holder retakes and passes the tests).

The tests include oral questions for the knowledge and skills section, and attendance at civil defence sessions is sufficient for that part of the award. The physical tests include shuttle-runs, 30, 60 and 100 metre sprints, middle distance runs (up to 2000 metres for girls and 3000 metres for boys), long jump, high jump, 'many jumps' (eight jumps from foot to foot to achieve the farthest distance possible), target ball throwing, long distance ball
or grenade throwing, pull-ups (boys), sit-ups (girls),
walking and running on skis, swimming, shooting, 'tourist' trips (hiking, skiing, boating, cycling) and orienteering.

Work for GTO awards is conducted in physical culture lessons, GTO clubs after school, in Young Pioneer houses, palaces and camps, in sports clubs and in sports schools.

Since 1972, school physical education curriculums have been based on the GTO programme in that the lessons must lead to pupils taking the awards. Greater detail of how this is achieved is given in the following chapters, but the researcher was informed in 1983, by the physical culture teacher in School No. 185 in Leningrad, that during the year he records the children's achievements (e.g. how fast they run and how high and far they jump). At the end of the year, the total results for each child are correlated. If the results are good enough, the GTO award is given. This teacher admitted, however, that not many of his pupils pass. When asked for the reason, he said that the children lacked interest and he blamed their parents for not giving them sufficient encouragement. Details of the pass-rate for GTO among children are given in Chapter IV. No details are available at the time of writing this study for the pass-rate for the 1985 GTO programme.

GTO programmes for schools are co-ordinated by staff at the area or city methodological centre. In Leningrad, this is located in the sports buildings of the Zhdanov Pioneer Palace on the main Nevsky Prospect, visited by the researcher in 1983. The staff at the Centre receive notification from Moscow of the GTO programme and they must ensure that the physical culture teachers in the city's
520 or so schools are given advice on its teaching and testing. The Centre's staff also organise GTO competitions for pupils in Classes IX and X in track and field athletics, skiing, soccer, handball, basketball and gymnastics.

The USSR is a vast country with wide differences in climate, geography and nationalities and, inevitably, there will be a variety of attitudes and degrees of enthusiasm for sport. The GTO programme has been the 'backbone' of the Soviet sports movement since 1931 and of children's physical education since the early 1970s and seems likely to continue to be so for the foreseeable future with just minor revisions from time to time. It also serves as an indicator of the physical fitness (preparedness for work and defence) of the population.
The Uniform All-Union Sports Classification System

The sports classification system has been defined as:

"A uniform system of appraisal of levels of training for sportsmen in all the country's territories with single sets of standards and regulations for different sports. These enable us to plan and organise the training of highly-skilled athletes in all Soviet Republics". 159

It comprises standards and regulations in different sports according to which athletes are awarded rankings, titles and categories dependent upon their results. The earliest ages at which sports categories may be awarded vary for each sport and examples are given below, but in every case the athlete must first hold the GTO award for the appropriate age group.

The Earliest Ages at which Sports Categories may be Awarded

Table 16

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sport</th>
<th>Age (years)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Figure skating</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gymnastics (girls)</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gymnastics (boys)</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handball, speed skating</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soccer, sailing, shooting, archery, water skiing, downhill skiing</td>
<td>11-12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Track and field, handball, basketball, water polo, fencing, wrestling, horse riding</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weightlifting, boxing, cycling, rowing, ice hockey</td>
<td>14-16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

contd..
Note: The earliest age at which one may be awarded the initial rankings in different sports are shown, however, in individual cases depending on sporting talent - exceptions may be made.


Aims

Since its introduction in 1935, the sports ranking system has had the following broad aims:

i) To promote and develop mass sport;

ii) To increase the nation's sporting success;

iii) To raise the level of teaching in sport;

iv) To raise the level of sports training;

v) To increase the importance of the role of sports competitions;

vi) To provide a single principle for defining levels of training for people of all parts of the USSR.

In so doing, it is said to provide a solid and broad platform upon which the Soviet sports movement can build athletic perfection. The base is provided by the GTO programme which encourages and organises mass participation.

The handbook for the All-Union Sports Classifications 1981 to 1984 lists the following aims:

i) A further drawing-in of the population into systematic and active work in physical culture and sport, broadening the sporting interests of young people and raising the level of sports training;

ii) The establishment of scientifically-substantiated rankings, standards and regulations and of the
conditions for athletes to fulfil the requirements of the rankings and categories in order to gain the awards;

iii) To assist in raising the level of sports mastery and successfully train athletes for international and All-Union competitions;

iv) To assist in educating athletes in the spirit of communist morality and observance of sporting etiquette. 161

It would seem that the sports movement is looking not only for top-class athletes, but also for the classification system to educate its people politically, physically and socially. The sports movement certainly puts much emphasis on sport for all, since it sees sport as an important ingredient in the ideal citizen's daily activities. Moreover, it feels that prestige is more likely to be gained internationally by Soviet athletes for the nation if they are successful in competitions against other nations and are seen to conduct themselves in a 'sporting' manner, even in defeat.

Tables 17 and 18 show the levels of performance required to gain the Master of Sport title for track and field athletics and indicate how sports proficiency has risen in the USSR in line with performances worldwide. The figures in Table 19 show that the number of athletes who have been awarded the title Master of Sport has increased steadily since 1950; thus we can see that the levels of performance have been rising, and continue to do so, for increasing numbers of people in accordance with the aims.
## TABLE 17

**THE LEVELS OF PERFORMANCE REQUIRED TO GAIN THE TITLE MASTER OF SPORT (MEN) 1949 TO 1984**

### MASTER OF SPORT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>100m</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>10.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200m</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>21.0</td>
<td>21.0</td>
<td>20.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>400m</td>
<td>48.5</td>
<td>47.0</td>
<td>47.0</td>
<td>47.0</td>
<td>44.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>800m</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>1.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1500m</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>3.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5000m</td>
<td>14.40</td>
<td>14.05</td>
<td>13.42</td>
<td>13.50</td>
<td>13.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10,000m</td>
<td>31.00</td>
<td>29.40</td>
<td>28.50</td>
<td>28.50</td>
<td>27.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hurdles (mins. secs.)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>110m</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>13.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>400m</td>
<td>53.6</td>
<td>52.0</td>
<td>51.0</td>
<td>51.6</td>
<td>48.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marathon</td>
<td>2:42</td>
<td>2:55</td>
<td>2:20</td>
<td>2:20</td>
<td>2:11.03</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Jumping (metres)

| High Jump             | 1.95 | 2.00 | 2.12 | 2.15 | 2.36 |
| Long Jump             | 7.40 | 7.60 | 7.75 | 7.70 | **8.54** |
| Triple Jump           | 15.00| 15.50| 16.10| 16.10| 17.35 |
| Pole Vault            | 4.15 | 4.40 | 5.00 | 5.10 | **5.78** |

### Throwing (metres)

| Discus (2kg)          | 49.00| 54.00| 59.00| 58.00| 66m 64 |
| Javelin (800gr)       | 69.00| 73.00| 80.00| 78.00| 91.20 |
| Hammer (7.257kg)      | 54.00| 60.00| 68.00| 67.00| **81.80** |
| Shot put (7.257kg)    | 15.40| 17.00| 18.50| 18.20| **21.35** |

**Notes:**
- * World Record
- + Olympic Record

Only events in 1980 Olympic Games have been included

It is at Master of Sport level that a person can become a full-time athlete - (professional)

**Sources:**
- Eedinava vesovuzhnaya sportivnaya klassifikatsiya, (Moscow, 1949), pp30,31;
- Sport in the USSR, 10 (1980), pp24,25;
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 18</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>THE LEVELS OF PERFORMANCE REQUIRED TO GAIN THE TITLE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MASTER OF SPORT (WOMEN) 1949 TO 1984</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Running (mins. secs.)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>100m</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>11.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200m</td>
<td>25.2</td>
<td>24.2</td>
<td>24.0</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>+ 22.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>400m</td>
<td>58.0</td>
<td>56.0</td>
<td>54.0</td>
<td>53.8</td>
<td>** 48.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>800m</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>2.09</td>
<td>2.03</td>
<td>2.04</td>
<td>** 1.53.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1500m</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>** 3.56.60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Hurdles (mins. secs.)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race (84cm)</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>100m</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>+ 12.56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Jumping (metres)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High Jump</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td>+ 1.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long Jump</td>
<td>5.70</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>6.25</td>
<td>6.25</td>
<td>+ 7.06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Throwing (metres)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Discus (1kg)</td>
<td>46.00</td>
<td>49.00</td>
<td>62.00</td>
<td>57.00</td>
<td>+ 69.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Javelin (600gr)</td>
<td>46.00</td>
<td>51.00</td>
<td>62.00</td>
<td>54.00</td>
<td>+ 68.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shot put (4kg)</td>
<td>13.75</td>
<td>15.00</td>
<td>19.00</td>
<td>17.00</td>
<td>** 22.41</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Notes:**
- World Record
- Olympic Record

Only events in 1980 Olympic Games have been included.

**Source:** As for Table 17
TABLE 19

NUMBERS OF RANKED ATHLETES

This shows the growth in the number of ranked athletes during the period 1950 to 1980.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total sports categories awarded</td>
<td>836,000</td>
<td>8,257,000</td>
<td>11,713,000</td>
<td>16,000,000</td>
<td>25,250,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master of Sport</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>4,900</td>
<td>5,100</td>
<td>7,200</td>
<td>10,500</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The physical education programmes of general schools, higher education establishments, physical culture collectives, sports sections, sports schools and other state and public organisations are all said to be guided by the GTO programme and the sports ranking system. 162

**Development of the Sports Ranking System**

The ideas and principles of the GTO programme, as mentioned earlier, led the Soviet sports movement to create the sports ranking system in the mid-1930s with the purpose of providing a framework for detecting and training its most talented athletes. Prior to this, national rankings had been created for four sports: track and field athletics (1918), cycling (1924), swimming (1927) and gymnastics (1934). 163 In 1934, the title Merited Master of Sport was introduced and Pravda reported:

"The Soviet government has established the title Merited Master of Sport. There is no doubt that this will play a significant role in raising the physical culture movement to a much higher level. The task of physical culture organisations is to give the Master support and attention, and to create for him the sort of conditions in which he may constantly grow and improve, thus being able to impart his experience and knowledge to millions of athletes". 164

In 1935, a small number of sports, including gymnastics, were given Master, First, Second and Third rankings, and in 1937, rankings, standards and regulations were established for ten types of sport (gymnastics, track and field athletics, swimming, skating, wrestling, boxing, weightlifting, fencing,
tennis and shooting). At this time, athletes could be awarded the title Master of Sport if they set a good All-Union record, won a Soviet championship or gained the First ranking in several sports.

In the early post-war period after 1945, the USSR entered international sports competition on a wide scale and, in order to keep pace with rising world standards, the qualifications for the rankings were raised and a Youth ranking was added. On 1 April 1947, a new sports classification system was introduced which included 42 sports and the Junior Sportsman ranking categories. Qualification standards were raised in that year, and again in 1949, as the Party called for better results and world supremacy for Soviet sport. Thereafter, revisions were made in 1952 and 1957 and, since then, every four years (in each post-Olympic year) - 1961, 1965, 1969, 1973, 1977 and 1981. In the 1980 to 1984 sports classification rankings, 59 different sports were represented.

Tables 17 and 18 which show the standards for men and women for the title Master of Sport in track and field athletics also include the 1980 Olympic Games winners' times or distances as these would have been taken into consideration when the 1981 to 1984 standards were produced.

The Sports Titles and Rankings 1981 to 1984

There are six categories for adult athletes who, for most sports, are 18 years of age and over, and three junior rankings for those of 15 to 18 years of age (according to the sport).

Titles - beginning at the highest level:

Master of Sport of the USSR, International Class is awarded
for successful participation in the Olympic Games or in World or European championships. The degree of success, for example, in the first six places or in the first eight places, depends upon the rules as set out for each sport.*

The athlete must also have met all the ranking standards for his/her sport.

**Master of Sport** is awarded to athletes who have met all the ranking standards for their sport and have achieved international success or have been particularly successful and attained high results in their sport under the scrutiny of two judges of the All-Union category or three of the Republican category.

**Sports Rankings** are awarded to athletes who achieve a set level of results in official competitions, judged by appropriately qualified referees and judges. The levels are set for each sport and are revised, usually every four years. In descending order they are:

- **Candidate Master of Sport**
- **First-Rank Sportsman**
- **Second-Rank Sportsman**
- **Third-Rank Sportsman**

Junior rankings are entitled:

- **First-Rank Junior Sportsman**
- **Second-Rank Junior Sportsman**
- **Third-Rank Junior Sportsman**

All sports rankings are valid for two years from the day the award was made. Athletes must confirm their ranking

---

within the two years or are thereafter classed in the lower group. The titles meanwhile, are honorary and held for life.

In addition to the titles and rankings, a state honorific award, **Merited Master of Sport of the USSR**, is given to exceptional athletes. For national folk sports, which do not involve international competition, the title **Master of (the appropriate national folk sport) of the Republic** is awarded. There are also additional awards for chess and draughts.

**Awards**

A badge and certificate are awarded to each athlete upon gaining a ranking. The award is also recorded in a classification booklet registered in the athlete's sports group. This serves as a registration document for participation in competitions and gives evidence of proficiency and membership of a club.

Sports schools and physical education teacher and coach training institutions usually require entrants to have achieved a prescribed level of proficiency, and the rankings' awards are tangible forms of evidence for this purpose.

Masters of Sport receive a financial award of thirty rubles per month from the USSR Sports Committee in addition to their normal salary.
Since the category Master of Sport of the USSR International Class was introduced in 1965, as many as 6,900 athletes had been awarded the title up to 1981. 168

The implications for Soviet sport of the rise in numbers of ranked athletes and their improved levels of performance have been discussed previously in the explanation of masterstvo and massovost. It can, however, be seen from Table 19 that the growth in the total number of sports categories awarded has been nearly double that of the growth in the number of Master of Sport awards. This is an indication of the efforts made by the Soviet sports movement to involve as many people as possible in the lower rankings including children, in order to increase the chances of detecting and developing talent. We ought not to expect as great a rate of increase in the awards of titles as these require athletes to have been exceptionally successful in international sporting events or to have achieved a particularly good result in an official competition. By contrast, the lower rankings are more easily attained and are accessible to a greater number of people in the favourable conditions offered by the Soviet sports movement in accordance with their policy of training many to find a few exceptional athletes. This applies primarily to school-age children who usually work towards their Junior rankings in sports schools.

Duties and Responsibilities of Titled and Ranked Athletes

The Soviet sports movement requires its titled and ranked athletes to perform certain duties which are stipulated in the handbooks containing details of the classification and ranking system. 169 They are expected to act
in accordance with sports ethics and the Moral Code of a Builder of Communism, systematically and constantly to work to improve their cultural and political level, improve their physical fitness and sport mastery and take part in competitions representing their sports collective. Additionally, each athlete must take care of him/herself, be under constant medical supervision and actively participate in the country's sports movement. They should also be prepared to assist others with their experience and knowledge. Many do assist others, particularly by helping with children's sporting activities. Indeed, the organisation of much of children's sport depends upon volunteer coaches and judges (see later chapters). Top-class athletes are also expected to give talks and demonstrations to children as propaganda for sport.

Types of Sports Covered by the Sports Rankings System

These are grouped into eight categories in the 1981-1984 handbook: 170

I Olympic Sports

a) Summer Olympic Sports

Basketball, boxing, freestyle wrestling, judo, Graeco-Roman wrestling, track cycle racing, road cycle racing, water polo, volleyball, gymnastics, modern rhythmic gymnastics, rowing, kayak and canoe racing, equestrian sports, track and field athletics, sailing, swimming, synchronised swimming, diving, handball, modern pentathlon, archery, pistol shooting, skeet shooting, weightlifting, fencing, soccer, field hockey.
b) Winter Olympic Sports

Bobsleigh, downhill skiing, skating, biathlon, ski racing, slalom skiing, ski jumping, luge, figure skating, ice hockey.

II Non-Olympic Sports administered by the Committee for Physical Culture and Sport:

Acrobatics, mountaineering, badminton, karate, sambo wrestling, wind surfing, water skiing, gorodki, rowing in various craft, folk games, slalom rowing, combined GTO events, orienteering, fireman's applied sport, trampolining, rugby, rock-climbing, tennis, table tennis, bandy, chess and chess composition, draughts and draughts composition.

III DOSAAF (the Voluntary Society for Assistance to the Army, Air Force and Navy) administer the following:

Model aeroplane sports, car sports, model car sports, helicopter sports, motor-boat sports, military-applied events, rowing in dinghies, hang-gliding, biathlon, combined events working with dogs, combined naval events, 'motorball', motorcycling, parachuting, gliding, underwater sports, radio sports, rocket-model sports, flying, model boats.

IV The Sports Committee of the USSR Ministry of Defence administers military-type sports:

Car sports, combined military-type sports, military gymnastics, weightlifting, rowing in sixes (naval dinghies), track and field athletics, skiing, military sports orienteering, parachuting, swimming, getting over rows of obstacles, shooting, exercises on special apparatus, rapid manoeuvres.
V The Ministry of the Interior (MVD) of the USSR and the Committee for State Security (KGB) of the USSR administer two sports:
Military decathlon and military triathlon.

VI The Central Council for Outdoor Recreation and Excursions administers outdoor recreation (hiking, camping etc.).
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39. Ibid., p91.
41. V.V. Stolbov, op.cit., p82.
42. N.F. Kulinko, op.cit., p92.
43. V.V. Stolbov, op.cit., p84.
45. V.V. Stolbov, op.cit., p83.
46. Ibid., p83.

49. Quoted in V. V. Stolbov, Ibid., p82.


52. V. V. Stolbov, op. cit., p84.

53. Ibid., pp84-85.

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63. Interview with V.P. Artem'ev, Physical Education Department, Brest Pedagogical Institute, 24 April 1985.

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66. V.V. Stolbov, op. cit., p111.

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69. N.F. Kulinko, op. cit., p121.

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76. Interview V.P. Artem'ev, Brest, 24 April 1985.

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99. Ibid., p147.
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CHAPTER III

PHYSICAL EDUCATION FOR PRESCHOOL CHILDREN

Soviet children may attend preschool institutions from the age of two months to seven (six) * years. In 1985, about half the children in this age range were said to be in preschool education. 1 Each kindergarten is obliged to organise all its activities in accordance with a current curriculum produced by the USSR Ministry of Education as already described in Chapter I. One of the main sections for each age group concerns physical education which has been described as "a basic element" in preschool education. 2

The physical education programme consists of the following forms of activity:

i) physical culture activities/sessions;

ii) physical culture/health measures during the day: morning gymnastics, active games and physical exercises during walks, physical culture minutes;

iii) active rest: physical culture leisure time, physical culture festivals, days of health;

iv) independent movement activities;

v) tasks at home. 3

The activities are shown in tabular form for all age groups in Table 20 and each is described below. Together they comprise the physical education programme. This Chapter also describes the health measures employed in preschool

* From September 1985 (earlier in experimental schools and in some Republics) children have begun to start school at six years of age (see Chapter I), but it will be some years before this occurs in all schools.
### Table 20: Types of Physical Education Work in Kindergartens

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Type of Lesson and Form of Work</th>
<th>1st Age Group</th>
<th>2nd Age Group</th>
<th>1st Junior Group</th>
<th>2nd Junior Group</th>
<th>Middle Group</th>
<th>Older Group</th>
<th>Preparatory Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Educational work (physical culture sessions)</td>
<td>Daily individual or small group games and development mental work, massage, gymnastics - 6-10 minutes with regard to age, physical condition and children's stages of development</td>
<td>Twice a week in small groups</td>
<td>Twice a week in small groups</td>
<td>By the end of the year in the whole group</td>
<td>15-20 minutes</td>
<td>20-25 minutes</td>
<td>25-30 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>Physical culture and health measures during the day</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Daily for 4-5 minutes</td>
<td>Daily for 5-6 minutes</td>
<td>Daily for 6-8 minutes</td>
<td>Daily for 8-10 minutes</td>
<td>Daily for 10-12 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a) Morning gymnastics</td>
<td>Individually 8-10 minutes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b) Active games and physical exercises during walks</td>
<td></td>
<td>1. 10-15 minutes 15-20 minutes 20-25 minutes 25-30 minutes 30-40 minutes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c) Physical culture minutes</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Daily as necessary 1-3 minutes depending upon the type and contents of the lesson.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td>TYPE OF LESSON AND FORM OF WORK</td>
<td>AGE GROUP, DETAILS OF ORGANISATION AND LENGTH OF THE SESSIONS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>-----</td>
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<td>---------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1st AGE GROUP</td>
<td>2nd AGE GROUP</td>
<td>1st JUNIOR GROUP</td>
<td>2nd JUNIOR GROUP</td>
<td>MIDDLE GROUP</td>
<td>OLDER GROUP</td>
<td>PREPARATORY GROUP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>Active rest:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a) physical culture leisure</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>20-30 minutes</td>
<td>20-30 minutes</td>
<td>30-45 minutes</td>
<td>45-50 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>time</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>minutes</td>
<td>minutes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b) physical culture festivals</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>not less</td>
<td>2-3 times a year for one hour</td>
<td>30 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>than twice a</td>
<td>year for 60 minutes</td>
<td>minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c) days of health</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV</td>
<td>Independent movement activities</td>
<td>Daily</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Daily</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>The character and duration depend upon individual needs of the children. They are conducted with the upbringer watching.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>Tasks at home</td>
<td>Morning gymnastics and physical exercises performed under parents' supervision and with them. The work is determined by the upbringer.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Fizicheskaya kultura v detskom sade. Tipovaya programa (Moscow, 1984) pp 5,6.
institutions since they are used together with the physical education programme to promote and maintain children's healthy growth and development.

Aims of Preschool Physical Education

The aims of physical education for preschool children were stated in 1984 by the USSR Ministry of Education in the book containing the programme:

i) to maintain and improve the children's health and strengthen their bodies so that they reach a high level of physical development: a well-proportioned body, the development of all bodily functions corresponding to the age group, the ability to adapt and to have certain physical and intellectual capacities;

ii) to bring the children up to have positive moral qualities and will-power and to develop children's activity and independence;

iii) to create conditions for purposeful motor activities;

iv) to develop vitally important motor activities: walking, running, jumping, crawling, climbing, tossing, catching, throwing, skiing, swimming, riding a bicycle, movements of the arms, legs, body and head and lining-up;

v) to teach children to play games;

vi) to encourage the development of movement quality: agility (including co-ordination); endurance - speed and strength, and balance;

vii) to encourage correct posture and prevent the development of flat feet;
viii) to tell children about the value of doing physical exercises and games, about the main rules of hygiene and to develop in them an interest in activity.  

The programme explains that these aims can be fulfilled in kindergartens if a reasonable daily routine of movement is established.  

The Director of the Leningrad City Methodological Office for Preschool Education explained to the researcher:  
"We regard the good health of preschool children to be vital, both for society and for the narrower job of education. The purpose of the preschool programme is to develop physically strong, morally sound and mentally-developed children for school".  

The physical education programme is clearly part of the health-care measures which take place in preschool institutions. The person responsible for physical education in Leningrad's kindergartens in 1981 was V.I. Maskalienka, head of the Methodological Office Health Section. She explained that she and other workers in her section collaborate with paediatricians, other doctors and physiologists when formulating advice to give to personnel in the City's kindergartens who are involved in physical education.  

In the opinion of N.A. Notkina, Lecturer in Physical Education at the Preschool Education Department at the Herzen Pedagogical Institute:  
"Physical education is taken very seriously - more so than any other subject in preschool institutions - since we use it to develop and take care of the
children's health. This is one of the most important tasks of upbringing". 8

At the 'Solnyshko' ('Sunshine') Kindergarten (No.16) in Brest, the Methods Specialist explained that physical education has to solve a twentieth century problem - that of insufficient exercise. She added that children are not naturally fit, but require exercise which must be done in planned amounts appropriate to children's ages and stages of development. 9

Soviet preschool physical education begins as soon as children enter the kindergarten. In this way it is believed that the activities can have positive effects on the child because, according to the work of researchers N.M. Shchelovanov and V.M. Bekhterov, conditioned reflex methods should be used, since the cerebral cortex begins functioning from the first weeks of a child's life. 10 These views were first put forward in Russia by I.M. Sechenev who, over a century ago, showed that infants are born with some instinctive movements such as sucking, opening and closing the eyes, crying and swallowing, but that motor skills such as walking must be taught and do not simply develop during the course of maturation. 11 This view is said to "contradict the bourgeois theory about a total biological predetermination and genetic coding of all the parameters of physical development". 12

In order to stimulate and thus develop children's motor activity, a planned and scientifically-based programme of physical and mental stimuli is given to each child in preschool institutions. Its value has been determined in
research work co-ordinated by the USSR Academy of Pedagogical Sciences. In 1970, S. Ya Laizane showed that three-year-old children who had been given a planned physical education programme could perform a standing broad jump better than a control group who had not undergone the programme. The boys in her physical education groups jumped on average 57.0cm (girls 56.5cm), whilst the control group averaged just 41.0cm. 13

Other researchers have used the standing broad jump as an indicator for the success of their programmes of increased motor activity coupled with longer periods than were formerly used for organised forms of physical education activities. The following results (in Table 21) are likely to have contributed to convincing preschool curriculum planners of the success of additional and more intensive physical education programmes.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>BOYS</th>
<th>GIRLS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>AGE (IN YEARS)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G.V. Sendek (Noril'sk, Siberia 1972):</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>75.3</td>
<td>96.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td>82.8</td>
<td>102.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K.O. Karapetian (Yerevan):</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mass Sample</td>
<td>72.5</td>
<td>83.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O.G. Arakelian (Leninakan):</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L.V. Karmanova:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>85.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>88.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In each case the experimental groups jumped farther than the control groups. Other research, for example, L.V. Karmanova (1975), used different indicators to show that physical education programmes develop children's basic movements. She gave a group of children a two-year daily physical education activities programme outdoors from the age of five to seven years and then tested them in a 30 metres sprint. Her group covered the distance in average times of 6.0 seconds (girls) and 5.7 seconds (boys). Other researchers have been said to have recorded times of 6.5 to 7.0 seconds for the same distance. 14 Karmanova's group of boys were able to cover the distance in a time which was equal to the norm for 6 to 9 year old boys qualifying for the 1985 GTO programme gold badge and the girls in just 0.2 seconds over the time required for the gold badge, and 0.3 seconds faster than the time required for a 'Pass' for 6 to 9 year old girls. 15

These are just a few examples of research work which has been undertaken into the effects of physical activity on young children by researchers at the Physical Education Department of the Institute of Preschool Education attached to the USSR Academy of Pedagogical Sciences in Moscow, and researchers in other parts of the country whose work is directed and collated by the above Institute. Workers at the Institute of Preschool Education compile draft copies of revised programmes of physical education according to recent research findings, and a number of 'experimental' kindergartens are asked to try out the work so that the results can be assessed. The Institute also confers with preschool physical education specialists such as
V.I. Maskalienka in the City Methodological Office in Leningrad and their opinions are sought. The various recommendations and comments are drawn together and a final draft Programme is produced and sent to each kindergarten to be used compulsorily. Some minor alterations are permitted, however, in recognition of different climates and conditions in various parts of the country, for example, in warmer climates substituting roller skating for ice skating and field hockey for ice hockey. These alterations are determined and authorised by Republican and City Ministries of Education. For example, in the case of Leningrad, they are worked out by the Methodological Office workers and authorised by the City Education Office. 16

The 1984 Educational Reforms and Their Likely Effect on Preschool Physical Education

The 1984 Educational Reforms affect preschool education mainly in the sense that six to seven year old children are gradually being moved into general education schools; where there are insufficient places for them in schools they will remain in kindergartens but with a school curriculum and be taught by school teachers. In these cases, and as conditions permit, they will, from September 1985, be taught physical education according to the curriculum of the general education school. * However, since this transition is gradual and may not occur in some areas for several years, as teachers are trained to teach the younger children and more school buildings can be

* This is described in Appendix H for the new class I of children of six to seven years of age and all the other classes.
provided, it seems likely that some kindergartens will continue to use their own staff, curriculums and buildings for their school preparatory groups (six to seven year olds). Their work will, therefore, be described in this chapter.

N.A. Notkina of Leningrad believed that the Reforms may have the following effects on preschool physical education programmes:

i) there will be three physical culture sessions per week, not two for each age group;

ii) more attention will be paid to independent work;

iii) there will be many more new exercises;

iv) there will be further research into children's movement capabilities to make them strong, agile and quick;

v) all forms of active rest (recreation) will begin at three years of age and days of health will be held once every three months for younger children and once every two months for the older ones;

vi) more sports festivals will be held in kindergartens. 17

These all intend to increase children's daily physical activity and aim to encourage them to undertake physical exercise independently, although at this age parents are asked to exercise along with their children. There are to be increased amounts of organised physical activities which are intended to interest and motivate children towards motor activity and also give them further opportunities for exercise. All activities are mixed, involving girls and boys working together - there is no differentiation.
The Physical Education Programme

The seven age groups are treated separately since each involves slightly different aims and activities:

i) the youngest group - two months to one year
ii) the second youngest group - one to two years
iii) the first junior group - two to three years
iv) the second junior group - three to four years
v) the middle group - four to five years
vi) the oldest group - five to six years
vii) the school preparatory group - six to seven years

Each part of the Programme will be described in turn.

I Physical Culture Sessions

The Aims of Physical Culture Sessions for each Age Group

i) The youngest group - two months to one year

Children of this age are given individual attention with opportunities to react to tactile, visual and aural stimuli. They are encouraged to move and by the age of six months should be crawling towards a toy or person who is calling to them, reach out and hold an object, react to simple words and music and be able to search for a toy. At one year of age, the child should be able to crawl up and down a small incline, *squat down and stand up again, crawl over obstacles, stand, walk on a flat surface and up and down steps and a small incline with assistance, push a trolley, perform movements such as putting one object inside another, simple dance movements, elementary games and play with a ball. At this stage, the upbringer works only with

* These are described fully in Appendix B
one child at a time as the children are too young to play together.

ii) The second youngest group - one to two years

Independent movement is encouraged and basic actions are developed to include changes of pace, balance, climbing a short ladder, throwing a ball, fine hand movements, kinaesthetic awareness and co-operation with others.

iii) The first junior group - two to three years

Movement, balance and posture are further developed with variations. The child is encouraged to imitate the upbringer's movements. Each child should look forward to and enjoy the exercises and activities which the upbringer has organised.

iv) The second junior group - three to four years

The children should be taught to do different kinds of movement systematically. They should be encouraged to make expressive movements and to move rhythmically. Posture, quality of movement and correct style should be taught, for example, walking with a straight back, combining well-co-ordinated arm and leg movements, not shuffling the feet and with the head held up. Co-operation with other children is considered to be most important along with the ability to feel rhythm and tempo. There should be outdoor walks with games and physical exercises, lessons on how to ride a tricycle, skiing and tobogganing. The children must learn to be tidy and to dress and undress themselves.
v) **The middle group - four to five years**

Children should now be able to perform exercises correctly. They should have a correct carriage whilst exercising and their movements become more complex with variations in ways of moving. Their agility and endurance should be developed and they should be able to perform all the exercises asked of them. Rules of simple games should be followed, and the children should be encouraged to use their intellect. By the end of the year they should be able to play games with children of the same age without the upbringer's help and have improved their skiing, sledging, cycling and ball skills. They should enjoy and become fully involved in sports festivals, become more disciplined, friendly with other children and show initiative.

vi) **The senior group - five to six years**

The children should be taught complex movements and be able to perform them correctly. They should be taught games rules. Ball skills should be expanded and improved. The different aspects of jumping should be taught, including body shape. Children should be able to analyse and choose their own movements to perform different tasks. Agility and endurance must be developed. Morning exercises should be performed daily with sets of exercises and more independent work should be undertaken. Elements of games such as badminton, the Russian folk game of gorodki and basketball are to be taught and small competitions involving speed, agility and endurance should be held. Each child should feel a sense of group spirit, should help others, especially younger children, take care of physical education
equipment and be encouraged to take an interest in sport and in sporting events in their district.

vii) The school preparatory group - six to seven years

At this stage, children should feel a need for everyday physical exercise. They should be able to exercise independently and organise simple games and activities. Each child should now be able to adapt to different conditions and make improved movements. They should have developed their speed, agility, co-ordination, balance, strength, endurance, posture and kinaesthetic awareness. The upbringer should be able to issue instructions without demonstrations. Children should strive to attain good results in all their physical activities and be made aware of physical culture and sport in the country as a whole.

Each part of the physical education programme is described below:

I Physical Culture Sessions

In schools these would be called lessons, but for preschool children they are not as rigidly structured, and so are best described as 'sessions' although learning situations should occur.

The youngest age group - two months to one year

Babies of this age spend much of their time asleep and for the youngest, their waking hours are spent lying down or in the arms of an upbringer since they are too young to move around independently. It is at this age that infants begin to respond to external stimuli and develop movements, and daily physical culture sessions are designed
to offer visual, aural and tactile stimuli. When the infants are around six months old they are encouraged to crawl on their hands and knees and so encouragement is given, such as placing a toy on the ground for them to crawl towards. The most elementary games such as 'hide-and-seek' are played as well as simple movements to music. The children are also given balls to play with. Sessions with this age group last for just 6 to 10 minutes and can include some massage to help stimulate the circulation and encourage muscle movement and development. Most of the work done with this age group is with individuals except in the last couple of months when the upbringer begins to work with small groups. By the end of the year they should all be able to walk independently.

The second youngest age group - one year to two years

At one year of age children are usually eager to move around and use their newly-acquired walking skills; the syllabus gives them opportunities to improve their walking technique by practising balance skills. They also crawl and climb under, over, up and down obstacles, learn how to throw and roll a ball with either hand, do exercises which aim to generally develop their bodies and improve their gross and fine motor skills. The children are encouraged to play with toys on their own and to play simple games with the upbringer. The skill-learning sessions should be undertaken twice weekly in small groups and last for 10 to 15 minutes.
The first junior group - ages two to three years

Twice a week in small groups the children have a 15 to 20 minute session when they practise walking, running, jumping, rolling, throwing, catching a ball, crawling and climbing skills. Exercises in balance play an important part in the sessions because good balance aids all other motor activities. General development exercises are designed specifically for different areas of the body: the arms and shoulders, the legs and the trunk. At this age, the children are introduced to simple drill exercises - forming and reforming in a circle, in pairs and in a single line. This is especially useful when the upbringer takes the whole group for sessions towards the end of the year and the children can be more easily organised. Sessions include games involving the motor skills of walking, running, crawling, jumping, throwing and catching and kinaesthetic awareness. Some of the games include singing. The allocation of time for each activity for this and the older age groups are given in Table 22.

The second junior age group - ages three to four years

This and the older age groups have three sessions each week - two in the kindergarten, and one outdoors during a walk. For this group each session lasts between 15 and 20 minutes and encourages co-ordination and quality in their movements. They are taught to co-operate with one another, and are given exercises which combine work on rhythm and tempo. The material used in their sessions is much the same as for the previous group except that it is a little more complex and demanding; important additions
### TABLE 22

**THE ALLOCATION OF TIME FOR THE VARIOUS ACTIVITIES IN THE PHYSICAL EDUCATION PROGRAMME FOR KINDERGARTENS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Exercises</th>
<th>1st Junior Age Group</th>
<th>2nd Junior Age Group</th>
<th>Middle Group</th>
<th>Oldest Group</th>
<th>Preparatory Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Basic movements</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>comprising: walking</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>running</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jumping</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crawling and Climbing</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Throwing and Catching</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General development exercises</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercises in balance</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dance exercises</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forming and reforming</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active and team games</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports exercises</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>comprising: sledging</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>skiing</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>skating</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>riding a bicycle</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>swimming</td>
<td>depending on the facilities and length of the course of instruction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: *Fizicheskaya kul'tura v detskom sadu - Tipovaya programma*, (Moscow, 1984), pp8,9.
are the sports exercises involving sledging, sliding (on ice), moving on skis, cycling and preparation for swimming.

The middle age group - ages four to five years

The sessions are now 20 to 25 minutes long and the upbringer is told to ensure that each child performs the movements and exercises correctly. Again, the work involves children running farther, jumping longer distances and performing more complex tasks such as throwing a ball at a target with one hand and then the other. The children are taught games which require them to use and so develop their intellect. They are also encouraged to play games with the other children without the upbringer's help. They are additionally given opportunities to express themselves through movement, again using their cognitive skills. Some elements of national folk dancing are taught as well as moving in time with music to develop rhythm and tempo. Sports festivals enable the children to use the material and skills they have learned in displays, parades and competitions and act as strong motivating factors. Partner work is included, and the children now learn to throw and catch a ball in pairs. It is important to note that throwing and catching are taught for both hands, regardless of whether a child is naturally left- or right-handed and may help offset some of the one-sided development of co-ordination and general motor activity seen so often in British children.

Senior group - ages five to six years

At this age, the children can perform quite complex
skills and qualities of agility and endurance are stressed in their work with longer (320m) runs. Speed is also encouraged in shuttle-runs as well as in short sprints. These also promote agility and endurance. In Table 22 it can be seen that the time devoted to running is greater for children of two to three years old and above than for any of the other basic movements. The promotion of endurance is an important factor in all aspects of Soviet children's physical education in recent years. * Additionally, children's strength is increased through jumping and throwing exercises as well as working with medicine balls. Games such as gorodki, basketball, badminton, soccer and ice hockey are introduced with elements of them being used in the sessions. Games now have names so that the children can recognise them, relate the name of the game to the way it should be played, remember it and recall it for another occasion. Similarly, the use of simple dances, repeated over several sessions using recognised music, can allow the children to recall and improve their movements. Where conditions permit, swimming now involves increasing children's confidence in the water and the use of simple strokes.

School preparatory group - ages six to seven years

In their final year at the kindergarten the children are encouraged to feel a need for everyday physical exercises.

* This point is particularly emphasised in the new (1985) Physical Education Programme described in Appendix H.
The physical culture sessions provide them with the knowledge and physical skills to exercise, and daily physical education in the kindergarten should be a regular feature of their lives which they should enjoy. The material for this year is based on the previous year's work, but is again more complex with greater physical and mental demands. Table tennis and ice skating are included. Dance exercises include free, expressive movement to music as well as set dance steps.

The work done in the physical culture sessions is organised in three stages:

i) The first stage - to teach the youngest children to move each part of their bodies and to encourage them to move and to enjoy movement;

ii) The second stage - here imitation plays a large part in the sessions as children are taught specific movements;

iii) The third stage - the skills and movements are applied to games situations and opportunities are provided for competition. 19

In the earliest stages, the sessions are short and frequent and, although the material is structured and planned to be progressive and to suit the individual child or small group, it does not require the structured format which should be applied to the older groups.

The Structure of a Session

An example of a session with a school preparatory group follows - it contains three parts and involves a 35 minute session. 20
Introductory part (3-6 minutes)

Aim: to prepare the children for the work of the session, both mentally and physically.

Contents: some elementary drill exercises in which the children move around the work area in lines, singly or in pairs, some gentle running and doing simple exercises which relate to the work and games to be undertaken in the main part.

Main part (20-25 minutes)

Aim: this is the part of the session in which the main teaching is done. It takes two-thirds of the total session time and the children should be working hardest in this part. It includes a variety of activities to maintain their interest and should help strengthen the children.

Contents: general development exercises concentrating on different muscle groups, both with and without objects, exercises in basic movements both for large and small muscle groups: walking, running, jumping, climbing and throwing. With the 6-7 year olds, the upbringer encourages the children to analyse their own and their classmates' movements and in each session they should work on two or three different basic movement skills. Active games consists of relay races and small games in which the children may utilise the skills they have already learned. Elements of team sports may be introduced.

Concluding part (2-4 minutes)

Aim: to calm the children down after the exercise and excitement of the previous part. It can include exercises or games which do not require much activity. They may
involve singing and mimetic movements.

Conducting the Sessions

Where possible the physical culture sessions include work outdoors. For example, for children of three to four years of age and older there are three sessions each week, two of these are outdoors (one during a walk) and one indoors. Even in what we in Britain would consider to be very cold weather, sessions can still be held outdoors. In Kindergarten No.16 in Brest, the researcher observed an outdoor session in near freezing conditions (explained in Appendix C) and the kindergarten's doctor explained that the children work outdoors in temperatures as low as minus 18 degrees Celsius, but not in the rain or high wind. He explained that if the weather is very cold they wear felt boots and warm gloves. In the observed lesson they all wore warm tracksuits, mittens and woollen hats. During walks (as explained below) the temperatures may be even lower.

Material for Physical Culture Sessions

During physical culture sessions children are taught physical skills, exercises, drill and games, in fact, all the material which they will require in the rest of the physical education programme or in their own independent movement activities. Children all learn a certain amount of motor skill instinctively, but it is believed that where weather and climatic conditions inhibit independent activity, greater importance should be placed on organised physical culture sessions.

Soviet researchers, including G.V. Sendek (1971) and A.G. Sukharev, have concluded that young children's bodies
need exercise to develop correctly and to maintain and strengthen their health. 23 These findings have led to all preschool physical education activities containing a great deal of motor activity and to the physical culture sessions, combining as much activity as possible with learning experiences. In fact, by encouraging children to do certain amounts of exercise in the sessions, the upbringers are not only strengthening the children, but are also training them to exercise regularly.

The elements of physical culture sessions include:

**Exercises in basic movements**

From the earliest ages preschool children are given encouragement and opportunities to develop their skills in basic movement. These begin with movements of the body, head, arms and legs and lead to walking, running, jumping, rolling, throwing and catching a ball, crawling and climbing, and prepare children for working for their GTO awards 24 which, from 1985, begin for children of six years of age. * Upbringers are given instructions about the material they should be teaching in the Kindergarten Physical Education Programme, but advice about methods and examples of exercises are given in various manuals such as *Uchite begat', prybat', lazat', metat' (Teach running, jumping, climbing and throwing).

* See Appendix A for the GTO activities and standards for this age group.
Exercises for balance

One of the main problems faced by young children learning to move is their difficulty in balancing, especially as they learn to walk. To help them tasks are set, such as walking along a plank or an inclined board. As their movements become faster and more complex, children are set more difficult tasks such as walking along a narrow line on the floor or climbing on to a stool, balancing on it and coming down without using the hands.

General development exercises

These exercises are designed to develop specific parts of the body and are undertaken in sets. The parts of the body are the arms and shoulders, legs and the trunk. The older the children, the more complex and strenuous are the exercises which are listed in general terms in the syllabus, but specific examples are given in various manuals published by the USSR Ministry of Education. Initially, the children imitate and keep in time with the upbringer to do their exercises, but by the age of four to five years they are supposed to be able to be told which exercises to perform and, on the command 'Begin exercises!', they should be able to do a set together and without assistance. 25

Forming and reforming

From the age of two years the children are taught simple drill exercises which begin by forming groups of various sizes, making a circle and lining up singly or in pairs. Initially, these are achieved with the upbringer's help (and probably her assistant) but in later years they can be done on command. 26
Sports exercises

From three to four years of age the children are given opportunities (where conditions permit) to sledge, slide on ice, ski, ice skate, roller skate and ride a tricycle or bicycle. Learning the skills associated with these sports is supplemented by games to practise each activity.

Swimming

Where facilities are available children are encouraged to develop their confidence and movement in water. This begins with the three to four year old age group which bathes, plays and splashes in shallow water and tries to go underwater without being afraid: The six to seven year olds should be able to swim 10 to 15 metres unaided.

Active games

From one year of age games are organised for the children; they involve using the motor skills the children have learned and practised in their physical culture sessions. The youngest children play with the upbringer or independently with toys and as they become older they learn to co-operate and play with each other. The games involve the movements they have performed in the section 'Exercises in basic movements' and have names relating to the types of actions which are needed. Some games require chanting or singing.

Dance exercises

Beginning with the three to four year old group, dance exercises are taught which develop rhythm and tempo. They also help to improve children's co-ordination. From the age
of four years they learn elements of some national folk dances which should ultimately help them develop a sense of national pride. The five to six year old group learn to express the music in their movement and the oldest group move expressively and freely. They also learn simple circle dances.

**Team games**

The five to six year old group begin to learn elements of the games gorodki, basketball, badminton, soccer and ice hockey or field hockey. The older group also play table tennis. They are too young to play the games properly but use scaled-down equipment and learn to throw, hit or kick as appropriate to the sport. The older groups may play mini-games with simple rules. 27

The most recent innovations in the physical culture syllabus have occurred in the team games section. In the 1978 syllabus, for example, the sports which were to be introduced for the oldest group (6-7 years) were gorodki, badminton and table tennis 28 and the five to six year olds played just badminton. 29 However, in 1981, staff at the Leningrad City Methodological Office for Preschool Education explained that:

"We have introduced a new and interesting form of activity into kindergartens - that of sports such as volleyball, basketball, ice hockey, tennis and soccer. Children are introduced to these sports depending on their physiological, psychological and motor experience. These sports are normally played by the older age group of six and seven year olds. In Leningrad, we have worked out a
special programme for conducting these sports with preschool children and teachers generally are very keen on these activities because they can do them either indoors or in the open air". 30

Dance did not appear in the 1978 syllabus but was introduced in 1984 starting with three to four year olds. This begins with set movements, including the steps of national folk dances, and develops for the five to six year olds into expressive movement. A further innovation has been the use of rhythmic gymnastics (exercises to music) and usually a music specialist assists with piano accompaniment. In Brest, all the kindergarten music upbringers have been asked to attend seminars to advise them about the accompaniment tasks, and the use of exercises to music was said to motivate the children to work energetically and rhythmically. 31

Outdoor Physical Culture Sessions

It is considered important to have physical culture sessions outdoors, where conditions permit these to occur, for the following reasons:

i) they allow the children room to move about more actively than indoors; 32

ii) they give them more time in the fresh air which "enriches the blood with oxygen and leads to a proper conditioning of the cardio-vascular and respiratory systems, to the intensification of metabolism, and to physical fitness". 33

They can either be held in the school grounds as described
for a lesson which was observed in Brest (Appendix C), or part-way through a walk, for example, in a park or countryside area. Table 20 indicates that, of the three physical culture sessions each week for the four oldest groups, one should be taken during a walk. The outdoor session observed in Brest included activity for most of its 35 minutes; the upbringer ran as well, and did most of the exercises with the children. Despite the cold weather, all seemed quite comfortable owing to their warm clothing and constant activity.

Although in Brest children have physical culture sessions outdoors in temperatures as low as minus 18 degrees Celsius, the temperatures are far below that in other regions for many months of the year. In Siberia, for example, children walk, exercise and play in temperatures which are much lower. Criteria have been set for outings in kindergartens in Norilsk, Siberia, and even apply for children who have moved there from warmer southern regions. Depending on the wind force, the minimum temperatures in which children can be taken out are as follows:

- 2-5 years - minus 25 to minus 30 degrees Celsius.
- 5-6 years - minus 30 to minus 40 degrees Celsius.
- 6-7 years - minus 30 to minus 42 degrees Celsius.

The criteria are said to have been established as a result of "a painstaking medical study of the impact of low-temperature outings on the health and physical development of children, with a lower incidence of colds and obesity".
Health-Related Grouping for Physical Culture Sessions

In the Soviet system of physical education it is acknowledged that children have individual differences which require them, in some cases, to be taught differently. In general, the majority of children can perform physical activities of the same loadings but some, because of health problems or because they have slow or erratic maturation rates, may require special attention. Children with deformities or other health problems may be given remedial treatment by their kindergarten's doctor or nurse or sent for regular treatment to a local polyclinic. Children requiring such attention may be identified during regular medical checks or may be referred by their parents or upbringers. The younger children are treated individually and older children with more severe problems may require individual attention, but from the ages of four to seven years they may be treated in groups if their problems are not too serious.

From the age of four years children in kindergartens are tested twice-yearly to see whether they are able to undertake physical activities with the same loads as the other children. Two types of criteria are used: physical tests held in September and May and identification of children who have been ill a certain number of times in the previous year. Details of the criteria applied in kindergartens in Brest are as follows:

* See later in this chapter for details of medical care of preschool children.
1. **Physical tests**

In September and May, the start and end of the year, each child is tested performing a 30 metre sprint, a standing broad jump and throwing a ball weighing 200 grams ± 10 grams. Tables have been worked out according to age and sex and points awarded to each child. 39

2. **Illness records**

All children are graded according to the number of times they have been ill:

- **Group 1** - not ill for 12 months.
- **Group 2** - ill one to three times in the previous twelve months.
- **Group 3** - ill four or more times in the previous twelve months.
- **Group 4** - children referred for treatment at a polyclinic. 40

The two sets of criteria are considered together and children who have performed badly in the physical tests are put into one of the groups determined by illness. Most can attend physical education activities with the other children but, according to their condition, are given different loadings, worked out by the doctor. Some are given greater loads, others less, according to their individual needs. In the handbook *Mediko-pedagogicheski kontrol' dvigatele'noi podgotovlennosti doshkol'nikov v detskom sadu* (Medical-educational supervision of the motor state of preschool children in kindergartens) researchers reported in 1983 that 33 per cent of the children in Brest's kindergartens of ages 4 to 7 for the previous three years were in the healthiest group. 41
Since each kindergarten employs a nurse and doctor (some kindergartens share a doctor), it is often possible for one of them to attend physical culture sessions, especially if asked, explained the doctor of Kindergarten No.16 in Brest. He added that they supervise and examine the children in these sessions, taking records of their pulse-rates to determine whether the activity is too much or too little for them. The greatest problem, he said, is to ensure that the activity is sufficiently intensive to be of value. 42

It will be useful at this stage to repeat that physical culture sessions are the times when upbringgers should teach skills to the children, and that in the remainder of the physical education programme the children are to be given opportunities to practise and use those skills in regular daily physical activity as described below.

II Physical Culture and Health Measures

Each child is expected to be given the opportunity to exercise daily in an organised manner. The exercises are to be learned in the physical culture sessions as explained above and no teaching is to occur, only physical activity. *

i) Morning gymnastics

Children of ages two to three years are to exercise each morning for several minutes as described in Table 20. The exercises are timetabled for between 7.00am and 8.30am

* See observed examples in Appendix C and recommended exercises in Appendix D.
and are held before breakfast which is served at 8.30am. They last for varying amounts of time according to age:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ages</th>
<th>2-3 years - daily</th>
<th>3-4 years - daily</th>
<th>4-5 years - daily</th>
<th>5-6 years - daily</th>
<th>6-7 years - daily</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4-5 minutes</td>
<td>5-6 minutes</td>
<td>6-8 minutes</td>
<td>8-10 minutes</td>
<td>10-12 minutes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Morning gymnastics is intended to strengthen the children's muscles and bone structure and develop their cardio-vascular systems, breathing and nervous systems by means of a regular daily set of exercises.

Morning gymnastics exercises are conducted by the group's upbringer who is advised to begin by forming the children into lines, followed by walking and some gentle running which promote heavier breathing and a faster heart rate. This is followed by reforming into lines to perform sets of general development exercises and then some jumping and more intensive running. There may follow some movements involving chanting, a song or some marching as they either remain on the spot or move about. In Brest, the researcher observed morning gymnastics with a five to six year old group and this session is explained in detail in Appendix C. It was held in a spacious hall and the Head-mistress explained that the two oldest groups have their sessions in the hall, and the two to four year olds have theirs in their own rooms.

It is recommended that each age group should learn, and be able to perform, a total of 10-12 sets of exercises each year, and that each session should stimulate them
physically, psychologically and emotionally. Musical accompaniments are to be used where appropriate and are said to help stimulate the emotions and to help the children understand the characteristics of some of the movements. The music may be played by the kindergarten's music teacher or on a record or cassette player.

ii) **Active games and physical exercises during walks**

Walks are timetabled for preschool children twice daily from the age of one year. One walk takes place in the morning and one in the afternoon. Each lasts for between 40 and 120 minutes according to age (see Table 20). The groups are accompanied by their upbringer and assistant, with the help of the nurse or a parent, and are taught to walk in pairs along the pavements. When they reach a park, playground or other suitable area, the group stops for games and exercises. It is recommended that from two years of age children are able to play simple ball games and to climb over obstacles. In snowy conditions the walks may be on skis. The kindergarten syllabus recommends times for exercises and games during walks for each age group and these are shown in Table 20. The syllabus also recommends that games be played in physical culture sessions and these times are also shown in Table 20.

It is recommended that children spend three to four hours outdoors each day where suitable weather conditions prevail (as explained earlier) because "prolonged exposure to fresh air in all the seasons of the year has a many-sided and positive influence on the child's health and physical development".
The games activities are intended to involve plenty of physical activity, should be reasonably simple to organise, having already been learned in physical culture sessions, and should heighten children's emotions. 53

An additional time when the children may play games is before morning gymnastics. This may be outdoors or indoors and allows the children to play with balls, hoops, skipping-ropes and other equipment while the others are arriving. It also provides further opportunity for daily physical exercise.

iii) Physical culture minutes

Physical culture minutes are conducted with the five to seven year old groups and occur daily as necessary. The upbringer decides when the children are beginning to lose concentration in whatever activity they are undertaking and organises some physical exercises. The exercises are taught previously in physical culture sessions and are performed in sets. Young children in particular find it difficult to sit still and concentrate for very long and so physical culture minutes permit them to use a little of their surplus energy before settling down to some more work.

Physical culture minutes last for between one to three minutes and should include three to four different exercises done sitting or standing in the room in which the children are already working. 54 Each exercise should be repeated five or six times and be conducted under the leadership of an upbringer or without guidance - the children already being able to go through the exercises independently. 55
III Active Rest

Active rest is the Soviet term for what we understand as recreation. That is, using physical activity to regenerate and revitalise the body instead of merely resting it passively. In kindergartens this takes several forms - physical culture fun-time, physical culture festivals and days of health.

i) Physical culture fun-time

Once or twice a month children of the three to four year old group and older are to have sessions of twenty minutes or more (see Table 20) of physical activities which should include games and relay races, all involving plenty of fun and activity. 56

ii) Physical culture festivals

The three oldest groups are to take part in physical culture festivals - the three to four year olds not less than twice a year for sixty minutes - and the two older groups two to three times a year for ninety minutes. 57

These are usually held on the country's public holidays: Revolution Day - 7 November; 1 May; Victory Day - 8 May; Lenin's Birthday - 22 April; Soviet Army Day - 22 February; International Women's Day - 8 March; the New Year - 1 January; and 1 September - the day children begin school. 58

The activities can be held indoors or outdoors and it is recommended that they be chosen to reflect either the nature of the holiday or the weather. For example, for 1 May - folk games with spring subjects are thought to be most suitable and for the New Year - games with winter subjects such as Grandfather Frost and Snowmaiden as well
as games in the snow. 59

It is considered preferable to hold the festivals outdoors:

"The advantage of holding the festivals in the fresh air is that the children can become acquainted with nature and can use natural elements as part of the games". 60

Winter activities include skiing, ice skating and tobogganing; in the summer, games can be held in the playground, in a forest, on a river bank or by a reservoir. 61

The activities generally include various team games, competitive events such as relay races and amusing games. 62

iii) Days of health

The three to four year olds and older groups are expected to take part in days of health which are to be held in their kindergarten every three months. 63 They include much the same types of activities as those in the physical culture festivals and are intended to further motivate the children to take part in and enjoy physical activity. The activities last for an hour or more according to the age group.

IV Independent Movement Activities

There are several occasions in the kindergarten day when the children are able to play independently. They have already learned many skills in their physical culture sessions and equipment such as balls, hoops, skittles, bats and skipping-ropes are made available for them. They are supervised by a member of the kindergarten staff but not
organised or taught in these sessions which are held in the morning at the start of the day and again in the afternoons under the heading *Igry* (play or games). The children either play alone or with others in small groups.

V Tasks at Home

These activities are determined by the upbringer and include morning gymnastics and other physical exercises which children are supposed to do at home under their parents' supervision. The tasks change regularly, and parents are invited to their child's kindergarten to receive guidance on the exercises.

The Teaching Staff

It is unusual to find a physical education specialist working in a kindergarten, and so we must assume that the subject is taught to preschool children by non-specialists whose training is described in Chapter VII. They come under the direct supervision of their director (head) and are usually women - only recently have men begun to work in kindergartens and there are still only a few male upbringers. Staff conducting physical education activities are usually the group's upbringer with possibly a music specialist to accompany the movements with piano music. Each kindergarten has a methods specialist who advises on curriculum matters, and each kindergarten has at least one full-time nurse and often a full-time or at least part-time doctor who advises on loadings of physical activities.

Staff are given quite direct instructions in the compulsory syllabus about the work they should be undertaking and they are further helped by the many manuals
produced by the Prosveshchenie Publishing House which publishes material for the USSR Ministry of Education. They are further assisted by the staff of their local Methodological Office and may attend talks and lectures. Every five years each must attend an improvement course which includes physical education teaching.

The physical culture sessions and morning gymnastics observed by the researcher and recorded in Appendix C were all conducted in an active, happy atmosphere by upbringers who had all changed into sports clothes and expended almost as much energy as the children, demonstrating and joining in with the activities. It must, however, be acknowledged that only sessions conducted by exemplary staff would probably be shown to a foreign visitor and that not all the country's upbringers may be as willing or as able to be so energetic or enthusiastic about physical activities as those observed.

Facilities for Physical Education Activities

Most kindergartens have outdoor play areas although in city centres these may be rather small. Where kindergartens are purpose-built, each age group has its own play area, accessible from its room and with playground equipment, designed and scaled-down to suit the size of the children. Many of the manuals for preschool physical education include details of playground and other equipment and some, for example Uchastok detskovo sada (The kindergarten sector) include plans of layouts and diagrams so that kindergartens may construct their own equipment. These are important since many kindergartens are financed by industrial or

* See Chapter VII for details of improvement courses.
farm enterprises and may be able to make much of the equipment themselves to save expense, and often apprentices make it as part of their training. The equipment out in the playgrounds includes carved figures, bridges, climbing frames, huts, slides and swings. As explained earlier, during walks the children often stop in a park or playground and may use equipment already set out there, such as slides, climbing frames or swings and may take with them balls, bats, hoops and ropes. Not all kindergartens have play areas for each age group, some have just a general area around the building with climbing frames and open play areas - much depends on the availability of space and finance. The best that the researcher observed was in the outskirts of Leningrad (number of the kindergarten not recorded) in 1981, when she was taken by V.I. Maskalienka of the City Preschool Methodological Office. It was of the type with separate play areas for each group and had an array of wooden figures, huts and other play items. 67 No doubt this was one of the best examples in Leningrad since the visit was organised by the Methodological Office.

Indoor facilities vary, but all the kindergartens observed had halls in which physical activities could take place. The above kindergarten in Leningrad and Kindergarten No.16 in Brest had fixed gymnastic equipment including ropes, wall bars and ladders. Additionally, in Brest the kindergarten's classrooms also had wall-bars, and apparatus such as swings and bars could be attached to doorways to provide additional equipment for exercise during the day. They also had boxes of balls and flags in their classrooms. 68
Instructions for the construction of indoor equipment also appears in kindergarten manuals and it seems likely that ready-made equipment is either not available, or is difficult and perhaps expensive to obtain.

Health Care

Every kindergarten has a full-time nurse and the services of a paediatrician, and health records are kept for each child for their entire stay at the kindergarten and are passed on to his/her school. The record cards detail injections received, height, weight, chest size, blood tests, blood pressure, urine, breathing sounds and condition of the feet. The doctor at Kindergarten No.5 in Leningrad explained that when they leave the kindergarten "practically all children go to school healthy". She detailed the procedure of health care for preschool children:

1. Parents first apply to their local education office for a place at a kindergarten for their child and from there they are sent to a kindergarten.

2. If at the kindergarten the headteacher says that there is a place, they are sent to see the nurse who explains that a medical test at the polyclinic, to which the kindergarten is attached, will be necessary.

3. The parents take their child to the polyclinic where checks are made of the eyes, urine, innoculations, blood, ears, nose and throat, feet and spine. A report is made by a paediatrician.

4. The mother attends a session at the kindergarten when she is told of the daily routine and how she should fit into it - "this is really a school for young mothers" explained the doctor.
5. The child is further checked by the kindergarten's own doctor and nurse to confirm the polyclinic's report.

6. The kindergarten's doctor assesses the child's stage of development for its age and asks the mother whether it has any allergies, for example, to types of foods or if there are any hereditary diseases or conditions in the family.

7. The mother talks about her child to the upbringers and assistants who will be taking care of him/her.

8. The child enters the kindergarten and for the first three years of life the skin is inspected and temperature is taken every morning by the nurse or upbringer.

9. Until the age of 18 months, each child is checked fully once a month and its growth and development are assessed.

10. At three years and six years of age each child is fully examined by specialists.

11. The kindergarten's doctor and nurse regularly inspect physical education sessions and facilities and monitor children's performances, especially those children who have been ill.

Each kindergarten has a medical room where children can be examined, as well as an isolation room with a couple of beds and cots where sick children can lie down until their parents can collect them. If a child has to remain at home because of illness, the mother is entitled to take paid leave from

* In the Soviet Union, doctors tend to specialise rather than be qualified as general practitioners (a complex comparative issue). They are not so well trained as 'generalists', but are better trained as specialists (minimum 7 years).
work to care for it.

The health care system was seen operating in several kindergartens with children receiving their regular health checks. The researcher was able to speak at length to two doctors and believes that children in Soviet kindergartens receive a more comprehensive level of health care than is given in British preschool institutions where much more is left to the initiative of parents. It should, however, be remembered that only some 50 per cent of all Soviet children of preschool age are in kindergartens (80-90 per cent in cities) owing to insufficient places being available, and that the other 50 per cent probably do not receive such intensive or comprehensive care.

Tempering

A part of children's health care involves tempering (zakalivanie). This includes procedures aimed at strengthening children's bodies, such as physical education activities in the fresh air, especially before a meal to stimulate the appetite. The three main types of tempering procedures include exposure to different air and water temperatures and sun-bathing. These are used in two ways - gradual and contrasting.

From an early age preschool children are exposed to different air temperatures. Their work-rooms should have a temperature of no more than 20 degrees Celsius, the hall used for physical education activities no more than 16 to 18 degrees Celsius, but outdoors it may be much colder. For indoor physical activities they have bare feet and wear just shorts and shirts, but in the coldest outdoor
conditions they are warmly dressed. As Zaporozhets and Markova put it:

"Exposure to the cold does much to promote development of the respiratory and cardiovascular system because the maintenance of a normal body temperature under these conditions is associated with intensive expenditures of energy requiring a higher quantity of oxygen. The heat regulating system is improved and the body is conditioned". 71

Gradual water tempering can take the form of sponging children's arms and legs with warm water of around 36 to 37 degrees Celsius, especially after sleep. The older children may place their feet and hands in bowls or sinks of water. After a few months the temperature is gradually reduced to 30 degrees Celsius. 72 Contrasting water tempering involves the child placing a part or parts of its body alternately into warm and cold water. The differences between the temperature of the water and the air "conditions the body's heat regulating apparatus and forms adaptive reactions". 73 This is said also to strengthen a child's will-power by teaching him/her to endure any discomfort caused by the cold which is of particular importance when learning to swim. 74 Water tempering is undertaken in gradual stages - first small parts of the body such as the hands and feet, leading to arms and legs and then the whole body. Similarly, the amount of water used is increased, first gentle sponging leading to immersion of parts in water and finally
showering and total immersion as for swimming.

Sunbathing is used in the sense that children are encouraged to exercise in the sun. So that they do not become too hot in particularly warm weather it is recommended that they play gentle ball games, gorodki or badminton. 75 Swimming is considered to be especially useful since it involves exposure to water, air and the sun. 76 Upbringers receive advice on tempering procedures from the doctors and nurses who work with them, and they may prescribe different temperatures for weaker children. Teaching manuals also offer advice to upbringers and some, for example, Zakalivaniye shkol'nikov (Tempering school-children) by Yu. N. Chusov offer specialist advice. 77

Sleep

The daily routine of each kindergarten includes periods of sleep for each age group (see Tables 9 and 10). Cots are provided for the youngest children who require more frequent and longer periods of sleep than the older groups for whom beds are provided. Each group has its own dormitory and each child its own cot or bed. Adequate periods of sleep are considered important for the well-being of preschool children:

"Care and nurture of the nervous system is the most important task of physical education. Sleep which restores the energy resources required for the normal work of brain cells is extremely important in achieving this task. 78
The daily timetable is organised to allow a sleep period after lunch. The youngest children have additional sleep periods in the morning. To promote healthy sleep a period of physical activity is held before the meal, usually a walk, and to further aid sleep the dormitory windows are opened. Fresh air is thought to be healthy for the children, especially those under 18 months of age, since this is their only form of outdoor activity in the colder months.

"Regular sleep outside in the fresh air is very important to the child's health. Blood that is saturated with oxygen promotes the regenerative processes in the nerve cells and throughout the organism". 79

Some individuals require more sleep than others and are allowed to sleep longer, whilst others get up quietly and begin another activity.

**Nutrition**

Because children spend as much as twelve hours a day, five days a week in preschool institutions they receive up to four meals a day there. Each kindergarten has three tasks concerned with the meals:

i) to ensure that every child receives nutritious food;

ii) to allow for individual dietary requirements;

iii) to teach the children correct eating habits and skills as well as hygiene, for example, washing their hands before meals. 80

Meals are cooked at the kindergarten and served to children
in their group rooms. Meal times were observed at two of the kindergartens visited and in each case were quiet and orderly despite the young ages of the children.

The timetable allows for an outdoor activity such as a walk before a meal wherever possible in order to stimulate the children's appetites.

Physical education for preschool children is organised in close conjunction with their health care and at this stage in the education system the links seem even stronger than in later years at school. The first seven years of a child's life are extremely important because then he/she learns many of life's basic skills, such as movement, language and social behaviour. The child's body develops rapidly and radically during this period, from a helpless newly-born infant to a young person capable of many gross and fine motor skills. The physical education syllabus for preschool children has been devised to ensure that children's growth and development take place at the proper pace and that motor skills are learned correctly.

The syllabus is based on a daily routine of movement which includes exercises, games and, where possible, swimming. These activities are undertaken under the guidance of the upbringers in the kindergarten or independently at home. The syllabus is progressive and for the youngest children work is done individually, progressing to small groups as the children become older and for the oldest with the whole group of around thirty children.

The children's progress and levels of all-round growth and development are checked at regular medical examinations
and twice-yearly physical tests which compare every child's performance with the norms and standards for each age group. Any child whose physical development is found to be inadequate may be referred to a specialist doctor and if his/her skill levels are lower than average that child may be given additional physical education activities.

The physical education syllabus is a combination of motor activities, the skills of which are taught in the physical culture sessions. These sessions provide the opportunity for physical exercise several times a day and also allow the children to learn to play together and to acquire basic social skills. Upbringers have to teach self-control and discipline as play involves children's varying emotions and often very energetic movements - a group of 30 or so six year olds racing about in a room or playground must be able to understand and obey instructions, move in an orderly fashion and calm down when the play activity ends.

The physical education activities observed in Soviet kindergartens were all extremely well controlled. Clearly, only the most competent upbringers were asked to demonstrate their activities and, without exception, their physical education sessions were enjoyable to watch. There was a great deal of activity, sensibly interspersed with quieter activities and in all cases the children seemed to be thoroughly enjoying themselves. Walking around each kindergarten and watching the different age groups working, playing, eating and sleeping, the researcher observed a very calm and disciplined atmosphere in every room.
As a result of the physical culture sessions, the children are able to utilise the motor skills they have learned in the form of games, sets of exercises and play activities at various times in the day. These fulfil the requirement that the children undergo regular daily exercise. The activities have been devised as a result of research and recognise the different needs and abilities of each age group. Because the children are so young, they respond most readily to play activities and much of the physical education programme is based on play and games. The exceptions are a small amount of drill (forming and reforming) at the start of each session and short sets of exercises with the older children. For younger groups the exercises take the form of imitative movements as described in the physical culture session for three to four year olds in Appendix C.

Physical culture festivals and days of health are events that children are said to look forward to and enjoy. As well as creating opportunities for exercise they also offer competitive situations and motivate the children to partake of regular physical activity whenever possible. Soviet preschool educators evidently envisage positive benefits from competitive situations with races, games and sports being undertaken in kindergartens. Similarly, the twice-yearly physical tests are indicators, not only of children's state of development, health and ability, but also of the success or failure of the physical education programme and the ability of the upbringer to teach it. Whether the children are ever made aware of each other's performances in comparison to their own has not been ascertained by this
researcher, but doubtless upbringers encourage them to perform to the best of their ability as it is a reflection of their teaching ability.

The large degree of involvement of the medical staff was both surprising and pleasing to note. Upbringers are not specialist physical educationists and could very easily damage young children's developing bodies with incorrect exercises and excessive physical loadings. To prevent this occurring, doctors and nurses were observed to monitor closely each child's health and also the work done in physical education - both in the preparation and in the execution of sessions.

Interviews with doctors indicated that they place great importance on the correct implementation of the physical education syllabus, and that they frequently advise upbringers about this aspect of their work and attend the sessions. Head teachers and methods teachers also indicated their enthusiasm for and knowledge of the physical education programme and these factors indicate that the subject is accorded a high status in preschool institutions. This contrasts sharply with the researcher's experience of kindergartens and primary schools in England and Wales where, in the worst cases, the subject is hardly ever taught and teachers frequently have had little or no guidance in how to conduct sessions. However, in the Soviet Union, whilst one must acknowledge that some upbringers may not enjoy teaching physical education, it is a compulsory subject and the USSR Ministry of Education has taken a great deal of trouble to justify and explain the syllabus to them as well as producing advisory manuals and examples of sessions, games and exercises.
Great emphasis is placed on outdoor exercise and in winter months this may be in temperatures which are well below freezing point and in which, in England and Wales, we would seldom consider to be fit to take young children out in. Nonetheless, Soviet youngsters are dressed warmly, are taken out and apparently benefit from this experience. Indeed, if it were not for these activities in the extreme cold some children would receive little fresh air, since in many northern areas for around half the year the air temperature is very low (even below freezing point).

Indoor facilities are being built for preschool physical education, but as the country does not yet have sufficient preschool institutions for all children whose parents wish them to attend it seems unlikely that expensive indoor physical education facilities now receive top priority for funds. An exception, however, may be swimming pools. Swimming is an increasingly popular item on the syllabus and begins with the three to four year old groups. Some kindergartens have their own shallow learner pool or share one with other kindergartens, others may have use of one which they rent from another institution, such as a sports school or sports society.

In so far as many of the manuals describing physical education activities also include diagrams and plans for the construction of equipment and facilities, it is clear that many kindergartens have to make their own. This does not, however, seem to present too many problems inasmuch as many kindergartens are attached to factories or farms and the materials and labour are, no doubt, quickly found as these items are for their children. This is a more advanced
and organised version of British schools' parent-teacher associations.

This study of the Soviet system of preschool physical education concludes that it makes a valuable contribution to children's growth and development and that, assuming that they are taught correctly, the physical skills which the children learn will form a sound foundation for the school physical education syllabus. In addition, they ensure that children can cope competently with their everyday movements in a balanced and co-ordinated manner with properly-developed muscles and a correct bearing.

It must be remembered that, overall, there are places in Soviet kindergartens only for 50 per cent of all children of preschool age, so every second child must enter school without the benefit of both preschool education and physical education. Unless their parents are aware of the benefits of regular physical activity, and are sufficiently knowledgeable to help their children exercise correctly, it is clear that most of the 50 per cent not in preschool education miss these benefits completely, with no alternative available to them. Most of these are in rural areas (80-90 per cent of preschool-age children in cities are in kindergartens) and this must place additional pressures on teachers when these children enter school for the first time, unaware of how to behave in physical culture lessons, drill, do exercises and play the games the other children know so well.

Until preschool education is freely available for all children, or until the age for entering school is
lowered to five, these problems will remain and the Soviet education system will fail to provide equal opportunities for all its youngest children.
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CHAPTER IV

PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN GENERAL SCHOOLS - CLASSES I-X (XI)

The term 'fizicheskoye vospitanie' (physical education) is used as an umbrella term to describe the entire school programme of physical activities, both in and out of lessons, and includes physical activities which are organised for children outside school.

The physical education programme officially consists of four separate component parts, each with its own title, function and activities:

i) uroki fizicheskoi kul'tury - twice-weekly 45-minute lessons of physical culture covering all aspects of the concept 'physical culture' explained earlier

ii) fizkul'turno-ozdorovitel'nye meropriyatiya - physical culture and health measures in the school day:
   a) gymnastics before lessons (setting up exercises)
   b) physical culture breaks in ordinary lessons
   c) games and physical exercise in breaks between lessons
   d) daily sessions of physical activity in prolonged-day schools
   e) monthly days of health and sport

iii) obyazateli'nye dlya shkoly-formy vneklassnoi sportivno-massovoi raboty - forms of extracurricular mass sports work which schools must provide:
   a) physical culture clubs
   b) general physical training groups
   c) GTO groups and sports clubs
   d) sporting competitions
   e) hiking trips
iv) po vyboru uchashchikhsya: vneshkol'naya sportivno-
massovaya rabota - mass out-of-school sports work of
pupils' own choice:
   a) at pupils' places of residence
   b) children's and young people's sports schools
   c) Young Pioneer palaces and houses
   d) children's outdoor recreation centres
   e) sports societies
   f) pupils' independent physical exercises in the family,
in their housing courtyards, in stadia and in parks
of culture and rest. ¹

The first three parts make up the system of physical
education in schools and, with the fourth, out-of-school
physical education, completes the whole programme of physical
education for schoolchildren. Each is described below.

Aims of the Physical Education Programme for Schoolchildren

The overall aim of the physical education programme
for schoolchildren was stated in a 1984 Ministry of Education
document to be:

"The all-round development of schoolchildren
and their preparation for life, work and
defence of the Motherland". ²

and this was confirmed in the April 1984 Document, 'Basic
directions of the reform of schools for general instruction
and vocational training', which was described in Chapter I.
The programme is said to be based on the concept of the
development of mass physical education measures which should:

   i) strengthen schoolchildren's health
   ii) develop their aptitude for physical activities
iii) enable them to form the skills to remain healthy through a knowledge of hygiene and an awareness of the body's functional possibilities

iv) help them acquire motor skills and the skills and ability to do independent physical exercise

v) educate them to lead active and constructive lives, loving work, having strong moral qualities - patriotism, internationalism, collectivism, courage, resolution, persistence and purpose in their lives. 3

The programme would seem to be planned to benefit the children's health and physical skills by encouraging them to engage in regular physical activity. It also appears to promote those qualities which are intended to be of benefit to the country in the sense that, as a matter of policy, children are to be educated to become 'active, loyal Soviet citizens, with a civic conscience, prepared to work for and defend their Motherland'. These are social demands made by the government which, according to G.B. Meikson, one of the people responsible for compiling the programme, desire "a moral youth, spiritually rich and physically sound and developed". 4 This, he explains, conforms with one of the theories of Marx and Lenin regarding the social determination of the content of education in that the school fulfils its social requirements by ensuring the all-round development of the individual.

A pragmatic and more immediate aim of the programme of physical education for schoolchildren was said by V.P. Bogoslovsky, Head of the Department of Physical Education of the USSR Ministry of Education, in an interview in April 1985 to be:
"That every child should do some physical education every day, besides lessons, either in sports schools, in general schools, or in sports clubs - even musicians should do physical education". 5

Here he makes particular reference to the extracurricular elements of the programme and indicates the importance that is placed by the government upon encouraging schoolchildren to undertake daily physical exercise; this was confirmed in the 1984 School Reform. The teacher of physical culture in School No. 185 in Leningrad, during an interview in 1983 with the researcher, summarised the aims of the programme succinctly by stating that he trains the bodies and minds of his pupils to acceptable levels of fitness and social behaviour. 6

Administration and Organisation of the Physical Education Programme

The organisation and content of the physical education programme are regulated by documents which give directives on methods and forms of instruction to school authorities and teachers. They are prepared jointly by the USSR Ministry of Education, the Committee on Physical Culture and Sport attached to the USSR Council of Ministers and the USSR Ministry of Health. The documents relate to all aspects of the physical education programme: physical culture lessons, physical culture and health measures, extracurricular physical activities and out-of-school activities. The aforementioned ministries also compile sets of regulations and instructional notes on the organisational processes of physical education and the development of activities involved in mass physical
It is the responsibility of the USSR Ministry of Education to ensure that the programmes of physical education are implemented as detailed below. The programmes are intended to be followed in principle although teachers can, and often do, make their own adjustments. Detailed plans of new programmes are published in booklet form by the USSR Ministry of Education and also appear in *Fizicheskaya kul'tura v shkole* a few months before they are to be implemented. Republican ministries of education may also publish their own slightly altered versions of the programme for lessons of physical culture, thus taking cognizance of any specific factors in their regions. Interpretations of the programmes compiled by teachers, lecturers and other specialists are also published. The USSR and Republican ministries of education produce detailed manuals for teachers for each age group and type of activity.

Whilst the USSR Ministry of Education is responsible for physical education in general, in each constituent Republic responsibility is with the Republican ministry of education and the department of physical education.

Physical education in general schools is provided by the education offices with the assistance of committees of physical culture and sport and also Komsomol and trade union organisations, public health offices and sporting and voluntary organisations (see Figures 3 and 4).

* These are published in the monthly journal for physical culture teachers *Fizicheskaya kul'tura v shkole* and in the book *Sbornik instruktivno-metodiceskikh materialov po fizicheskomy vospitaniya* (Collection of instructional-methodological material on physical education).
FIGURE 3

THE OVERALL ORGANISATION OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND SPORT

Source: V. V. Stolbov, Istoriya i organizatsiya fizicheskoi kultury i sporta, (Moscow, 1982), p. 252.
ORGANISATION OF SCHOOL PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN EACH REPUBLIC

Regional Education Authority and Director

Deputy for Physical Education

Methods Office for Physical Education
Affiliated to Teacher Improvement Courses

City Education Authority/District

Inspector of Physical Education

Methods Office

School - Whole Staff

RESPONSIBLE FOR

Head

1. Timetabling Physical Education
2. Physical Education Facilities
3. Medical Check-Ups
4. Improvement and Health Measures

Deputy Heads

1. Educational Process
2. Special Medical Groups
3. Physical Education in Prolonged Day Groups
4. Extracurricular Work in Physical Education
5. Health Improvement Work - Involving Other Teachers and Parents
6. Public Organisations and Co-ordination of Komsomol and Physical Education

Teachers of Physical Culture

1. Responsibility for Fulfilling Programme
2. Registering Children's Fitness
3. Organisation of Improvement and Health Measures in Daily Routine
4. Organisation of Extracurricular Work
5. Registration of All Who Can Swim

Form and Subject Teachers

1. Ensure Children Fulfil Daily Routine and Rules of Personal Hygiene
2. Ensure All Do Morning Exercises
3. Personally Participate in Health Improvement Including Monthly Days of Health and Sport
4. Ensure All Have Correct Posture
Each Republican ministry of education is responsible for:

i) the physical education of all pupils in their schools;
ii) developing school sport;
iii) the quality of the educational process of physical culture;
iv) the organisation and conducting of mass physical culture and health measures within the regime of the school day;
v) daily lessons in prolonged-day groups;
vi) monthly days of health and sport;
vii) extracurricular and out-of-school mass sports work;
viii) planning the educational programme in general schools and in sports schools;
ix) equipment and facilities for sport;
x) organising sports competitions;
xi) controlling medical examinations of the pupils;
xii) organising scientific and methodological research into physical education for children of school age.

Additionally, they organise and provide teacher training and courses to improve teachers' qualifications.

Similar responsibilities are placed upon the ministries of education of Autonomous Republics, territories, districts, cities and the regional departments of education for their areas.

Committees of physical culture and sport in each Union Republic, Autonomous Republic, territory, district, city and region assist with the running of school and extracurricular physical education activities and mass competitions. They co-ordinate the work of the various organisations to provide mass sports work in schools and where pupils live.
Additionally, they help provide equipment and work with school physical culture groups to develop mass physical culture among pupils.

According to the 1983 'Regulations on Physical Education for Pupils in General Schools', the responsibility for physical education within the school rests initially with the 'direktor' (headteacher). Figure 4 shows how the responsibilities for physical education are allocated to different members of staff in schools.

Lessons of physical culture are considered to form the core of the physical education programme. They provide the specialist with the opportunity to teach the material required for pupils to undertake the other parts of the physical education programme and to learn to work independently. The physical culture and health measures, extracurricular work in school and out-of-school mass sports work all aim to provide regular physical exercise which the programme's planners consider to be necessary for healthy growth and development to take place. These require children to have the basic knowledge of and competence in physical exercises and skills which they gain in their physical culture lessons.

The 1984 School Reforms and the Physical Education Programme

The Reforms refer to physical education for school-children in general terms:

i) young people should grow up physically well-developed, healthy, full of the joys of life and ready to work for and defend their Motherland;

ii) children should be encouraged to undertake daily
physical activity - during lessons, in out-of-school time and in sports sections;

iii) schools must provide the necessary organisation and facilities for daily physical activity;

iv) new sports halls and grounds must be provided with all the necessary equipment;

v) the resources of sports organisations, clubs, factories and institutions should be used more widely for school physical education;

vi) greater attention should be paid to teaching pupils the basics of personal hygiene, about their bodies and how to take care of themselves.

Several months after the School Reforms were issued, an article was published in Fizicheskaya kul'tura v shkole entitled 'School Reforms and Educational Problems of Physical Education'. It was written by three of the staff of the Research Institute for the Physiology of Children of the USSR Academy of Pedagogical Science and explains how school physical education programmes are intended to be affected by the Reforms. Most of the information is simply a confirmation of the aims of physical education of which teachers should already be aware and is summarised below.

The article explains that the technical and scientific revolution has altered the nature of work and people's lifestyles, drastically reducing their physical work loads and the need for much physical activity. For children, reduced physical activity (as much as 40-45 per cent below the level of required movement for growing youngsters in some Moscow children) can be harmful since it can impair their normal healthy growth. They cite the research of their
Institute which determined that the effect of hypokinesis (lack of exercise) on upper respiratory diseases in children increased their incidence 3-5 times as compared with their counterparts who had adequate physical exercise. They also blame it for obesity (with its related health problems), a lack of endurance and speed, impaired cardiovascular and lung functions and a lower capacity for mental work.

The need is stressed for daily physical activity, the habit of which should be taught through an organised daily routine at school which would also encourage regular exercise at home. They also make reference to their research studies which have determined the optimum loadings of exercises for children of different ages and these results are used in formulating the physical culture programme.

The planners of the physical education programme are obliged to fulfil the government's calls for educational reforms and interpret them according to their research findings. The government is calling for future citizens who are prepared for life and work in the defence of socialist ideas and of their country, and it is the task of the planners at the Institute to compile physical education programmes which will guide teachers to prepare such people. It is also essential that physical education should fit into and be part of the overall education system.

How the Programmes are Devised

The programmes for every school subject are sent to schools from the USSR Ministry of Education in Moscow and must first be approved by the Minister of Education.
School physical education programmes are devised by the staff of the Research Institute for the Physiology of Children of the USSR Academy of Pedagogical Sciences in Moscow.

One of the Institute's leading physiologists, L.E. Lyubomirsky, stated in an interview with the researcher that:

"The main task of the Institute is to study the physiological aspects of children. Based upon the work of Ushinsky, who used to work here, we believe that if a person wants to teach then he or she ought to know the whole child from head to foot". 11

He added that, inasmuch as the Institute specialises in physiology and physical education, it combines the two to help teachers understand all elements of children and as such is unique in the world. In addition to educators and physiologists, there are also medical specialists on the staff and a number of postgraduate researchers including Marina Koshevaya, 1976 Olympic gold medallist swimmer, who in 1985 was undertaking research on the problems of teaching swimming to groups of children and was attempting to assess the optimum ages for teaching different swimming skills. Other researchers were investigating different elements of the teaching of physical education.

G.B. Meikson of the Institute, emphasised to the researcher the importance of the study of physiology for those who compile physical education programmes and lessons of physical culture and also for teachers:
"The social process is based on biological processes. Physical load is one means of development of a child's body and it is important to know the influences of load on a child's organism. For this reason, teachers ought to know about physiology".  

The relationship of social and biological factors in physical culture has been confirmed by Professor G.I. Kukushkin:  

"As in any other kind of culture, physical culture is social in character. Since it influences the development of people's physical abilities, physical culture is not only social but is also biological in character. Physical culture is an important means of controlling the fundamental biological processes of the human body, heredity, and the perfecting of natural characteristics for social purposes".  

Since we understand that physical education is a component of the general concept of physical culture, we can see the importance of controlling the biological and physiological processes through the teaching process of physical education when dealing with young growing children.  

At the Institute, the staff carry out investigations into problems and methods of physical education in Soviet schools. They rely heavily upon the co-operation of teachers in schools who use experimental programmes and report the results to the Institute.  

Of their task of devising the programmes of school physical education, G.B. Meikson said: "The Institute
interprets the demands of the government in pedagogical terms". As stated earlier, the demands of the government are to produce a 'moral youth, spiritually rich and physically sound'; however, the researchers acknowledge that physical development occurs at different rates among individuals and in different ways according roughly to age. The programme must, therefore, reflect these variations and cater for the developing child at different stages.

G.B. Meikson explained during the researcher's visit to the Institute in April 1985, how the programme is compiled:

I The Institute's Staff must work out the component parts of 'physical education' to meet government aims

   i) The level of physical development which should be achieved by pupils who complete general schools. How strong, fast and agile should they be?

   ii) What skills and abilities should be taught in sports?

   iii) What theoretical components should be taught?

   iv) How healthy ought the pupils to be in physiological terms - cardio-vascular system, height, weight and chest measurement?

   v) Aesthetic considerations - moral and spiritual qualities such as honesty, collectivism and courage.

   vi) Motivation - why undertake physical education activities?

II The components must be translated into 'concrete' terms

Norms are worked out and represented in numerical terms. Here, much reliance is placed upon the GTO programme. To work out the norms the Institute's staff go into schools
and test pupils in order to determine average figures for a variety of activities and exercises. They also rely upon schoolteachers to send results to them. G.B. Meikson admitted that there is a problem if an average number for a small group is calculated in that a distortion may occur if a particularly bad or particularly good subject has been present, therefore giving an unbalanced bias to the 'average' figure. To eliminate this problem the Institute staff are said to go out to many schools, factories and army units, and test the young people. This enables them to determine practical levels, for example, for army recruits as well as for school graduates.

III Teachers and researchers confer with doctors to decide if the suggested levels are expedient

G.B. Meikson commented that in different areas of the country levels do differ for a variety of causes, as already explained, such as geography, climate or poorly qualified teachers - especially in rural areas. There are likely to be inconsistencies; for example, areas where there is a snow covering for six to nine months of the year should produce better skiers than those where there is snow for only a short time. He did, however, comment that in many rural schools teachers work well and facilities are often better than those in city schools. Additionally, there are fewer distractions for rural children and accordingly sport may be pursued more enthusiastically. He went on to emphasise this by referring to a long-term study he and other Institute researchers had made of the physical education teacher E.D. Novik and his work in a rural school in Kreulyan, Moldavia. The study was published in a book in
1979 and showed that pupils at the school were undertaking more than average extracurricular physical activity. Their scores for GTO standards were also above average and induced the researchers to include a greater amount of extracurricular physical education in school programmes in order to try to raise the level of physical development of all schoolchildren.

With the assistance of doctors and physiologists, optimum heights and weights are worked out for school-leavers and the standards of certain activities by the leaving stage.

IV How to bring children to this stage

Ideally, the school-leaver should be able to undertake physical education independently; this is one of the aims of the programme. The researchers have to decide at what stage in children's development each progression should be taught so that the programme may be devised around them. Leavers should:

i) be able to articulate the purpose of the programme
ii) know methods for achieving the programme's aims
iii) have the ability to plan their activities
iv) be able to organise their work
v) be able to do the exercises
vi) have the ability to control themselves
vii) be capable of monitoring and assessing their work
viii) be able to correct themselves

The teacher is to determine from the programme at what ages and stages these may be taught. This material, say the Institute, can only be taught in lessons and should continue until the teacher has determined that the pupils can do it. Such important work, they say, cannot be left for
children to learn on their own, nor can it be given as
homework. This justifies the inclusion of the twice-weekly
taught lessons of physical culture which form the core-
element of the physical education programme. Work loads are
suggested to teachers for physical exercises and are based
on research findings made by Institute staff.

V Compiling the Programme

The staff at the Institute take a large sheet of paper
and, working on the linear principle, plan the programme.
Hence, repetition is, they claim, avoided. Nonetheless,
work is repeated to remind pupils but is not actually taught
again. They believe that the programme should include
specific aims so that, although teachers' methods may differ,
they should all be trying to achieve the same end results.

VI Draft Programme

Copies of the draft programme are sent to 'experimental'
schools. These schools have been chosen because conditions
such as facilities, equipment and staffing ratios are
considered to be adequate in them for the successful
implementation of the programme. Thus it is believed that
objective results may be gained. Institute staff visit the
schools after they have been using the draft programme for
a year or so and they hold discussions with the teachers
and assess the results of tests of pupils' physical fitness.
These are GTO tests and the norms and standards set for
physical culture lessons. Other factors which are considered
are the percentages of pupils who engage in the various forms
of activity offered to them. Meetings are also held in
Moscow to which teachers are invited to comment upon the
draft programme. Once the experiments and discussions are completed, a revised programme is compiled and, when finished, sent to the USSR Ministry of Education for the Minister's approval and then to schools and teacher training institutions for use in the new school year.

VII Implementation

To accompany the programme, the Institute staff compile 'Recommendations for Teachers' books. These offer suggestions for material when, for example, the programme stipulates 'Games' but does not specify them exactly, the recommendations offer a variety of examples.

VIII Revisions and New Programmes

Whenever it is felt that the programme should be revised the process begins again. This may be because the government alters the requirements that it sets for the education system, or because the existing programme is seen to be failing in some way. Whatever the reason, the Soviet system theoretically permits an overhaul of physical education teaching in every school in the country, whenever the government decides that it should occur. A new programme was introduced in September 1983 and was used in schools until June 1985. It was a response to the government's September 1981 Resolution to promote an increased mass involvement in sport and physical exercise among the entire population but especially the young. The Institute staff claim that this was as a direct result of their work and

* See the discussion at the end of this chapter for details of ways different schools interpret the physical education programme.
recommendations. The 1983 programme was superseded in September 1985 to meet the demands of the Reforms in education first published in April 1984. Details of the new Programme (1985) appear in Appendix H and of the Educational Reforms in Chapter I. Each aspect of the physical education programme will be described in turn.

I Lessons of Physical Culture

Aims of Physical Culture Lessons for Each Age Group

Three age groups are singled out and have different aims:

i) junior 7-10 years

ii) senior 10-15 years

iii) final school year 16-17 years

The following were cited by the Institute staff as the aims of the work with each age group (the work planned for the school year 1985/86 begins for the first time at the age of six years instead of seven).

i) Juniors 7-10 years

The general aim is to learn elementary movements, all-round development of movement, ability, strength, speed and agility. Much attention is given to capturing and holding children's attention during lessons, developing habits of regular physical exercise, becoming accustomed to the classes and to improving the children's health. It is considered important to emphasise the importance of the physical culture lessons and for the children to feel satisfaction and understand the importance of the classes.

ii) Seniors 10-15 years

In this age group more complex movements are taught
along with the fundamentals of sports games - soccer, basketball, volleyball and handball. Only the basic elements are studied at this stage, the children specialise later. The improvement of movement skills and general physical development and upbringing continue and individual personality qualities are nurtured. A good regime should be organised with planned work.

iii) Final Year Pupils 16-17 years

Here teachers should be making use of material that the pupils have learned previously about physical culture and implement it. The work should continue to develop the body and its qualities of strength, speed and agility. Teenagers are to be encouraged to cultivate an interest in physical culture and a desire to attend physical culture lessons and physical education activities.

Programmes for Physical Culture Lessons

Classes I-III Ages 7-10 years

The work of Classes I-III is usually described separately from that of Classes IV-X, although the new programme for September 1985 does give information for Classes I-X (XI) together. In 1983, a new programme was introduced for Classes IV-X, but not for the primary classes. In 1984/85, work being done in schools in, for example, Byelorussia, came from a programme which was first implemented in September 1981 and it is this which is described below and shown in Appendix E.

Seventy lessons, each of 45 minutes duration, are given to Classes I and III for physical culture, and for Class II there are 64 of physical culture and 6 of civil defence (see Table 23).
### TABLE 23

The Allocation of Lessons for Activities in Physical Culture Lessons – Classes I – III

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<td>II</td>
<td>(Material for Civil Defence)</td>
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Teachers need not observe these fully and, indeed, it would be difficult at times to do so. For example, in regions where there is no snow it is suggested that additional lessons of gymnastics and games may be substituted for skiing, and in the IIIrd class this includes athletics. Where there are long periods of snow, skiing may be taught in place of gymnastics. In snowless areas, teachers of Class III are advised to consider teaching roller skating up to a maximum of 12 lessons where conditions permit. Where swimming is taught to Class III, lessons should not exceed 16 in number and should be taken from other activities.

Lessons are based on gymnastics, team games, skiing and athletics. Gymnastics includes exercises for the legs, arms and the body - with and without objects, walking, running, jumping, throwing, climbing and clearing obstacles, balancing, acrobatic exercises, hanging and dance exercises. Attention is paid to the correct formation of the children's carriage. Active games are considered to be important with the children learning how to contend with increasingly complex rules and movements. The games should, says the Programme, include elements of running, jumping, throwing and climbing.

Teachers are advised that they should not attempt to teach the children to crawl along or across obstacles unless they themselves are specialists and are able to work in a gym hall.

The Programme gives only new material and it is left to the teacher to determine when and how repetition should occur.
Lesson form

It is suggested that the lessons take the following form which also applies to Classes IV to X:

Example of the structure of a lesson

Introductory part (5-10 minutes)

Aims: to organise the pupils, explain the aims of the lesson and to prepare for the forthcoming physical load in the main part of the lesson.

Contents: elements of forming ranks, reforming, walking, walking with additional movements of the arms, legs and trunk, running, jumping, general development and training exercises, and games with elements of formation.

Main part (25-30 minutes)

Aims: to teach new material, repeated with the aim of improving the way the pupils perform familiar material, helping them to master motor skills and habits and to develop speed, dexterity, resolution and courage.

Contents: general development exercises with and without objects, walking, running, throwing, jumping, crawling and climbing, suspending, balance, acrobatic exercises, exercises for carriage and games with an abundance of movement.

In the main part of the lesson, teachers may include favourite material from the programme for that class.

Concluding part (3-5 minutes)

Aims: to provide a gradual transition from effort and excitement to a relatively calm state, to prepare the pupils for future lessons, summing the lesson up, giving homework, organising the change to new surroundings (organising the exit from the hall into the classroom or to go home).
Contents: lining up, walking with singing, rhythmical exercises, quiet games, breathing exercises, concluding words from the teacher about the lesson and the setting of homework.

The handbook for teachers 'Fizicheskoye vospitaniye v nachal'noi shkole' (Physical Education in Primary Schools) also suggests the following for lessons of physical culture:19

Introductory part

Teachers are advised that in the first lesson they should impress upon the children the need to get changed quickly for their physical culture lessons. They should change during the break before the lesson and be ready when the bell goes. The teacher should also tell them where to assemble for the start of the lesson, and for the first two or three minutes they should stand to attention in a line with their backs one to two metres from the wall so that "the children are in the best position to see the teacher and the teacher to see the children". 20 Class I pupils should line up under the direction of the teacher initially and then, as they gain in competence, one of the most able children is selected by the teacher to be dezhurny (monitor) and he or she organises the line. The teacher gives the commands "Ravnyais!" and "Smirno!" - Dress and Attention! After the latter, the teacher explains the contents of the lesson to the pupils. In Class III, the monitor steps out and reports to the teacher the name of the class and that they are ready for the lesson. There also follows elementary drill exercises. The reason for the formal start to the lesson is quite simply:

"The good organisation of the children - a necessary
condition for getting the most out of the lesson". 21

The introductory part of the lesson is primarily to prepare the children emotionally and physically for the main part of the lesson - it is not intended to be used for teaching. The exercises should, however, relate to the work to be done in the main teaching when new material is introduced. If the lesson is held outdoors in chilly weather then the 'razogrevaniye' (warming up) should be vigorous. In skiing lessons the introduction should be spent organising the children, taking their equipment from the ski store to the place where they will be learning to ski and then 'warming up' on skis.

**Main part**

Teachers are advised that there ought not to be an abrupt change between this and the introductory part of the lesson. Exercises should follow on and relate to those done earlier. General development exercises are included to have a "moderate physiological effect" 22 and to act as preparation for more specific types of exercise which follow.

There should always be team games, usually in the main part of the lesson. Classes I and II should have two games of which one should, without fail, be in this part and Class III should have one game which can be in any part of the lesson. Games serve to raise the children's spirits and also allow them to consolidate their skill learning in competitive situations. It is strongly recommended that teachers should include games with large amounts of physical activity and movement such as 'Pioneer Ball' - a junior form of volleyball in which players may catch and throw the
ball. It is said that the playing and learning of these games answers the specific aims of the lessons in offering the opportunity to master and use specific motor skills. 23

An exemplary order of activities in the main part of each lesson is demonstrated in the example:

"If throwing at a target and running games are to be included in the main part of the lesson, then throwing should be carried out first and then the games". 24

That is, concentration first, excitement and games later.

Teachers are also advised that new material should be taught in the lesson before work on improving already taught elements is to be done. In this way, pupils minds are not distracted by other work when their full concentration is needed for assimilating the new material. Skills should be built up gradually and, if necessary, taught over a period of several lessons if their complexity requires it. The textbook also suggests that games which raise the children's emotional levels and involve speed and strength should be placed at the end of the main part of the lesson, thus allowing learning to take place earlier when they are in a more calm and receptive frame of mind.

Concluding part

This section of each lesson should be for the teacher to calm the children and prepare them for their next activity - a lesson or going home. The teacher should consider both the emotional and physical aspects of the pupils and give activities such as walking, rhythmical and deep breathing exercises and quiet games. 25 The teacher uses
this part of the lesson to comment to the pupils upon their work and perhaps remind them of what they have just been taught. It is also the time when homework in the form of exercises to be practised at home or written work is set. The orderly movement of the pupils into the changing rooms is considered important both for discipline reasons and also to maintain their calm demeanour.

V.P. Bogoslovsky, Head of the Department of Physical Education at the USSR Ministry of Education, explained to the researcher in 1985 that in each lesson there should be three distinct types of work:

i) the teacher gives information to the class

ii) the children are taught techniques and perform them

iii) the children endeavour to achieve given norms and standards

He believes that in this way, the teaching process may most easily be applied successfully as the children can understand the work they are to do, and assessment takes place in each lesson as required. 26

Lesson material

In addition to new and repeated work and some general exercises, every lesson should include two or three types of running, jumping, throwing, climbing, balance, acrobatic and dance exercises, climbing over obstacles, hanging and one or two games. Teachers are told that variety in their lessons will lead to improvements in their younger pupils in particular. Attention should be paid to ensuring that exercises are performed correctly so that the children might more easily develop movement quality. Dexterity is taught through active games by passing quickly from one movement
to another, making good use of exercises with objects in balance and jumping with different additional tasks requiring co-ordinated movements.

Speed qualities of movement are to be developed in the pupils by means of quickly carrying out separate movements such as, for example, running at speed and also making use of large numbers of active games.

Strength is developed by using general developmental exercises without objects, with medicine balls, climbing, jumping, throwing at a distance, complex and simple balances and games with elements of resistance.

Alternate running and walking exercises, running slowly, movement on skis (when snow is available) and games in which there is continuous motor activity are all used to develop endurance.

Flexibility and suppleness are encouraged through the use of exercises both with and without objects. These involve large movements of the body, head, arms and legs.

Teachers are reminded that they should be aware of the needs of individual pupils as well as the whole class, and that to teach physical culture they should be conversant with young people's physical development, physical preparation, functional potential and the results of medical examination and of pedagogical observation.

The work should be enjoyable and preferably done to musical accompaniment to promote this enjoyment.

Lessons are conducted outdoors where possible; in calm weather with only a slight breeze they may be conducted in
temperatures as low as minus 12 degrees Celsius. Where lessons are conducted indoors the temperature should not be less than 14 degrees Celsius. Conditions should be hygienic for taking lessons.

All pupils are to be examined medically in compliance with the "Regulations On Medical Control In Physical Culture And Sport" approved by Order No.826 of the USSR Minister of Health on 9 November 1966. As a result of the examination, pupils are put into four groups: basic, preparatory 'а' and 'b' and special medical, according to their state of health and ability to undertake physical culture work. Children are then taught according to the physical loads which it has been assessed that they can cope with. Those who require to be in a special medical group either go for lessons with medical workers or are taught by teachers possessing specialist qualifications.

Pedagogical control is exercised by means of twice-yearly physical tests to indicate the children's state of preparation. The tests are:

i) running 30 metres from an upright start
ii) high jump from a standing start
iii) long jump from a standing start
iv) throwing a medicine ball of 1 kilogram to gain distance using both hands from behind the head in a sitting position
v) throwing a small ball at a distance
vi) throwing a small ball at a target
vii) Class III additionally begin their long jump and high jump with a run up.

* See below in this chapter for greater detail of special medical groups.
Testing takes place in September at the start of each educational year and again in May and enables teachers to assess, in the first instance, the work that must be done with the class and then, in May, the success, or otherwise, of the year's work.

Details of the programme for lessons of physical culture are included in Appendix E for 1981 to 1984/85, and in Appendix H for lessons from September 1985.

Classes IV–X

The current programme of physical education described below was devised by the Research Institute of Physiology for Children of the USSR Academy of Pedagogical Sciences and was introduced in a teachers' journal in July 1983 in preparation for the 1983/84 educational year. The programme was ratified by the USSR Ministry of Education and the Committee on Physical Culture and Sport attached to the USSR Council of Ministers.

The programme comprises the following elements and Table 24 shows the number of lessons which it is recommended should be spent on each for the different classes. The physical culture teacher may, in agreement with the head of the school, vary the allocation of time for different sections of the programme.* The following details have been extracted from the programme. 28

* Some examples of these variations are explained later in this chapter.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SECTION OF THE PROGRAMME</th>
<th>IV</th>
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<th>VI</th>
<th>VII</th>
<th>VIII</th>
<th>IX</th>
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1 In schools where there are facilities for teaching swimming, 26 lessons are to be given in the IVth Class and 14 lessons for Classes V-X in the year. This time should be taken evenly from the other sections of the programme.

2 In Classes IX-X, where there are facilities for teaching wrestling, 10 lessons are set aside, taken equally from other sections of the programme.

The elements of the lessons throughout the year should include:

1. **Theoretical Information**

   The information is grouped according to four basic themes and is given to all classes:
   
   a) the meaning and importance of physical culture and sport
   b) the rules of hygiene of physical exercises
   c) the fundamental methods of independent pursuits
   d) the safety rules in lessons.

   This information should be given to the pupils at the start of each lesson in the form of short reports.

2. **Gymnastics**

   This section contains various specific gymnastic exercises which enables the teacher, after teaching the individual exercises, to link them in groups and combinations. Boys, beginning with Class IV, are given prescribed exercises with loadings determined as suitable for their individual strengths and abilities. Beginning in Class IV, girls are taught exercises in modern rhythmic gymnastics, both with and without objects, including dancing steps, exercises with skipping-ropes and with balls. Boys and girls in Classes IV-VI undertake exercises with skipping-ropes and balls. Elements of contemporary dance are introduced into the programme for the first time and are performed to 'appropriate music', that is with a suitable beat and tune recognisable to the children - perhaps a 'popular' tune.

3. **Track and Field Athletics**

   Pupils are taught to walk, run, high and long jump
with run-ups and to throw. Attention is focused on developing speed, endurance, jumping and various other motor skills. In this programme longer distances have been introduced than in previous programmes and are intended to be effective means of promoting the development of endurance in the pupils.

4. **Sports**

For Classes IV-VI elements of volleyball, soccer, basketball and handball, are introduced. Each school should select at least two of these sports with the younger classes and one from Class VII on. The choices are dependent on the availability of suitable facilities, the experience of the teachers and the tradition of the school. Should the school choose soccer, then one of the other sports must also be continued for the girls.

5. **Skiing Training**

Basic methods of movement on skis are taught with all classes. Where the skiing area is some distance from the school, lessons may be doubled. During poor weather conditions, such as a thaw or insufficient snow covering, skiing should not be cancelled entirely but replaced by lessons outdoors of cross-country running, quick marches, games and general development exercises (guidelines on suitable conditions for lessons are determined by the local education and health ministries). In areas where there is no snow at all, cross-country running should be taught and this is to take place locally in parks and avenues. There should also be general development exercises, outdoor sports and games and exercises with weights. Skating is part of the curriculum where conditions permit.
6. **Swimming**

The basic strokes, especially crawl and breast stroke, are taught along with specific exercises and games in the water. Each school's administrators should seek facilities for swimming instruction and, where possible, enlist the assistance of interested sporting organisations and patrons.

7. **Combat Sports**

This takes the form of wrestling for youths in Classes IX-X with training exercises and games. In some areas various national (folk) forms of wrestling are taught.

**Drill**

It is considered essential to include elements of drill in every lesson for all classes and to ensure that pupils thoroughly master a variety of movements. They should all be able to respond clearly and correctly to orders to form, reform and to move in formation.

**Essential Elements in Each Lesson**

The programme's planners consider the presence of certain elements to be essential in each lesson to ensure the success of the educational process:

i) a plan of the sequence of teaching to allow the work to progress in a logical and organised manner;

ii) a high level of motivation in each child - there should be dynamic movements, emotion, creativity, activity and interest (the use of a variety of large and small apparatus should be used);

iii) pupils must be encouraged to strive to achieve
quality of movement and appropriate exercises should be included to facilitate this;

iv) consideration should be taken of pupils' individual differences with regard to their state of health, physical development and motor preparedness when planning the lessons and appropriate loadings given; *

v) the teacher should observe the children during the lessons to detect fatigue or ill-health and should also be aware of any medical conditions;

vi) the lessons should promote an aesthetic education by means of attractive movements, making use of musical accompaniment and drawing attention to sports clothes;

vii) pupils must be taught the practice and skills of independent physical exercise in every class in order to develop their motor skills and checks should be carried out, systematically during the year, to ensure that homework is being carried out;

viii) all pupils should be tested twice a year to determine the progress of the programme and enable the detection of any health or physical defects:

- a 30m sprint from a standing start
- a standing broad jump
- boys - pull-ups from a hanging position
- girls - push-ups from a prone position

- the results are analysed and pupils, parents and teaching staff are informed of any defects -

* See below in this chapter for details of grouping in physical culture lessons.
in some cases pupils are referred to special medical groups for their physical culture lessons (see below);

ix) medical and hygiene considerations should be observed in the lessons which should be conducted outdoors whenever possible;

x) the "Regulations for Safety in Physical Education and Sport in General Schools" approved by the USSR Ministry of Education must be adhered to;

xi) pupils must wear sports clothes and footwear for lessons - shorts and a sports shirt for temperatures of 14 degrees Celsius and above and tracksuits for lower temperatures;

xii) pupils who are excused from the lessons' activities nonetheless attend and, if required, assist with small tasks such as judging or preparing small sports equipment;

xiii) maximum periods of activity should be undertaken in all lessons.

Appendix F gives condensed details of the lessons for each class as recommended in the 'Programme' along with the graded standards which should be attained by each pupil.

Health Related Grouping for Physical Culture Lessons

Soviet teachers recognise that one of their most difficult tasks is to implement an individual approach in teaching physical culture to schoolchildren. The programmes are aimed at the average healthy child, yet deviations in health and physical abilities do occur. These range from health problems such as bronchitis, kidney complaints,
asthma and various cardio-vascular illnesses to conditions which cause children to be clumsy, excessively tall or obese.

The average, healthy child is given ordinary physical loadings in lessons and performs all the tasks, but for others this may be too much or too little exercise.

All pupils are physically examined by a doctor early in the school year, and each is allocated to one of four groups for physical culture lessons. Parents and teachers may refer pupils for additional checks during the year and children change groups where necessary. The groups are:

i) children who are well-developed and can do all the work

ii) preparatory group 'a' - children who have some limitations, for example, weakness after an illness - they do less work

iii) preparatory group 'b' - children who are not physically well-prepared, for example, excessively tall, obese or clumsy - they do more work and are given more exercise

iv) special medical group - the weakest children - they usually attend the lessons but do not participate except to assist with recording marks or arranging light equipment - they attend special classes for physical culture either in school or at a local polyclinic.

The first three of the above group all attend normal physical culture lessons and their work loads are determined by the teacher according to their needs. For easy identification, some teachers colour pupils' names in the class registers according to their groups, as in School No.20 in Brest where the Head of the Physical Education Department,
R.N. Rumentseva, marked the names of the 'preparatory' groups in green and the special medical group in red. An alternative method, used by the teachers at School No.112 in Moscow, was to indicate each child's medical group alongside his/her name - 'main', 'preparatory' or 'special medical group' in the registers which recorded 'Tests of Children's Physical Preparation'.

In School No.20 in Brest, children from the preparatory groups were encouraged to attend twice-weekly extracurricular sessions when they took part in mainly games activities. R.N. Rumentseva explained that, in her school, health problems occurred most frequently among pupils of Classes VI and VII in early adolescence at the onset of puberty when youngsters may become rather awkward and clumsy in their movements as their body shapes begin to develop to those of adults. At that school the nurse was said to attend lessons regularly and parents were invited to observe monthly if they wished. R.N. Rumentseva said that she paid greater attention to the weaker pupils than the others because they usually needed more encouragement and to be watched to ensure that they performed the work correctly, especially in gymnastics where the exercises were beneficial to their health and enabled them to gain strength and to better manage their bodies.

From the researcher's observations of physical culture lessons in a number of Soviet schools, the preparatory groups could be seen working along with the other children.

* One of the aims of mass extracurricular physical education work is 'health improvement', helping pupils who, for various reasons, fall behind and have difficulty fulfilling the norms of physical tests for lessons.
but usually doing less work. They were most often noticed by virtue of their physical characteristics - obese or very tall children. On the whole, obesity does not seem to be a regular occurrence among Soviet children. In a lesson for Class III at School No. 112 in Moscow, an overweight boy was slower than his classmates and less active, but the teacher ignored him and neither chastised nor encouraged him. However, in a later lesson, the same teacher allowed two boys in Class VI to work apart from the rest of the class. She gave them arm strengthening exercises on wall-bars as they both had leg injuries, but for much of the lesson they chatted and did only a little work. In other schools some children were observed doing less work than the others but were seldom singled out for individual attention or different work. In this way they were not made to feel embarrassed or different from the others (they may have been lazy and not noticed by the teacher). It seemed, from discussions with teachers, that encouraging the 'preparatory' groups to attend extracurricular physical activities was considered the most useful way to help these pupils.

Special Medical Groups

The fourth category of health groups in each class is the 'spetsialny meditsinskie gruppy' (special medical groups). They are pupils of all ages who, in the opinion of the school doctor, have a medical condition which precludes their participation in the regular physical culture lessons. Often either a teacher (usually the physical culture teacher) or a child's parents refer a pupil to the school doctor, or a defect may be detected during a regular medical examination. Once a problem has been determined, the doctor measures the
child's physical capabilities through a series of selected exercises including mobility and endurance tests. On the basis of the results the pupil may be assigned to a special medical group for curative physical exercise which is devised for each individual. Boys and girls are usually taught together owing to the small numbers of the groups for all age groups. 33

The state first made provision in 1970 for special medical groups to be taught apart from other children for their physical culture lessons. The arrangements were made jointly by the USSR Ministries of Health, Education and Finance. Initially, groups were to be of no fewer than 15 pupils with them joining together for lessons from Classes I-II, III-IV, V-VI, VII-VIII and IX-X. There had to be at least 15 members in a group for the teacher to be eligible for remuneration. In 1981, the USSR Ministry of Education advised that each group should consist of a maximum of 15 pupils and that groups with fewer than 10 should join another, but be given different material. There were still problems about payments to teachers, but this was resolved in 1982 when the minimum number was reduced to 10 in schools with only small groups. 34

Since 1970, schools have been encouraged to make provision for special medical groups. Where possible this has meant classes before or after normal lessons twice a week for 45 minutes each session or three times a week for 30 minutes. In some schools when a specialist teacher of physical culture is free, he/she may be assigned to take a group at the same time as their classmates are having their physical culture lesson, but it seems from schools visited that this happens only rarely and that special medical groups
are held at the expense of other extracurricular classes as they must be conducted by a specialist physical culture teacher.

Some schools do not make provision for lessons for special medical groups but instead send them for curative sessions at a local polyclinic. Others send only children with problems such as postural defects to a polyclinic and teach the others at school in special groups.

The USSR Ministry of Education stated in 1981 that the aims of special medical groups are to:

i) improve pupils' health
ii) encourage correct physical development
iii) strengthen the body
iv) increase resistance to disease
v) heighten physical and mental capacity for work
vi) help pupils to master basic motor skills from the school physical culture programme. 35

The children in these groups are said to learn:

"Boldness, persistence, discipline, cultured behaviour, collectivism, a sense of friendship and comradeship and a socialist attitude towards public property". 36

These are similar principles and aims to those of ordinary physical culture lessons; however, their activities are tailored more to fit each individual and much of the time is spent on remedial gymnastics. 37 Additionally, there are gymnastic exercises, team games, various sports, athletics and ski training. 38
The USSR Ministry of Education advises teachers that, in addition to teaching motor skills, they should:

"Inform pupils about a correct daily regime, about tempering measures, correct breathing, innoculations and personal hygiene such as looking after their bodies, washing their hands after work and keeping their sports clothes clean and tidy". 39

Only specialist physical culture teachers are allowed to teach special medical groups 40 and their professional training includes such work. * It is expected that the teacher will prepare lesson material and give appropriate work loads to each child according to his or her condition. One of the deputy head teachers is given responsibility for arranging the lessons either at a polyclinic or in school.

Some schools are said to have a specially equipped room for lessons with special medical groups, others make use of existing sports facilities but lessons are to be taken outdoors whenever possible. 41 Of the six schools in the USSR visited by the researcher, three sent pupils to a local polyclinic for curative physical exercise treatment and the others provided their own lessons.

In addition to activities in lesson time, the teacher gives each child some exercises to be performed at home. Parents are given regular progress reports and are invited to the school for advice about their children's home tasks and to be advised on methods of massaging their children.

* See Chapter VII on Teacher Training.
The teacher receives advice mainly from the school doctor, but may also consult staff at local polyclinics or at a sports-medical clinic. Sets of exercises are published from time to time in the monthly journal for teachers *Fizicheskaya kul'tura v shkole*. About 20 researchers work on this aspect of the school programme in a laboratory in Moscow attached to the USSR Ministry of Education, and they also liaise with faculties of physical education in teacher training institutions. In the USSR, all physical education students are taught to take these groups if they are to work in schools.

The main aim of special medical group work is clearly to enable the child to regain fitness and, if possible, be able to rejoin his/her classmates in their physical culture lessons. Once this occurs, the child is put into a 'preparatory' group and watched particularly carefully to prevent overstraining or an inability to contend with the increasing work loads.

A ruling in 1983 by the USSR Ministry of Education gave a different grading system for the end of term mark for physical culture for pupils in special medical groups. Before this, they were graded according to the same points system as healthy children on a scale 1 to 5, but now they are given either 'zachot' (passed) or 'nezachot' (failed) and this is recorded in the class register as their physical culture mark. The USSR Ministry of Education considered this necessary in order not to disillusion these children who are unable to match their classmates at physical exercises or be marked on the same basis.

A physical culture teacher in School No.51 in Nikolaev
reported in 1983 that there had been special medical groups in her school for eight years. She wrote: "It seems that there are already positive results - five pupils left special medical groups last year". She does not give figures for the numbers of children in the groups, nor are we told the extent of their illnesses or disabilities. In School No.2 in Brest, the Head of the Physical Education Department, V.T. Fedorovna, said in 1985, that approximately 5 per cent of the pupils in her school attended special medical groups - this placed about 50 of the 1039 pupils in these groups. When teachers of other schools were questioned regarding numbers in special medical groups, they too gave similar figures which amounted to one or two pupils per class on average.

In the researcher's experience, few such lessons exist in schools in England and Wales, despite the 1981 Education Act which led to the integration into ordinary day schools of physically disabled children who would previously have attended special day schools. It seems now that provision for their physical education is, in many cases, neglected. Indeed, few British physical education teachers are trained in 'adaptive' physical education, and few schools medically examine pupils as regularly or as thoroughly as their Soviet counterparts, and all the schools visited in the USSR employed a full-time doctor and nurse, some in Britain do not have even a nurse in full-time employment.

It is not possible in this study to investigate whether Soviet children are more or less healthy than British children. Certainly, in many areas of the USSR, the climate

* For disabled children - activities designed to suit the individual.
is damp and cold and conditions seem conducive to such illnesses as bronchitis and pneumonia. Further, whilst efforts are made to ensure that children are given nutritious food, it appears that fresh fruit and vegetables are in short supply in many areas in winter months and vitamin deficiencies can lead to a variety of health defects. Nonetheless, Soviet Health Ministry policy is clearly to detect and, if possible, rectify children's health problems and at least try to prevent a worsening of a condition. After World War II, British schoolchildren were found to be suffering from increased incidences of postural defects and illnesses owing to food rationing and consequent deficiencies in diet. Schools provided special classes of physical education for children with health problems, 'open-air' schools were set up and peripatetic remedial gymnastics teachers gave lessons in schools to special medical groups. Once rationing ceased and children gradually regained and improved their health these special provisions ceased and the school health service was cut back. Only children in hospital or in special schools for the disabled receive remedial physical exercise, and physical education teachers do not receive training in their professional courses to help them teach pupils with health problems unless they select an optional course for this - Soviet teachers of physical culture all receive this training.

By detecting children's health problems early and treating them, the Soviet authorities seem to believe that they are making good economic sense. The more healthy their children are once they reach adulthood and become part of the workforce, the more productive they will be for the economy and less burden on the state. This view was
confirmed by a doctor at a boarding school for pupils suffering from scoliosis of the spine in Brest as a reason for the expenditure in running such a school totally at the expense of the state and in the provision of such elaborate health care for children generally. 46

Example of the Material Taught in Special Medical Group Lessons in Schools

The following material has been extracted from advice given in Fizicheskaya kul'tura v shkole in July 1983 (pp38-40) to teachers of physical culture. It has been prepared for Classes IX-X and is split into four quarters for each of two years. The broad aim of the classes is to "strengthen the health of special medical group pupils who have been taught earlier in groups for Classes VII-VIII and also pupils included in these groups for the first time", 47 and it is suggested that for the first quarter the following should be taught.

First Quarter - Lessons 1-16

The teacher should acquaint him/herself with the pupils' individual problems and pay particular attention to those joining for the first time. Pupils should be informed of the work ahead and reminded of the role of physical culture in the restoration of their health and of the significance of daily exercise in building up their strength and making them capable of working.

Practical work includes athletics exercises, relay running, long jump with a run up of 3-7 steps, grenade throwing at a target and at a distance and perfecting the ability to differentiate degrees of muscle effort and accuracy of movement. They should also work to improve
previously learned basketball techniques through games with simplified rules.

Sets of exercises are taught and performed in each lesson to promote general development of the body. An example to accompany the above work is:

Exercises without objects:

i) Starting position - standing. 1-2- step forwards on to the left foot, arms up and lean the head back; 3-4- return to the starting position; 5-8- repeat on the right foot. Breathing freely. 6-8 times.

ii) Take a wide stance with feet apart, hands behind the head. 1-2- bend down to the left foot with the hands touching the toes; 3-4- return to starting position; 5-8- repeat to the next foot. Breathing freely. 8-10 times.

iii) Take a wide stance, hands on the waist. 1-3- lean to the left with the head turned to the left and the right arm up; 4- return to start; 5-8- repeat to the right side. Breathe freely. 8-10 times.

iv) From standing. 1- step to the right, arms out to the sides, palms upwards; 2- lean on to the left leg and at the same time raise the arms upwards and press the arms tightly to the head; 3-4- bend forwards twice, touching the floor with straight arms (legs not bending); 5- straighten up, arms upwards; 6- arms out to the sides palms upwards; 7- head drops on to the chest, forearms hang freely downwards; 8- "throw" the arms down. 8-12 times.

vi) Breathing exercises. 3-5 times.

vii) From standing. 1- hands out to the sides, turn the trunk to the left and bend into a half squat; 2- return to standing; 3-4- repeat to the right. 8-12 times.

viii) Standing in a supported position. 1- left leg to the side, not bending the right much, arms supporting; 2- return to standing. 3-4- repeat to the other side. 8-12 times.

ix) Legs apart, arms forward. 1- bring the left leg to the right, touching the palm of the right hand; 2- return to start; 3-4- repeat with the right leg. 8-12 times.

x) Feet together, hands used for support. 1-2- bend with the head back and arms straight; 3-4- return to start; 3-4- repeat. 6-10 times.

xi) From standing. 1-2- step forwards on to the left foot, arms upwards, bend and put the head back; 3-4- return to standing; 5-8- repeat on the right side. 6-10 times.

xii) Exercises in relaxing and breathing. 3-4 times. Beginning with the third lesson, youths do these exercises holding dumb-bells weighing one kilogramme.

Whilst the value of special medical groups is acknowledged by the Soviet authorities, not all Republics are fully implementing the system. The USSR Deputy Minister of Education F.E. Shtykal in January 1984 gave the following figures for the numbers of children with weak health who attend special medical groups:
Ukraine - 92%
Kirgizia - 70.3%
Lithuania - 80.3%
Kazakhstan - 33%
Latvia - 33%
Tadzhikistan - 33%
Turkmenia - 10%

and he concludes:

"These facts testify that the work being done to meet the aim of organising lessons for special medical groups is inadequate and definitely needs to be corrected". 50

Implementation of Physical Culture Lessons

Time Allocation

Most of the schools visited by the researcher allocate two periods of 45 minutes each to every class. This is the minimum time which is stipulated in the regulations governing school physical education programmes.

There are, nonetheless, exceptions. School No.112 in Moscow is an 'experimental' school and has been asked by the Research Institute for the Physiology of Children of the USSR Academy of Sciences in Moscow to give three lessons each week - two physical culture lessons and one of swimming for every class; this school has its own swimming pool. 51 Some of the Baltic Republics have assigned three periods each week to physical culture lessons and in others, four per week: two paid for by the Ministry of Education, and two by sports societies. 52
During her visit to the Faculty of Physical Education at the Herzen Pedagogical Institute in Leningrad in 1985 the researcher learned from B.A. Petrov, Head of the Department of Theory and Methods, that a school in Estonia experimented by giving six lessons each week in physical culture, that is one each day. However, they found that the pupils' interest waned and they concluded that it is more beneficial to do extracurricular work. 53

B.A. Petrov estimated that for all schools to offer three lessons a week to each class the country would require a further 10,000 specialist physical culture teachers. 54 The USSR Ministry of Education has instead retained the twice-weekly lessons pattern but has chosen to promote the concept of extracurricular work as this does not require specialist teachers.

The Soviet school system is changed from time to time and the number of weekly lessons has been altered. Since 1966, the minimum number of physical culture lessons has been two, but before then in many rural schools there was only one per week. This was due mainly to the shortage of specialist teachers in rural areas.

Girls and Boys - Mixed and Separate Classes

It is the policy of most Soviet schools to teach boys and girls together for physical culture lessons for Classes I-VIII and then to separate them for Classes IX and X. The main reason for this would seem to be that classes are not streamed for any lessons and all pupils follow a common syllabus. Each class attends all its lessons together, and for this to be otherwise for physical culture would require
two teachers for each lesson. Classes I-VIII are taught either by a male or a female teacher but pupils in Classes IX-X usually receive instruction from a teacher of their own sex. This is particularly important for activities for boys only such as soccer and wrestling and for girls only in modern gymnastics which are compulsory elements of the programme.

Exceptions occur in a number of schools, for example, in School No.112 in Moscow, the 'experimental' school visited in 1985 by the researcher, pupils in physical culture lessons are segregated in Classes VII-X. This is at the request of the USSR Ministry of Education's Department of Physical Education and is achieved in the school, which specialises in English, by teaching English to the boys whilst the girls are having their physical culture lessons and vice versa. They also specialise in one sport from Class VI and this usually differs for girls and boys - another experiment which they are trying out for the USSR Ministry of Education. One of the physical culture teachers in that school expressed the opinion to the researcher that she would like to teach single sex classes before Class VII because of the various differences between boys and girls, such as the boys' greater strength and speed. That the USSR Ministry of Education is asking the school to segregate classes two years earlier than normal would seem to indicate that they are considering the possibility of making it common practice in all schools although they might require more teachers to implement it. G.B. Meikson of the Research Institute for Physiology of Children expressed his personal opinion that "it is good for children to mix before Class IX because this forms a part of each pupil's sex education" and, he added,
"boys are taught to behave 'correctly' towards the girls". 56 The Institute's Head, Dr. D. V. Kolesov is one of the country's leading specialists in sex education and he published a book in 1985 'Sex Education For Young People'. He was also of the opinion that mixed lessons of physical culture are an excellent opportunity for adolescents to learn about their own bodies and those of the opposite sex. 57

The teachers themselves would seem, from interviews conducted by the researcher, to favour segregation before Class IX. M.I. Barinova, a physical culture teacher at Brest School No.9, said:

"It would be better to have separate classes from Class VII but there are not enough teachers for this. I feel that they should be separate at least from Class VIII so that we can teach the activities which best suit either the girls or the boys and not try to set an average standard which suits only a few children. Additionally, there are sports and activities specifically for boys or girls and it would be better for a man to teach sports which are traditionally for boys and for a woman to teach girls' activities". 58

In School No.20 in Brest, R.N. Rumentseva also preferred her classes to be separate before Class IX because she believed that her pupils are embarrassed about their developing bodies which have usually reached maturity by Class IX and the teenagers have 'settled down'. She also expressed another reason for separating the classes:

"If there are two teachers for each lesson then
the children receive more attention. We would have to share our facilities, for example we have only one gymnasium and so we would divide it in two as we do already for the senior pupils". 59

As stated above, in School No.112 in Moscow, children from Class VI onwards specialised in one sport in some of their lessons, unlike most other pupils in the country who did not specialise until Class IX when the girls and boys were taught separately. School No.112 was in the fortunate position of having 12 sports coaches working in the school and it could call upon them to assist in lessons for sports teaching, whereas most other schools have only a small number of specialist teachers and no coaches available for lessons.

The programme does not include specifically male or female oriented activities until Class VII when wrestling and soccer are included for the boys. Unless a male teacher is available to assist, women teachers are expected to be able to teach at least some elements of these sports. Before Class VII certain exercises are mentioned differently for girls and boys with higher standards being set for boys. In this way, the authorities apparently feel that boys and girls may easily be taught together and by one teacher.

Primary Classes I-III

In 1981, the USSR Deputy Minister of Education, F.E. Shtykalo said:

"Unfortunately, most schools still do not pay proper attention to physical education in
junior forms. Often, for various reasons and especially bad weather, lessons in Classes I-III do not take place or are replaced by other subjects. This is regarded as natural and even justified. Thus, instead of programming a seven year old to love physical exercise all his life, we infect him with a passive attitude to lessons and to sport generally. Physical education is relegated to dark corners and corridors and is often in the form of monotonous drill. All attention is given to the senior forms and it should be the other way about".

His reasons for making this statement were possibly that in 1981 very few schools timetabled specialists to teach physical culture lessons to their primary classes. The country had insufficient specialists for all its senior classes at that time, and most primary classes were taught their physical culture lessons by either their class teacher or another teacher who was interested in the subject. It is possible that many class teachers will take every opportunity to avoid teaching physical culture lessons, particularly as they become older. Another problem has been that teachers of primary classes, particularly in rural areas, may have received little training, if any, in teaching physical culture. Many were class teachers trained in 'tekhnikums' or in specialised secondary schools where their courses were shorter and included less physical education than in colleges of education. For example, all trainee primary school teachers at the Brest Pedagogical Institute undertake a four year Course. In the first two years, they
all take part in two physical education sessions each week plus some GTO work, and in the third and fourth years they receive 25 academic hours (45 minutes) of instruction each year in teaching physical education. * I.P. Volchok, a lecturer in physical education at the Brest Pedagogical Institute Primary Teachers' Department, told the researcher that, in her opinion, primary classes should be taught by their class teacher because:

".... one should bear in mind that junior children become used to one teacher and a physical education specialist might not be familiar with the class. A well-trained class teacher can teach pupils to develop their bodies, muscles, agility and strength". 61

She acknowledged that there would be a shortage of specialist teachers of physical culture in the country as a whole for the next 10-15 years, especially in rural areas, and said that for that period many class teachers would continue to teach physical culture, and those trained in departments like hers would be well qualified to do so. The USSR Ministry of Education, however, has adopted the policy that all primary classes should be taught physical culture by specialists as soon as possible. They have also decided that only specialists should teach drawing and music. G.B. Meikson informed the researcher that the government has been allocating money for training extra teachers of physical culture since the 1981 Resolution "On the Further Improvement of Physical Culture and Sport for All", and that in 1985 all

* See Chapter VII on Teacher Training.
primary classes in Moscow are already taught by specialist physical culture teachers. 62 V. P. Bogoslovsky told the researcher that it is not yet clear when all primary classes will be taught by specialists, he thought he might be able to know in two years time. 63

The researcher has observed lessons in a number of Soviet schools in Brest, Leningrad and Moscow including lessons with primary classes. * In every case the lesson was conducted by a specialist teacher, but it must be acknowledged that a foreign visitor is unlikely to be shown lessons which are not considered to be excellent examples of their type. Nonetheless, in School No. 9 in Brest all the primary classes except one were taught by a specialist - the exception was a Class I whose class teacher was particularly interested in physical culture and taught her own class. A young male graduate of the city's Pedagogical Institute taught the other primary classes. In School No. 20 in Brest the primary classes were being taught by a specialist in the academic year 1984/85 for the first time. In School No. 2 in Brest a male specialist taught Classes I and II and a woman specialist Class III - 1984/85 was also their first year. Interviews with teachers have shown that schools have been allocated extra staff to undertake the additional loads. The new graduates have usually received a more thorough training in teaching young children than their older colleagues who would not have expected to have to teach juniors. It is also possible that established teachers feel ill-at-ease with junior classes and believe that greater prestige

* See examples of these lessons in Appendix G.
and money may be accrued from teaching older classes. The benefit to children in having young teachers is that they are more likely to be lively and tolerant of youngsters than their older colleagues in active situations.

In 1970, it was reported that of the country's 85,000 primary schools, 80,000 were understaffed and under-equipped for physical education activities. In 1985, the authorities were clearly making efforts to provide specialist teachers for all primary classes but it will be many years before this is achieved and, with regard to the facilities, V.P. Bogoslovsky told the researcher that:

"Problems of poor facilities for physical education are greatest for primary classes; however, we are doing all we can to remedy this and each year 2000 new school gymnasia are being built, many of which will be used by the juniors".

He also added that the new physical education programme for primary classes, introduced into schools in September 1985, described in Appendix H, had been designed to be taught by specialists and required a certain minimum level of facilities and equipment - all factors which he admitted were absent in many schools at that time. Nonetheless, conditions are adequate in some schools, notably in the cities, and improvements are taking place with large sums of money being spent to train extra teachers and build new facilities. That a new and challenging programme has been implemented in 1985 indicates a sense of optimism and confidence in the future and a determination to improve the quality of the physical education of the primary classes. It also indicates an increase in the status of physical culture lessons for
junior children.

Classes IV-X

A new programme of physical education for Classes IV-X was introduced in September 1983 by the USSR Ministry of Education. Each Republic is entitled to make minor alterations to suit its own national needs and conditions, however, it is obligatory that every school implements the programme. The twice-weekly physical culture lessons are the backbone of the physical education programme and appear to be accepted by schools as a compulsory subject to be included on the timetable. The programme still calls for two 45-minute lessons each week for each class but the role of the lessons has altered. The emphasis has now been moved from the lesson as the main form of physical activity for schoolchildren to a mainly teaching role. Children are now to derive most of their exercise from the extracurricular activities which make up the physical education programme. Schools are accustomed to the twice-weekly lessons and there is no evidence to suggest that they do not take place although their effectiveness was questioned by the USSR Minister of Education, F.E. Shtykalo, in 1983:

"Our country has created real opportunities for raising the level of school pupils' mass involvement in physical culture even further. Nonetheless, physical culture lessons at many schools are still relatively ineffective because they are poorly organised and the wrong methods used. Some teachers do not know how to achieve regularity of teaching patterns in the lesson,
while others make it an end in itself and confine their activity to issuing commands and counting the number of exercises performed regardless of the quality of the exercises, which ultimately detracts from the educational significance of the lesson. Little attention is paid to teaching the pupils good posture and how to walk properly and gracefully. The individual approach to children is sometimes ignored. The occasional failure to take the pupils' age and sex into account leads to their functional underloading or overloading, to the generally unsatisfactory realisation of health-improvement objectives and to the pupils' loss of interest in physical culture".  

This statement was made just before the 1983 programme was implemented and at a time when physical culture lessons were intended to fulfil complex tasks. Nonetheless, the criticisms remain valid in some schools and blame may be placed upon teachers and administrators alike. The reasons for deficiencies and how they are being rectified is discussed below. F.E. Shtykalo continued his comments:

"The productivity of physical culture lessons is in large measure determined by the curriculum, which at the present time does not make it possible to instil in pupils the conscious desire to do physical exercises on their own. This is one of a number of aspects of the curriculum that needs to be revised".  

He went on to say that curriculum reforms would be tested in the educational year 1982/83 by the Research
Institute of Physiology of Children of the USSR Academy of Pedagogical Sciences and that these were meant to "strengthen the health-improvement and educational orientation of various curricula". The result was the introduction in September 1983 of a new 'Programme of Physical Culture for Pupils of Classes IV-X in Secondary Schools'. For the first time, physical culture lessons were mainly to teach pupils the skills and habits of independent physical exercise. They were to be used to instruct pupils so that they might be able to undertake physical activities outside the lessons and to inculcate them with the habit of making daily physical exercise a way of life throughout their lives. Researchers at the Scientific Research Institute of Physiology of Children and Teenagers had concluded that growing children need regular daily exercise and that this was to take place outside the lesson. Suggestions were made that the number of physical culture lessons per week be increased and experiments were undertaken in some schools, for example, the school in Estonia which had six—one per day—that we referred to earlier. It has now been more or less concluded by Soviet researchers that extracurricular work is more beneficial. Experiments continue with three lessons per week in 'experimental' schools and also in some schools with their own swimming pool, but three major reasons seem to stand in the way of a countrywide compulsory introduction of a third lesson in the foreseeable future. Firstly, it has been estimated that an additional 10,000 specialist teachers would be required. Secondly, additional sports facilities would be needed and, as we shall be discussing below, many schools already suffer deficiencies in equipment and facilities. Thirdly, additional lessons of physical
culture would require the dropping of one or more lessons of other subjects. Mikhail Shershnev, a physical culture teacher in Moscow, acknowledged the problems in 1982 and confirmed the eventual solution:

"The two hours given to physical culture each week is insufficient. However, it would be foolish to demand more because in the fifth class the same amount of time is given to literature and in the tenth class to biology. No, what is needed is to do more in the children's spare time". 71

This statement preceded the introduction of the new programme by about six months and was published in the monthly Sport v SSSR magazine. It was probably part of a campaign to inform teachers and school administrators of current thinking and to prepare them for the programme changes which lay ahead.

To return to F.E. Shtykalov's criticisms of lessons. Clearly, the aims of the programme have been altered to give a more narrow role to the lessons than in previous programmes. Teachers have received the benefit of advice both in written form, especially in Fizicheskaya kul'tura v shkole which was observed in all the school and institute physical education departments visited by the researcher, and at improvement courses which every teacher must attend.

When asked 'Who is at fault if an 'average' ability healthy child fails to achieve a satisfactory standard in physical education?', Dr. D.V. Kolesov, Director of the Research Institute of Physiology of Children told the
researcher: "It is either the fault of the child's own attitude or of the teacher". Among children the world over there will always be some who have no interest whatsoever in physical exercise and the best teachers and methods will do little to persuade them otherwise. There are many others who, given the right approach, can be convinced that work in lessons can be enjoyable and of use to them now, and in later life.

G.B. Meikson explained the current approach in teaching methods to the researcher:

1) "Trying to interest pupils, especially the older girls is not only a social problem - it is most important that teachers connect sport and physical education with health. However, most young people are already healthy - they must realise the importance of exercise and understand its connection with the maintenance and improvement of their health as they enter adulthood.

2) Teachers must persuade and convince their pupils of the need to exercise. To do this they should plan their lessons to give satisfaction, enabling the children to feel positive emotions, going from the lesson in a happy frame of mind, looking forward to further exercise and to the next lesson.

3) Pupils must have will-power. Boys are usually more interested than girls in physical culture lessons. It is difficult to explain to teachers in the programme how to develop interest. The key to the decision of how to teach is in the methods of proper teaching. Much depends on how
the teacher teaches - there are no specifically interesting or uninteresting movements in the programme and interest is promoted by the teacher. One method is to explain how important health and physical culture is to them. Girls usually need additional encouragement and it should be explained that physical culture can give them a good figure and help them to look more attractive. It can also prepare them for motherhood. Boys can gain strength, build a 'masculine' physique and prepare themselves for conscription, higher education and a profession.

4) Older pupils are taught to become 'fizkul'turniks' - participants in sport. The programme seeks to encourage them to continue with sport after school". 73

The researcher has observed school lessons of physical culture in 1981, 1983 and 1985. The 1983 to 1985 programme was in operation during the 1985 visits and possibly the most noticeable change, compared with lessons seen previously, was the increase in the amount of activity. Periods of intense activity were interspersed with quieter movements, nonetheless, there was little wasted opportunity for movement. Particularly noticeable was the large number of relay races and games, both with and without objects, and also the use of movements to music - resembling a hybrid of what we in Britain would refer to as 'aerobics' or 'popmobility' but done by most classes, boys and girls, from kindergarten upwards. One of the main reasons for its introduction into lessons is that it is an important element in one of the
other parts of the physical education programme—physical culture and health measures in the school day and the lesson performs its teaching role.

When questioned about her pupils' enthusiasm for physical culture lessons R.N. Rumentseva, teacher at School No.20 in Brest said:

"The children's enthusiasm is greatest between the ages of 10 and 14 and after that it declines due to a number of factors such as a general lack of enthusiasm for physical education caused by increased homework loads and worries about school work and future jobs". 74

In order additionally to motivate her pupils, the class judged to be best at physical education is awarded a day trip to a place of interest. The physical culture teachers also arrange for top sportsmen and women to visit the school and talk to the pupils— the most notable have been 1972 Olympic gold medallist gymnast Olga Korbut and, 1964 Olympic gold medallist wrestler Alexander Medved.

M.I. Barinova, physical culture teacher in School No.9 in Brest, claimed that all her pupils are enthusiastic—'even the fat girls' and she explained that teachers do not emphasise their lack of fitness but try to help them to become fitter. She also said that:

"Much depends upon the status of the subject in the school—children who are ill-prepared fail and then lose their enthusiasm. Classes IX and X could be difficult but, handled tactfully and with a well-prepared, varied and suitably loaded programme, most of them pass". 75
The headteacher of each school has overall responsibility for all aspects of physical education work including physical culture lessons. S.I. Romanovich, Headteacher of School No.2 in Brest, explained how she helps the physical culture teachers if pupils are difficult or lazy:

"I talk with the parents, the form teacher and the pupil and I make him or her work". 76

The status of physical culture lessons has been raised in recent years, especially since the 1981 Decree of the Central Committee of the CPSU and the USSR Council of Ministers "On the Further Improvement of Mass Physical Culture and Sport". The physical education programme as a whole was given added status in 1983 when the value of extracurricular work was highlighted with physical activities supposed to be taking place at various times during the school day and under the supervision of teachers of all subjects. Physical culture teachers now give guidance to other teachers for this purpose and the skills the children use in their extracurricular work are first learned in the lessons. Gradually the conditions under which physical culture lessons are taught are improving but, as we explain below, much has needed to be done to ensure that more teachers improve their qualifications and that facilities are made available or improved. As these improve, so too ought the status of the lessons. The USSR Ministry of Education seems to have committed itself fully to its school physical education programme and, although not all schools have adopted all the new measures (despite the fact that they are said to be 'obligatory'), physical culture lessons do quite specifically serve a solely educational purpose. Previous programmes
were supposed to raise the physical preparedness of the pupils - a form of physical training. Extracurricular work took place in schools but did not have quite the status or aims which it now has. For example, sports sections were originally set up to raise the level of sports mastery, but now they aim primarily to develop all children through physical activity. 77

Previous programmes for physical culture lessons were relatively detailed, requiring pupils to learn fairly complex skills and exercises in order to receive a 'Pass' grade and to be awarded a GTO badge. Researchers at the Research Institute of Physiology of Children, in assessing the programme prior to 1983, considered that a worker would not need to know how to perform complex basketball or other sports' skills but instead would require a general fitness which he/she would need to maintain throughout his/her working life. Hence the need to learn to conduct independent physical exercises. In the 1983 programme, therefore, only elements of sports are taught which are said to be easy to apply to extracurricular work. 78

Between the end of the 1960s and the end of the 1970s, experiments were undertaken to determine the amount of physical activity that was done in a physical culture lesson. It varied from 12-25 minutes - an average of around 18 minutes with a loss of around 27 minutes. Medical research was conducted in Moscow which concluded that the minimum time required weekly by children of physical activity to maintain healthy development was 12 hours per week, yet the twice-weekly lessons offered only an average of 36 minutes - 5%. 79

It was, therefore, decided that the lesson should offer only
teaching. Apparently, however, old habits die hard and some teachers find it hard to adapt to the new requirements explained V.P. Artem'ev, lecturer in physical education at the Brest Pedagogical Institute. As they attend improvement/refresher courses they are taught to alter their methods but for some, inevitably, it will not be easy.

An important aim of the lesson is to enable the pupils to do homework. This usually consists of some physical exercises which may easily be practised at home. It is considered logical to give this type of homework since one of the main aims of the lesson is to teach the children to work independently under the topic "Skills and habits of independent work". Homework usually consists of an exercise or short series of exercises which are to be repeated.

V.P. Artem'ev suggested the following lesson form which clearly makes homework an important element:

I Introduction
   a) to create an agreeable atmosphere and positive emotions
   b) warming up activities

II Main Part of the Lesson
   a) check homework
   b) give new material including that for homework
   c) reinforcement of material
   d) check how well the pupils have understood - both verbally and practically

III Conclusion
   a) calming down
   b) giving homework
Usually one task is set for homework but there may be more, especially with the older children and there may be some theoretical work.

Examples of homework observed by the researcher at School No. 112 in Moscow were sit-ups with Class VI (ages 12-13 years) and press-ups, crouching with one leg outstretched and walking on one's hands with feet dragging along the floor were all separate tasks for Class III. Their teacher explained that the GTO standards are high and two lessons plus a swimming lesson are insufficient to prepare the children and they are, therefore, given homework. The children we observed clearly still required further practice at all these skills. 82

Class VI in School No. 2 in Brest was given a homework task to practise jumps from a crouched position 'cossack jumps' where each leg is stretched out in front in turn whilst jumping. 83 The physical culture teacher in School No. 9 in Brest said that:

"On the whole, homework is quite well done, some children obviously work hard at it and may be helped by their parents, other work less well". 84

Homework has been given in physical culture lessons for many years. It seems, though, that its purpose has now shifted from the main task of giving regular exercise and, therefore, assisting the physical development of the pupils to its being a training for future independent exercise.

When questioned by the researcher in 1985, the Head of the Department of Physical Education of the USSR Ministry of Education in Moscow, V.P. Bogoslovsky, admitted that:
"Not all schools fully implement the programme - in some Republics 99 per cent do so but in others the number is only 80 per cent". 85

He gave the main reasons for non-compliance as 'a lack of necessary facilities and a shortfall in the required number of specialist teachers'.

We shall look at each of the factors in turn. Referring to sports facilities, V.P. Bogoslovsky commented to the researcher:

"In the whole country 40 per cent of our schools do not have a gymnasium and 40 per cent do not have a sports ground". 86

The programme for physical culture lessons is said to be 'obligatory' and seems to assume the availability to all schools of sports grounds, gymnasia and swimming pools by insisting that all pupils work towards and are tested for GTO awards, yet just under a half of all schools are lacking their own vital work areas and, as we shall explain later, very few have their own pools. The government is conscious of the problem and for some years has been striving to build school sports facilities but the problem was much worse relatively recently. For example, in 1972, the Deputy Minister of Education of the USSR, M.I. Kondakov reported at an All-Union conference on the physical education of the secondary school population that:

"65 per cent of all schools lack the elementary conditions for educational work in physical culture". 87

Schools built before 1951 did not have a gymnasium, and
most built before 1960 had no outdoor areas for games and athletics. M.I. Kondakov gave figures in a 1968 Conference on questions of improving sport among schoolchildren for the number of schools lacking sports facilities to be that approximately 80 per cent of all secondary schools had no sports grounds and 75 per cent had no gymnasia, whilst 50 per cent did not have even the sports equipment necessary for conducting compulsory lessons of physical culture according to the programmes. By 1975, only 44.1 per cent of schools had a gymnasium and in 1983 the figure had reached 56.5 per cent. USSR Deputy Minister of Education F.E. Shtykalı indicated that, although in 1983 only 56.5 per cent of all schools had their own gymnasium, the figures for some Republics were considerably higher:

- Armenia - 73.1%
- Russian Federation - 65.3%
- Moldavia - 59.9%
- Kazakhstan - 59.6%
- Ukraine - 57.7%

We are not given figures for any other Republics but we may reasonably assume that they fall below the average.

F.E. Shtykalı also showed concern at the number of school sports grounds which he estimated in early 1984 to be possessed by only 35 percent of all eight-year and middle schools, and he continued:

"This is exceptionally few! And yet, you know, sports grounds are in the open air and give oxygen to our children".

On another occasion he identified some of the worst and the
"In Turkmenia only 4.5 per cent of schools have sports grounds and in Tadzhikistan 6.5 per cent. Yet in Belorussia 72 per cent are provided with them, in Lithuania 62 per cent and in the Ukraine 45 per cent. Belorussia, Lithuania and the Ukraine have undertaken enormous amounts of organisational work to create sports grounds. Unfortunately, in other Republics I have mentioned not as much attention has been spared". 93

V.P. Bogoslovsky told the researcher that problems regarding a lack of sports facilities occur mainly in rural areas and in the south of the country. 94

A number of resolutions and decrees from the government have encouraged Republican ministries of education to provide their schools with better sports facilities and these were described in Chapter II. Additionally, the USSR Ministry of Education, the Central Committee of the Komsomol and the Committee on Physical Culture and Sports of the USSR Council of Ministers have held All-Union Contests for the Construction of Sports Facilities. Each competition runs for five years and regular reviews are made and published during the period. The most recent Contest began in 1981 and was to be judged in 1985. In the Contest, rural and city schools are encouraged to build their own sports facilities. Each Republic has been instructed to determine its own finalists and parents, pupils, sports collectives and patrons have helped to build new facilities and renovate old ones. A review was made in 1982 of the progress of the then current competition and the results were published in Fizicheskaya
kul'tura v shkole in late 1983. The interim report was, no doubt, intended to encourage those whose progress was slow to look at the superior results of other Republics and initiate more projects of their own.

Tables 25 and 26 give the figures from the 1982 interim report and reveal that different Republics have placed different emphases upon the types of facilities which they have built or reconstructed. We suggested earlier that Republics other than those cited by F.E. Shtykal'ko probably had gymnasia in fewer than 57.7 per cent of their schools, yet we see that of those, Georgia and Tadzhikistan did not build any new gymnasia and the latter only reconstructed 21. Tadzhikistan did, however, build 20 new gymnastic areas but Georgia none. The RSFSR had a greater than average number of gymnasia and constructed 409 new ones yet this is only one for every 51 of its 21,035 schools. By 1983 they had a gymnasium in 65.3 per cent of their schools. They also reconstructed one in seven of their school gymnasia. Armenia, however, built 25 new gymnastic halls for 60 schools and achieved the figure of at least one gymnasium in 73.1 per cent of its schools by 1983. This puts into perspective the amount of extra effort made by Armenia, a small Republic with roughly only 2 per cent of the population of the RSFSR. We are not told whether all schools are entered in the Contest, but, when one considers the poor figures generally for school sports facilities, it would seem unlikely that any could afford not to try to improve themselves.

The Contest is aimed primarily at self-help and particular mention is made of schools whose efforts have put them in first place by 1982 and a separate category allows
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* Figures include reconstruction and new building work; Information not given for Latvia and Kirgizia.

Sources: Fizicheskaya kultura v shkole 11 (1983) pp 6, 7 and 12 (1983) pp 6-8
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* Figures include new building. Information not available for Kazakhstan, Latvia and Kirgizia.
rural schools to compete among themselves. In the past, it is they who have frequently had the least sports facilities and equipment. Schools' patrons such as factories, institutes, state and collective farms are cited along with the best schools and lists of their achievement so far. For example, in Kazakhstan, School No. 9 named after N.K. Krupskaya at the state farm 'Vostok' in the Karkaralinsk district of the Karaganda Region, came first in the rural schools category. The farm workers and the children have built various 'non-standard' equipment for weight-training and gymnastics and have installed radio equipment in the gymnasium. In 1980, they started to build sports grounds and by 1982 they had equipped a gymnastic area, a children's playground and a GTO obstacle site. Most Republics acknowledged the assistance given by the various patrons in their lists.

Only three Republics have made any significant effort to construct swimming pools - RSFSR (21), The Ukraine (19) and Uzbekistan (12). The remaining Republics built only 7 between them. The high construction costs involved in building a swimming pool are significant and it seems that only the more populous Republics have considered it worth the expense. Sports grounds, however, are cheaper and easier to construct and maintain. In the RSFSR 2382 soccer pitches were rebuilt and 1065 new ones were constructed - a total of one for every 6 of their schools in the Contest, in Uzbekistan the figure was almost one in 8, however, in other Republics, the figures were much lower and in Leningrad it was only one in 34. Particular mention should also be made of the numbers of soccer pitches, volleyball, handball and basketball courts rebuilt or newly constructed by Georgia.
This shows their intention to improve facilities for the sports in the physical culture programme. We should be aware though that other Republics and cities may have included their courts and pitches under other categories. Very few athletics or GTO areas have been reconstructed, but many have been newly built - an indication either that many schools did not formerly possess them and it may have been suggested that they should have them, or that they have been told to concentrate on other facilities. The former seems the more likely when we consider the large number of new athletics facilities. The gymnastic areas seem to be a relatively new innovation - only 3 were reconstructed yet 2564 were newly built.

Although all these facilities are intended to be used in every aspect of the physical education programme, they are all needed for the successful implementation of the compulsory physical culture lessons. The main deficiency would seem to be swimming pools. In the city of Brest, for example, only two schools have their own pools and in Leningrad, in 1983, no school had its own pool. Leningrad is planning, however, to equip all its new schools with indoor pools from January 1985 and these should be 25 metres long, have 4 lanes and have a depth of 2 metres at the deep end and 0.5 metres at the shallow end. However, a member of the Leningrad Education Department told the researcher in early 1985 that the costs may be prohibitive and that children may have to continue to use out-of-school swimming facilities. Since the campaign was first launched in 1968 to teach all children to swim, the authorities seem to have been slow to provide schools with their own pools due primarily to their
large cost and have, instead, relied on existing pools, many of which were probably formerly under-utilised during the daytime, hence making more economical use of them and saving their education budgets. The Minister of Education of the Ukraine SSR, I. S. Khomenko, explained in April 1985 at a conference in Tallinn where participants reported on the state of physical education in the country, that in his Republic's schools and kindergartens there are 230 covered pools and more than 3,900 outdoor pools where schoolchildren learn to swim. He also stated that in the academic year 1984/85, all pupils in the IV classes will learn to swim. Whilst the figures sound impressive, we should remember that there are at least 20,678 schools and probably many more kindergartens again in the Republic. Again, great reliance must be placed upon out-of-school facilities.

Some areas seem now to favour the policy of building 'stadia' (sports centres), often to be shared between several schools. It is now the policy in Leningrad that for every 4 or 5 new schools, there should be one 'stadium' which may be used by them all. Each 'stadium' is to consist of a running track, soccer pitch, high and long jump areas, basketball, volleyball and handball courts, outdoor lighting and spectator seating. There will also be an indoor sports hall with facilities for basketball, volleyball and gymnastics with changing rooms and showers. Leningrad built one such stadium in 1983, and for 1 September 1985 there should be 9 new schools mostly in new areas with 2 stadia between them. They also plan that from January 1985 all new schools will have two gymnasium/sports halls each - one for the younger and one for older pupils. Each is to be around 24 x 18 metres in size.
Many city centre schools are greatly restricted in that they have no land to build outdoor facilities. If their buildings are old then they probably do not have particularly good facilities indoors either. An example of the latter is School No.185 in Leningrad city which was visited by the researcher in 1983. It had 650 children, one relatively small gymnasium and only a small yard outdoors. School No.228 in Leningrad is situated just outside the city in a suburb. In 1981, it had one gymnasium and outdoors had a soccer pitch with a running track around it. School No.112 in Moscow is very close to the city centre and in 1985, had 964 pupils, three gymnasia, an indoor swimming pool, outdoors - a 60 metres running track, a wooden-floored mini soccer pitch/play area, a tennis court which converted to an ice hockey pitch in the winter, a 150 metres 'track' on the paths around the school building, a 100 metres 'track' on the road outside the school, outdoor 'multi-gym' and playground equipment, a jumping area and frames and bars. In the words of the school's headteacher: "every centimetre is used".

Schools visited in Brest varied: School No.20 in the centre of the city had 1548 pupils in two shifts, one gymnasium and a school yard - the facilities were inadequate in the opinion of R.N. Rumentseva, the head of the physical education department.

Clearly, it seems that progress is being made in providing schools with better facilities but it is, undoubtedly, a slow improvement which requires a tremendous amount of money and commitment. Details of improvements are frequently published and may then be read with pride by
teachers but must surely fire within many a desire for something better, for example, from between 1980 to 1982 the percentage of eight-year and middle schools with sport halls rose from 53 per cent to 54.6 per cent. As for the figures for gymnasia, the following three Republics were cited by F.E. Shtykalo to have the best percentages: Armenia - 74.4 per cent, Moldavia - 61.1 per cent and the Russian Federation - 60.8 per cent. 103 Both Armenia and Moldavia have relatively small populations but they are both increasing their numbers as we discussed in Chapter I. They have clearly chosen to invest heavily to provide indoor facilities for children's physical education but, their figures for outdoor facilities are not as impressive. Moldavia, however, has built and reconstructed a considerable number of outdoor sports areas during the period 1981-82, but the Armenians have done little work to rectify their deficiencies as indicated in Tables 25 and 26.

Conversations with Soviet administrators and teachers have shown the researcher that there is a great awareness of deficiencies but also a determination to employ the self-help principle in order to improve their situation. Once again, guidance and encouragement comes from the USSR Deputy Minister of Education:

"In addition to intensifying the work of building sports halls and sports grounds there is also a need in schools to build non-standard sports equipment which should be sited in areas such as open ground". 104

The equipment to which F.E. Shtykalo was referring had already appeared in several of the schools visited by
the researcher in 1985, they included Schools Nos. 9 and 2 in Brest and 112 in Moscow and a number of rural schools observed from the road or from trains. The equipment consisted of climbing frames and obstacles which the children may climb over or through. They were normally sited outdoors in a yard or in the school playing fields and included half-sunken tractor tyres, logs and bars and could easily be constructed by teachers, parents and school patrons, especially those with engineering or carpentry experience. At the Research Institute of Physiology of Children in Moscow, staff have undertaken research to produce recommended plans to enable schools to construct their own. They have also produced scale models of actual sites which they can show to teachers who seek advice. The equipment may be used during extended breaks as observed in School No. 2 in Brest or other extracurricular time such as the prolonged-day sports hour or, as observed at School No. 112 in Moscow, during the physical culture lesson (Class III).

Non-standard equipment is not only used outdoors but also in the school gymnasium or sports hall. In her visits to schools in 1981 and 1983, the researcher did not see any such equipment but in 1985 the gymnasium at School No. 9 in Brest was fitted out with a number of items:

a) 4 electronic targets on the wall which should light up when hit with a ball;

b) 5 wires which extend from the ceiling down to the floor at an angle of 45 degrees and along each a

*a See Chapter V for details of extended breaks.

*b See Appendix G for details of this lesson.
ball with a hole in it may be thrown - these encourage a correct throwing technique;
c) frames which may be hooked onto wall-bars at different heights starting lower for the weakest children and leading to pull-ups;
d) an inclined plank hooked on to a wall-bar and on it a 'trolley' on wheels on which the pupil may lie and hold onto some grips on the wall-bar. The pupil then pulls himself up the incline which may be made steeper for stronger pupils - this also leads to pull-ups;
e) a horizontal bar which may be turned to 'roll' up a weight on a rope;
f) a small frame with handles which may be hooked onto wall-bars - weights are put on the frame and the height may be adjusted - the pupil lifts the frame by the handles with different loadings and from different positions;
g) a volleyball suspended on a rope and hooked on to any height of wall-bar by means of a frame for volleyball practice.

Physical culture teacher, M.I. Barinova, explained that she and her colleagues in the physical education department designed the equipment themselves and had it made by the school's patrons and pupils' parents. They use it in lessons and each piece constitutes a 'station' in a circuit. Pupils work for several minutes at a load to suit each individual. When the groups are to change, M.I. Barinova does not usually line up the children to march to the next 'station'. Instead, she plays music which she believes creates a more
interesting and relaxing atmosphere between the periods of activity. Her pupils work in constant groups and this means, she says, that there is no time wasted in organising them. The children already know the exercises and this avoids time-wasting. Circuit training is used regularly for lessons at the school and M.I. Barinova and her colleagues first began it when they were looking for ways to improve their pupils' strength and skills. They believe that changing from one piece of apparatus to another after short intensive periods of activity is an important factor in preventing the pupils becoming bored or tired. They use a total of ten stations in lessons. This 'home-made' equipment was certainly robust and would, no doubt, have been quite expensive if bought ready-made. The ball-throwing device was possibly the most ingenious yet simple, and any child (or adult) using it could not fail to improve their technique. The only disappointments were the electronic targets which steadfastly refused to light up when hit.

As we have mentioned earlier, the situation of deficiencies of sports equipment and facilities is still acute in some areas. It will be difficult to rectify it in many of the older city schools with little or no room for new buildings or sports fields. Leningrad, for example, has a five-yearly budget of 230 million roubles to be spent on schools and kindergartens, but more than half of this amount is spent repairing the many old buildings. The money for the new stadia mentioned earlier is taken from the budget for each of the 4 or 5 new schools which are to use it, and the cost of a stadium is between 250,000 and 300,000 roubles in total. They built one in 1982 with a 'tartan' running track and good quality facilities, but this cost 500,000
roubles and was considered to be too expensive and the policy is now to cut costs wherever possible. 107 The USSR is obviously investing a great deal of money in school physical education facilities but it is clear that, in order to raise standards, much more must be spent and the self-help policy is being pursued with increasing vigour. Harsh winter weather conditions damage grass pitches and hard court and track areas in many areas and constant hard work repairing and rebuilding must be undertaken to maintain safe, usable areas. Nonetheless, the physical culture programme demands the provision of good facilities, and the recently improved status of its lessons and of the physical education programme overall should ensure that where effort was previously lacking, it will now be made.

The other factor cited by V.P. Bogoslovsky as being responsible for the non-compliance by some schools to fully implement the physical culture programme was a lack of specialist teachers. The question of teacher training is explained in a later chapter, but below we shall investigate the numbers of qualified specialists and learn how the state is endeavouring to increase their numbers. We have discussed the problems for physical culture lessons since the 1917 Revolution in an earlier chapter, and have learned that for many years the subject has been taught by non-qualified staff in many of the country's schools, especially in rural areas. Indeed, it was only in 1966 that the Resolution 'On Measures for the Further Development of Physical Culture and Sports' was put forward by the Central Committee of the CPSU and the USSR Council of Ministers to councils of ministers Union Republics and to the USSR Ministry of Education that the position of teacher of physical culture
could be established between 1967 and 1969 in all rural eight-year schools. 108 It was at this time that two physical culture lessons per week were being introduced in all grades of all types of schools. By 1967, just over 55 per cent of all physical culture teachers were qualified, 109 and the 1966 Resolution placed particular emphasis upon deficiencies in rural schools and the need to give those schools the material conditions to fully implement the by now obligatory programme for lessons. In 1970, the USSR Minister of Education wrote that to eliminate some of the shortcomings of the school physical culture programme:

"We must implement the projected programme for training teachers of physical culture since 40 per cent of those teaching this subject have no specialised training". 110

In 1972, it was reported by the USSR Minister of Education, M.I. Kondakov, that the professional level of the physical culture teacher was below that of the average teacher in academic subjects and that over 30 per cent of all physical culture teachers had no professional training whatsoever. 111 It was reported in late 1973 in the Soviet press that, although the overall percentage of physical culture teachers with specialised training had reached 71.1 per cent, in rural areas only 37.5 per cent had a secondary and higher education. 112 By late 1977, there was "currently at least one physical education and sports expert in every secondary school", 113 and in 1977 there were said to be around 120,000 physical culture teachers in Soviet schools of whom nearly 100,000 had a higher or specialised secondary education, 114 although this figure appears to have been inflated when we read a 1984 report by the USSR Deputy Minister of Education in which he
stated:

"One hundred and twenty thousand teachers of physical culture work in the country's schools and of these more than 80 per cent have a higher or secondary specialised education". 115

This means that of the 120,000 teachers, more than 96,000 were specialists which means that 24,000 non-specialists were teaching physical culture in 1984. F.E. Shtykal's report concerned secondary schools and did not take into account the many unqualified teachers of elementary classes. It seems likely that the 20 per cent non-specialists were mainly in rural areas since the retraining programmes which have now been in operation for several years would, by 1984, have upgraded the qualifications of most urban area teachers. Minister of Education of the Ukraine SSR, I.S. Khomenko, reported in April 1985 at the conference in Tallinn on the state of school physical education, that in his Republic's schools 94 per cent of teachers of physical culture had either higher or specialised secondary education. 116 Teachers from the Ukraine's secondary schools attend improvement courses at faculties of physical education in pedagogical institutes and from eight-year schools at regional institutes of advanced training. 117 In the Aktyubinsk region of Kazakhstan it was reported in 1984 that only 65.5 per cent of teachers of physical culture had a specialist training and only 26 per cent of coaches in the regions sports schools were specialists. 118 The report went on to criticise the local pedagogical institute for its failure to provide correspondence courses. Many serving teachers in the country have upgraded their qualifications by
attending inservice courses if they live near an institute which runs such courses or, if they can be seconded from their work, to attend a full or part-time course of study. Clearly, in the Aktyubinsk Region difficulties have arisen in retraining physical culture teachers, and it seems likely that other areas may be experiencing similar problems, especially in the more remote rural areas.

Most of the new entrants into the profession in city schools are graduates of institutes of physical culture or of pedagogical institutes however, until recently, many of the entrants were trained in tekhnikums or, in the case of rural teachers, in one of the country's specialised secondary schools. It is now recognised that physical culture teachers should have a higher specialised training, and among the teachers whom the researcher has interviewed R.N. Rumentseva of School No. 20 in Brest, and the male teacher at School No. 228 in Leningrad, both probably in their mid-forties, were trained initially at tekhnikums. She has since graduated from a correspondence course at the Brest Pedagogical Institute, and he from the Herzen Pedagogical Institute. We shall be looking at improvement and retraining courses in much greater detail in Chapter VII.

A further, but apparently not so serious cause of failure of some schools to fully implement the physical culture programme was explained to the researcher by V.P. Bogoslovsky:

"In Central Asian Republics there have in the past been traditions and prejudices, particularly concerning 'Muslim' girls and some items of their clothing which they would not remove for physical
culture lessons. The problem is now nearly solved
and is not as great as it has been in former years
when they were refusing to take part in lessons.
A relaxation of some of the religious laws and a
tolerance by the schools of some items of clothing
have helped ease the situation". 119

The problems have arisen because 'Muslim' girls and
women are forbidden by religious law or Islamic tradition
to bare their arms, legs or face to males and, therefore,
mixed physical culture classes have been disrupted and the
wearing of proper sports clothes has been refused by many.
However, nowadays, the religious laws are not always
strictly obeyed and erstwhile 'Muslim' girls and women seem
to be allowed more freedom.

Next we look at the material in the programme and shall
be discussing how the lessons are implemented. We earlier
investigated the way in which the programme is devised and
have seen that it was introduced into schools in September
1983. It would seem, from an article published in
Fizicheskaya kul'tura v shkole in January 1984, that certain
problems arose in the early stages of the new programme and
that teachers were uncertain about some elements. The
article was entitled 'Answers to Questions About the New
Programme' and was written by G.B. Meikson and V.N. Shaúlin,
both of the Research Institute of Physiology of Children in
Moscow. 120 They explained that the reason they have been
able to introduce the better quality programme was the
increased number of specialist teachers in the country's
schools. Teachers were apparently worried at the absence of
sets of exercises which they have been accustomed to
receiving from the USSR Ministry of Education and felt that they might not be able to correctly and effectively assess their pupils' work without such guidance. The response from the article's authors was:

"The compilers of the programme consider these misgivings to be groundless. On the contrary, the absence of strictly determined sets of exercises for developing movement quality will stimulate the teacher to search for the most suitable means and methods according to his/her own regional conditions, climate, numbers of children and school resources". 121

They go on to advise teachers that they may vary the time allowed for the different parts of the programme by up to 3-4 lessons should the above factors justify the changes. This was shown to teachers in July 1983 when the programme was first given in Fizicheskaya kul'tura v shkole. Immediately following the programme was an article entitled 'According to the New Programme' in which teacher, I.I. Dolzhikov, of School No.748 in Moscow gives full details of his school's interpretation of the programme. His table of lessons (Table 27) shows some small differences when compared with the officially recommended plan shown in Table 24, but these comply with the above advice on time variations.

Another important feature of this programme is that work is not repeated. It is taught only once in each school year although it may be repeated in the following years. Material may be used more than once but not taught again in that year. The example given in the advisory article for teachers is of "Gymnastics" for Class IV. This is where
TABLE 27

Plan of the Distribution of Lessons of Physical Culture in School No. 748, Moscow 1983

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PARTS OF THE PROGRAMME</th>
<th>IV</th>
<th>V-VI</th>
<th>VII-VIII</th>
<th>IX-X</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Theoretical information</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gymnastics</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Track and field athletics</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elements of team games</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ski training</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active games</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number of lessons</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

elements are taught which then link together to form sets of exercises for morning gymnastics which become more complex as more difficult elements are taught. The programme itself gives only the minimum details for this: 'Sets of morning gymnastics with and without objects'. Detailed accounts are given in Fizicheskaya kul'tura v shkole.

Unlike some of its predecessors the programme does not call for technical excellence but rather:

"It creates within the children the notion of ways of moving and does not 'split hairs' about techniques". 123

We should recall that the lessons are not intended to serve any purpose on their own as they tend to do in other country's systems, but that they aim to give the pupil the base, skills and fundamentals so that he/she can undertake extracurricular work without requiring further specialist teaching. The programme's compilers also make the point in their advisory article that:

"For the pupils to achieve a good physical preparation and to form different motor skills they should complete work on all the programme's material. This should ensure that full value is gained from the educational process that it offers". 124

We have already explained the aims of the programme and outlined the work for each activity earlier in this chapter. The programme appears in more detail in Appendix F along with the norms and standards for which each child should be tested twice a year. The first is at the end of September
and enables the teacher to plan the work for the year ahead. The second test is given at the end of May, at the conclusion of the educational year. The tests are conducted in lesson time and should take only one lesson each time. Points are awarded '5' (the highest), '4' and '3'. The score of '5' indicates a performance whose average is equal to that required for the silver badge of the GTO award scheme which ended in early 1985. A '4' or a '3' may be due to particular features of the school or area such as a lack of facilities or adverse weather conditions. It may also indicate that the child is not healthy, that he/she has not worked sufficiently to prepare physically, or that the teacher has not been able to work effectively with the children either through his or her own lack of ability or due to a low level of professional training.

Several Soviet physical education specialists have expressed their opinions to the researcher that the norms are relatively low for the physical culture lessons. Physical culture teacher R.N. Rumentseva of School No.20 in Brest felt that the programme for Classes IV-X was weak and the norms were too low for her children (she blamed the figure of only 70 per cent of her pupils achieving their GTO awards on the fact that they did not have year-round access to a swimming pool). 125 When asked about the norms and standards, lecturer in physical education at Brest Pedagogical Institute, V.P. Artem'ev, replied:

"The aim is to achieve the highest norm. This indicates that the teacher's ability to work with the children has been good and that the pupil is quite fit. In the present programme the norms are not particularly high. The
children know the norms and, therefore, know what they should achieve". 126

At School No.112 in Moscow, the teacher of physical culture explained that she was finding the GTO norms high and that the two physical culture lessons and one swimming lesson would not be sufficient to prepare her pupils for the awards without homework and other out-of-class work, however, the educational norms were easier. 127 If we compare the GTO norms which were current prior to the start of 1985, with the norms of the physical culture lessons we see, for example, that in Class IV (ages 10-11), for boys long jump a '4' would be the equivalent of the silver badge standard and the distance for a '5' would be 10cm short of a gold badge standard. For girls, the '4' and silver badge standards are the same, but for a gold badge a jump of 20cm more would be required than for a '5'. To take another example - Class VIII 60m sprints: boys attaining a '5' would also have reached the silver badge standard and the same applied to girls. Detailed examinations of the GTO and lesson norms reveal that the latter are the easier to succeed in. When we compare the new GTO syllabus which was introduced in January 1985 we see that the silver badge has been replaced by a 'Pass' badge but the gold badge is retained. All the figures have been re-assessed, some of the standards are easier, some harder,* but they are the result of the compilation of figures from GTO awards taken countrywide. The new (1985) syllabus for GTO still requires a higher standard of performance than the lesson norms and we may question the

* See Appendices A and F to make these comparisons.
value of two separate sets of standards. The standards for lessons ought to be relatively easily achieved by all healthy schoolchildren who have been given the full year's physical culture lesson programme and they should attain a '5', however, a standard of performance could be lowered by any or all of the factors mentioned above. The standards for the lessons are, it would seem, to be used by the teacher as a measure of success of his/her teaching and of the requirements of the pupils. The test at the start of the year reveals the pupils' weaknesses and strengths and indicates to the teacher the areas in which they require more work and the programme can be altered slightly to accommodate this. The results are recorded in the class register and if a different teacher is to take over the class in a new academic year, he/she may refer to the records of the past year. These records are kept within the school and, except where they are checked by researchers, it would seem that they are for internal use only.

Conversely, the All-Union GTO awards are an indication of the fitness of the population, including all schoolchildren. Work towards the tests may be, and often is, done in out-of-lesson time and GTO sections are set up in many schools. * GTO tests should be undertaken in all schools and they are administered by the local GTO committee. The results are not only kept within the school and are used to compile statistics throughout the entire country. Pupils must achieve a higher standard overall to attain a GTO award gold badge than to attain a '5' mark in the tests in lessons, consequently,

* See information on these in Chapter V.
fewer are likely to be successful. The GTO tests do offer the more able pupil a higher standard to which he can aim and most should, given the right conditions, be able to gain the 'Pass' award.

An investigation of the material taught shows us that gymnastics is taught all the way through from Class IV to X. It involves general developmental exercises, the teaching of sets of exercises for out-of-lessons work, drill training and 'acrobatics' which we might refer to as 'formal gymnastics'. An increasing amount of exercise is now done to music with all ages of children. Elements of national (folk) and contemporary dances are taught in this section and usually involve stepping patterns and exercises. The use of national (folk) dances and their music is probably intended to encourage in the children a sense of national identity and an awareness of their country's history. The learning of dances of other nationalities should help to promote an understanding of other people in the USSR where there are over 100 different nationalities as explained in Chapter I.

In Class IV, the material is the same for boys and girls but from Class V on, there are differences. At first they involve girls doing work on press-ups and boys on pull-ups but from Class VI onwards, there are more to give the boys more strenuous exercise as their bodies are generally capable of heavier loads than girls of the same age. From Class VII, boys are taught some elements of unarmed combat, mainly basic positions and games which include wrestling for an object. From Class IX, boys and girls are taught separately and girls begin work on artistic gymnastics whilst the boys spend more time on wrestling.
Track and field athletics is taught in every year group as are skiing, skating and cross-country running as appropriate to the weather conditions. Schools should teach elements of not less than two of the following sports to Classes IV to VI - volleyball, handball, soccer and basketball and from Class VII the pupils should specialise in one. If a school chooses soccer, then they are obliged to select another sport for the girls. Although swimming appears on the programme for every year group, many schools teach it only to their younger children, for example, in School No. 2 in Brest only Classes II to IV have swimming lessons when they go to the pool at School No. 9 and these take place in the autumn and winter months. 128

Each lesson should involve an element of theoretical knowledge to acquaint the pupils of the history and development of sport in their country and the value of sport and exercise. Interdisciplinary connections are made where possible in order to give the pupils a greater understanding of the subject of physical culture and so broaden their knowledge. The connections may be made with courses from previous years but, with a school syllabus set by the USSR Ministry of Education, it is relatively simple to make connections in the almost certain knowledge that specified work has been done.

The researcher's observations in schools have shown that lessons are now more lively than when she watched lessons taken from the programme which ended in 1983. The focus seems to be on exercises, games and relay races with not much time spent on actual technique. Activities are changed regularly and the children seem to find the lessons
great fun. Apart from artistic gymnastics there appears little in the programme to allow creativity in the pupils. On the whole they are given designated exercises or movements and little freedom to interpret notions or instructions in their own way, unlike the modern educational dance or educational gymnastics which first found strong favour in British schools in the 1960s, particularly among women teachers. When asked whether they had ever undertaken any such work all the teachers replied that they had not, and several doubted whether any worthwhile teaching could ever be done using such methods. The view of G.B. Meikson was that:

"Creative upbringing is good for children, however, the current physical education system is based upon a national and Soviet system which stems from Lesgaft and does not allow much creativity". 129

He felt that pupils were allowed some opportunities to develop their creative abilities in the programme but not in the same way we understand it in Britain:

"Creative work is reflected in both the current and in the new programme to be implemented in September 1985. Pupils are given tasks but each chooses his own steps. The pupil must learn to implement what he has been taught in the lessons".

and he explained:

"Children in junior forms may be taught the elements of exercises. They may then have 10 to 15 minutes to invent their own exercises. This can also occur when they are older in dance and team games. The
best teachers allow children some time to invent their own". ¹³⁰

There has been no evidence of work of this kind in lessons observed by the researcher and it seems unlikely that many teachers, particularly those who have been in the profession for some years, are able to move away from the traditional direct teaching methods.

It is the opinion of Dr. D.V. Kolesov, Head of the Research Institute of Physiology of Children in Moscow, that the technical aspects of physical education should be improved in future programmes and he would like to see the need for records being set in physical culture lessons to be eliminated. He said "it is a physical culture lesson, not a competition". ¹³¹ This view was also put forward by USSR Deputy Minister of Education F.E. Shtykalô in an article in July 1985:

"The health of children is the health of the future. Work in the schools should first and foremost be for children and not for points and prizes". ¹³²

We may, therefore, see less emphasis placed upon GTO awards in the future. Another trend which is becoming more significant is to decrease the amount of compulsory material and allow senior forms some choice to undertake their favourite sports and activities.

It also seems likely that, in the future, when the country has trained more specialists, the number of physical culture lessons will be increased, probably to three per week. Experimental schools have been testing the feasibility of an additional lesson each week and this indicates a
possible change.

The programme which has just been introduced in schools in September 1985 will not be commented upon in this study (abbreviated details of it are included in Appendix H) except to say that, for the first time, all areas of school physical education work are described, not only lessons of physical culture. This indicates the confirmation of the policy to implement a complex programme of physical education in schools - a policy which was, in effect, being tested in the 1983-1985 programme.

Lessons in Schools for Children with Special Needs

General schools cater for most Soviet children but there are special schools for those with physical, mental or behavioural problems. They have twice-weekly lessons of physical culture and these are adapted to suit the particular needs of pupils with physical or mental defects.

The researcher visited a boarding school in Brest in April 1985 which specialised in the education and treatment of children suffering from scoliosis (deformity) of the spine. 133 *

The educational programme is the same as for other schools, but with a special routine to cater for the specific health-care needs of the children. This includes, said the doctor responsible for curative physical education and physical culture lessons, T.P. Boreko:

i) beds for traction whilst asleep during the night
ii) massage according to individual prescription
iii) swimming twice each week in the city pool

* See details of this school in Chapter I.
iv) 'warm wrapping' of a hot blanket on the back to allow the vertebrae to become more pliable to release them for treatment and stimulate circulation

v) curative physical education sessions twice-weekly

vi) twice-weekly physical culture lessons

vii) special seats for lessons adjusted to suit individual deformities.

We shall discuss in this section the lessons of physical culture and of curative physical education at the above boarding school. Details of a lesson of each are to be found in Appendix G.

Lessons of physical culture follow the same basic pattern as in general schools, but one of the school's doctors works in close co-operation with the physical culture teacher to plan activities which avoid jumps, sideways bending, sports gymnastics, bicycle riding and GTO work—all of which are considered detrimental to the pupils' treatment. They try to avoid excessive strain on the spine and internal organs which, in some of the children, may be weak and defective. They learn the elements of volleyball and basketball but do not play the full games and avoid overhead passes. Despite these restrictions, an observed physical culture lesson with 21 Class III pupils was lively and there were several opportunities for energetic competition which they all seemed to enjoy. Rhythmic gymnastics has been introduced recently and stepping, turning and clapping was the material for the observed lesson. The teacher, a woman, was a graduate of the Minsk Institute of Physical Culture, the Pedagogical Institute of Brest and of a medical institute. She was middle-aged and a 1st ranked gymnast and athlete.
Her pupils consisted of 17 girls and 4 boys (there were more girls since scoliosis of the spine is more commonly found in girls than in boys). The teacher said that in her lessons she does not give individual loads but tries to create a good atmosphere, emotion and enjoyment. She also said that some of the advice for her lessons comes from the Institute of Orthopaedics and Pathology in Minsk.

Lessons of curative physical education are given twice-weekly to each pupil by a woman teacher who is a graduate of the Minsk Institute of Physical Culture. She specialised in her fourth year at the Institute in curative physical education with four lessons each week. She said that the aims of her lessons are to give the pupils movement opportunities to maintain the curative element of the treatment.

The observed lesson of curative physical education (remedial gymnastics) was with a small class of 14 year olds, 2 boys and 7 girls. During the lesson some of the children went to another room for massage. They have massage for twenty days, then a month's break then another 20 days massage. This regime continues and is combined with the curative physical education lessons.

The material was, on the whole, given in the form of individual exercises. Each pupil knew his/her own sets of exercises and all changed to another upon the teacher's instructions. The introduction and concluding parts of the lessons involved the same work for everyone. The teacher helped each pupil where necessary throughout the lesson. Pulses were taken and recorded at the end of the lesson and each was awarded either a '4' or '5' grade and given an
individual assessment by the teacher.

In contrast with lively lessons of physical culture, this lesson of curative physical education was calm and quiet. Movements were slow and controlled and clearly purposeful in their choice in that they were exclusively designed to strengthen muscles of the trunk and improve posture.

Unlike general schools this particular school does not offer any form of extracurricular physical activity. Instead, since much of the treatment involves active and controlled exercise, a one and a half hours sleep/rest period is time-tabled for each pupil daily after lunch. It would seem also, that since all their physical activity is adapted and measured to suit the children's condition, any uncontrolled exercise, especially of a physically demanding nature, might be counterproductive.

Although in some of the pupils the scoliosis deviation was clearly visible, in most the untrained eye could not detect it. The class of 14 year olds had good posture and the boys especially were developing particularly strong upper body and arm muscles due to their exercises and stage of maturity. That their condition was not always noticeable is an endorsement of the success of the treatment. Once they leave the school most will be able to lead a full life, unaware of the severe deformities and health problems with which they might have suffered without the complex treatment and care they have received.

The cost to the state in running institutions such as the above boarding school must be enormous but are considered worthwhile when set against the amount it would cost in health
care, pensions and lost production if these young people were unable to work as adults.

**Optional Sessions in the Theory and Practice of Physical Culture and Sport**

These are sessions which are held to extend the knowledge which pupils receive at physical culture lessons. Pupils in Classes VII-X may choose to attend if they show a particular inclination for and interest in the subject 'Physical Culture'. Sessions are held either twice a week for 45 minutes or once a week for 90 minutes and are aimed particularly at those pupils who may wish to pursue activities or a career in sport after leaving school. Groups are mixed and a endorsement is made on the pupil's school graduation certificate if he/she successfully passes the course. 137

Very little information is available about these optional sessions, and none of the schools visited by the researcher nor any of the specialists mentioned that they occur widely and the above reference is the only example known to the researcher.

Recent programmes of physical culture lessons have been developed from research and experimental work carried out, under the overall control and direction of the USSR Ministry of Education, by staff at the Research Institute of Physiology of Children of the Academy of Pedagogical Sciences at Moscow. The programmes continue to be based on the studies of P.F. Lesgaft and discussions with staff at the Institute confirm that there has been little Western influence in their recent development.

Lessons of physical culture are designed to fulfil a
specific purpose - namely teaching the skills and habits of regular physical exercise to children. This is to enable them to undertake all aspects of the physical education programme: physical culture and health measures, extracurricular work and independent physical exercise whilst at school and once they have graduated from school. The overall aim of the physical education programme is to meet the social demands of the Soviet nation, namely to produce a fit and healthy population to defend and work for their country.

Since the physical education programme serves such an important purpose, it is logical that a centrally-planned programme of physical culture lessons should be imposed on each school. This increases the probability of the programme being implemented in the majority of schools despite the vast scale of the country. Were the programme not compulsory, physical culture lessons in many schools, especially in the more remote and rural areas, might not achieve the status they now appear to enjoy and would probably not be so effective.

In view of the fact that many of the criteria for teaching physical culture vary according to teachers' qualifications and interests, facilities, equipment and climate, the USSR Ministry of Education allows schools a certain degree of latitude in administering the programme. This permits them to choose the sports they teach (from a list) and to offer alternatives for swimming, skiing and skating where conditions preclude their implementation.

The 1983-1985 programme gives teachers a basic outline of material to be taught, but omits the detail and does not insist upon compliance with stated teaching methods and specific exercises and activities as its predecessors have
done. This indicates three points:

i) the USSR Ministry of Education feels that conditions in schools vary to such an extent that a rigid programme might be less effective since some schools would have no option but to omit certain sections and not complete the programme;

ii) the programme now allows teachers to design much of their own lesson material, according to the needs of individual pupils and classes, signifying recognition by the authorities of a need to teach children and not just material;

iii) the USSR Ministry of Education is now confident that the majority of its teachers of physical culture are capable of interpreting and planning their own lessons within the guidelines of the programme, and can use the tables of educational norms as indications of the standards their pupils ought to be attaining.

The government's increased confidence in its teachers appears to be due to a recent policy of training more specialists, and to an insistence that all serving teachers attend regular inservice improvement courses. They have also implemented schemes for teachers to upgrade their qualifications. As a result, there is now a greater proportion of specialist physical culture teachers than ever before.

Until recently, most physical culture specialists were deployed teaching Classes IV-X whilst Classes I-III were given their physical culture lessons either by their own class teacher or by another teacher who had an interest, but probably only an elementary training in the subject. It is now government policy to assign specialists to teach physical
culture to primary classes wherever possible and recent graduates, including men, are being assigned to this work. Moscow has led the way and already all its primary classes are now taught by physical culture specialists. This policy indicates that:

i) lessons of physical culture and, indeed, the whole physical education programme for Classes I-III, have been accorded a higher status than formerly;

ii) the importance of a well-taught and meaningful physical education programme is recognised for youngsters, especially the need to teach basic motor skills and habits at an early age;

iii) there are sufficient specialist teachers for Classes IV-X for the authorities to feel able to begin to assign specialists to primary classes.

The latter point, especially, signifies a healthier situation for physical culture lessons for all classes than ever before.

Throughout its history, the physical education system in Soviet schools has suffered from a shortage of specialist teachers. To compensate, fully detailed programmes were published which explained exactly what material should be taught and how it should be introduced. The recent programme which is discussed in this chapter is much shorter and offers guidance rather than instructions to teachers.

However, education authorities and schools remain fully aware of their responsibilities for the organisation and implementation of physical culture lessons since these are listed in a set of regulations which is sent to all
schools and these appear to be effectively employed.

Physical culture lessons provide the opportunity to instruct children in the skills they are said to require to participate in all activities of the physical education programme, most of which are organised by non-specialists, often in only a supervisory capacity. It is, therefore, considered to be imperative that the lesson material is taught correctly and that teachers endeavour to ensure that children perform skills and exercises properly since this may not be done elsewhere in the physical education programme.

Soviet researchers have concluded that even the best-conducted twice-weekly physical culture lessons offer children insufficient daily physical activity and exercise, and so they have decided that exercise should not be the aim of the lessons, but that they are to fulfil a solely instructive role. This did not, however, preclude a great deal of activity and frequent changes of material which pupils seemed to enjoy in the observed lessons. This was particularly evident of lessons seen in 1985, and contrasts with many lessons in English and Welsh schools in which a single activity, for example soccer, gymnastics, dance or badminton might be taught in a single lesson. Nonetheless, in Soviet schools there is a 'theme' to each lesson - it may be, for example, gymnastics or athletics, but only elements of these should be taught, along with drill, general exercises, relay races, games and now, some aerobics. 'Options' lessons such as are seen in English and Welsh schools, where older pupils select their activity from a list offered by their teacher, do not occur in Soviet schools, instead pupils are told exactly what they are to do in each lesson. Additionally, Soviet physical culture lessons do not include material which
encourages or allows pupils to use their imagination and to interpret concepts and ideas with their own movements as lessons in many Western school systems aim to do, especially modern educational dance and educational gymnastics.

Individual parts of lessons are said to serve different purposes and observed lessons all followed the officially recommended format, beginning with drill. The drill exercise is designed with the following ideas in mind:

i) to set a disciplined tone for the remainder of the lesson;

ii) to encourage and teach correct posture;

iii) to give a progressive, elementary military training in preparation for conscription for boys and the possible enlistment of girls in the event of war or military tension;

iv) to accustom youngsters to accept authority without question.

Although different teachers imposed different standards of drill, some very strict and others less so, in all observed lessons and teacher training sessions the style and pattern was similar - from kindergarten to teacher training institution. Drill was probably first included in physical culture lessons by teachers/instructors who were trained in military service, and the activity was retained since it became a useful aid to discipline for inexperienced teachers. It seems unlikely that drill will be removed from schools in the foreseeable future although, as in the past marching in line has been employed to move pupils around sports areas in lessons, music now frequently accompanies the movement and this creates a less formal and more relaxed atmosphere.

Another recent innovation is that exercises may now
be conducted to music and, like marching to music, may be interpreted as an attempt to make activities more enjoyable, encouraging children to do them more often, even in their own free time. Sets of exercises are taught and used in physical culture and health measure work and aim to facilitate children's healthy development. The exercises in observed lessons have always been performed by pupils standing in lines.

Elements of sports, gymnastics, dance and athletics are taught in the lessons and it is in these that the pupils are examined for the educational standards and GTO awards. From discussions with the programme's planners and with Soviet researchers, it is clear that the activities are not taught simply with the aim of teaching the activity. That is, teachers are not required to produce first-class athletes or sportsmen in their lessons, but rather to ensure that pupils perform the 'closed' skills competently. It is in physical education activities outside the lessons that pupils are to use and develop the skills and these need not necessarily be the sports taught in the lessons. For example, tennis, field hockey, badminton and rugby union are not taught in lesson time, but may be undertaken by children during extracurricular sessions in some schools or out-of-school in sports clubs or sports schools. The programme's planners explained that the USSR requires fit and healthy workers in its labourforce, not basketball players or gymnasts.

To improve pupils' stamina the running distances included in lessons have been lengthened, and this may also account for the general increase in activity in lessons.
This should improve pupils' heart and lung functions and help maintain their health as they become older, especially if they continue to exercise regularly.

The physical culture programme offers a varied list of activities, with only a limited number of lessons for each per year, and it is inevitable that high levels of competence will be achieved by relatively few pupils. However, all should experience a wide range of activities with a reasonable balance between the different types of exercise and using different parts of the body.

The educational standards enable both teachers and pupils to gauge a recommended level of performance for each age group. It is considered normal that all healthy, well-taught pupils should be able to attain the highest level, a '5' mark, and observations of class registers and records have confirmed that most achieve at least a '4'. Because set standards are given for the assessment of their pupils, teachers have to mark objectively and this should ensure consistency in the recording of performance over the country. However, teachers' abilities and motivation varies and this inevitably affects pupils' performances. These differences were apparent in lessons viewed.

It is preferred that specialists undertake the teaching in physical culture lessons to ensure the correct execution of exercises and also because they are better qualified to gauge loadings for exercises and identify defects in pupils.

Confirmation that the needs of the individual are catered for is shown in the grouping of pupils which occurs for lessons. Discussions with teachers and lecturers
indicated that this is taken seriously in many schools and student teachers are taught its methods. Although groups were clearly marked in class registers they were not usually apparent in lessons. Special medical groups are well organised in some Republics and are able to offer remedial help to most of the children who need it, but government figures show that other Republics are not as diligent in offering this. It seems, from discussions with teachers, that in schools where special medical groups are set up, around 5 per cent of children are given remedial treatment and exercise. This shows the government's concern for its children's health, its desire for a future healthy adult population and also its understanding that not all children can contend with or benefit from the main physical culture programme. It is government policy that special medical groups be provided for all who need them yet Turkmenistan, for example, in 1983 made provision for only 10 per cent of pupils who needed them. This Republic and others were publicly chastised by the USSR Deputy Minister of Education for this, but his ministry is thus seen not to have total control of all that happens in its schools and much is left to Republican ministries to decide their own policy.

Additional evidence suggests that the USSR Ministry of Education is not able (or willing) to fully control all schools since facilities for lessons vary considerably amongst the Soviet Republics. Generally, those in the western, that is European areas, seem to enjoy better facilities however, to compensate for this, some of the warmer areas of the south and east of the USSR can conduct much of their work outdoors, especially in rural areas. In the past, it has been said that rural areas generally lacked the conditions for the
successful implementation of physical culture lessons but, working on a self-help principle and because they often have adequate land for sports fields, many rural schools now have facilities which are superior to those of their city counterparts which may be old and cramped with no sports fields. Probably the best-equipped schools are those in outer city areas which are built along with new housing complexes and these schools are usually allocated space and money for sports facilities.

Although the greatest number of the best qualified and most successful teachers are still to be found in the major cities, well-qualified, newly-trained graduates are assigned to the more remote and, as a consequence, less popular areas and this has helped to level the former imbalance. It should, however, be acknowledged that the best teachers are specially requested by schools and may never be assigned to remote areas. Despite assigning teachers to jobs, the country continues to require more specialist physical culture teachers, especially for primary classes.

Children with health problems, which the authorities consider renders them unsuitable for ordinary schools, are encouraged to attend special schools. An example is the boarding school in Brest for children with scoliosis of the spine whose intensive and relatively long-term treatment is said to prevent the worsening of a potentially disabling condition if it can be detected in early childhood. It was clear that this reason is given to parents to persuade them to allow their children to attend the school for most of their childhood and adolescence with only brief periods at home since, it is claimed, that the treatment must be
continuous throughout the growing years of a child's life. The compensation for children for missing their family life is one which they will probably never fully appreciate, but the pupils seen in the school appeared well-adjusted, healthy and happy. Their adapted lessons of physical culture appeared exciting and fairly strenuous whilst seeming to answer all the officially required criteria of lessons in ordinary schools with minor adjustments in material to prevent strains on their spines and consequent hindrances to their treatment programmes. The care given to each child was impressive as was the serious attitude with which each undertook his/her curative lessons of physical education. The older pupils seemed physically well-prepared to join the work-force in adulthood, fully justifying the money the state has spent on them.

Lessons of physical culture, therefore, play a most important role in school physical education programmes and the government obviously feels that their role is so important that is cannot allow even Republican ministries of education to compile their own programmes although, for maximum effect, they are permitted to modify the centrally-planned programme. The USSR Ministry of Education is answering the government's call to prepare young people for work and physical culture lessons form an integral part of this by teaching the skills required to physically prepare workers to be able to apply their skills in any professions.

Planners continue to face many problems since not all schools have all the conditions they require to fully implement physical culture lessons but gradually these are decreasing, particularly as the schools answer the demands for reforms in
education and can, as a consequence, call upon higher offices to assist them if they require help. There still remain shortages of finance for facilities and equipment. Each Republic allocates an amount for this but in some areas the deficiencies are so great that insufficient money is available to rectify them.
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CHAPTER V

ADDITIONAL PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES IN GENERAL SCHOOLS

As well as the compulsory twice-weekly physical culture lessons in all general schools, which form the basis of schoolchildren's physical education, other physical activities are organised for pupils during the school day. The 1983 'Regulations on Physical Education for Pupils in General Schools' place them in two categories:

i) physical culture and health measures during the school day ('gymnastics before lessons', physical culture breaks in ordinary lessons, games and physical exercises in breaks, daily physical culture work in prolonged-day schools and monthly days of health and sport);

ii) extracurricular mass sports work which schools are obliged to organise (work in physical culture clubs, general physical training groups, GTO groups and sports sections, sports competitions and hiking trips).  

For some time the Soviet authorities have been urging organisations concerned with schoolchildren to promote interest in mass sport and physical education. In particular, the Resolution of September 1981 'On Further Improving Mass Physical Culture and Sport' has proved to be a strong motivating force for education authorities, the Komsomol and Young Pioneer organisations and trade union groups more actively to involve young people in physical education. Since the above Resolution was made, attention seems to have turned to efforts to involve all youngsters in extracurricular physical
activities and not only the talented. The 1983 physical education programme for schools now aims to provide every pupil with daily physical activity and uses the twice-weekly physical culture lessons to equip them with the knowledge and skills to take part in the above two categories of physical activities in schools.

Whilst the specialist teacher is responsible for conducting physical culture lessons, additional physical activities are organised in each school in the main by the physical culture collective (club) which is supervised and guided by the specialist teacher. The head of the school is directly responsible for the activities of the physical culture collective which is organised on the basis of pupil management, but with adult guidance and influence, particularly from the Komsomol, Pioneer and trade union organisations.

As we explained earlier, the activities undertaken in the physical culture and health measures and compulsory forms of extracurricular mass sports work in schools are intended to provide pupils with much of the daily physical exercise which growing children require for healthy and correct development. It also accustoms them to regular exercise which the authorities hope they will be able to continue independently once they leave school.

Since the country has insufficient specialist teachers at this time to conduct physical culture lessons properly in all schools, much of the burden of organising and staffing health measures and extracurricular sports work has had to be undertaken by teachers of other subjects. They receive guidance from the specialist physical culture teacher and
also training when they attend compulsory inservice improvement courses every five years or when a new programme is introduced. There are also conferences and seminars to which teachers are invited, both locally and nationwide. When the researcher spoke to V.P. Bogoslovsky in April 1985, he had recently attended an All-Union conference in Tashkent to which the country's leading teachers were invited to express their views on the current physical education programme, and the ways in which the recent educational reforms were affecting their teaching. The conference was also attended by F.E. Shtykalno, the USSR Deputy Minister of Education, G.B. Meikson and some of his staff who compile the physical education programme and Republican ministers of education.

Each of the activities is described below and discussed along with observations made during visits to Soviet schools.

I Physical Culture and Health Measures during the School Day

1) Gymnastics before lessons (gimnastika do zanyatiy) are sets of physical exercises which are undertaken by pupils of Classes I-X at the start of each school day before lessons commence. They are considered to be an important component of the overall programme of physical culture and health work among pupils, and supplement morning hygienic gymnastics which each child is supposed to undertake at home as part of physical culture homework.

The aims of 'gymnastics before lessons' were stated in an article approved in 1984 by the Department of Physical Education of the USSR Ministry of Education:

a) to encourage an organised start to the school day;
b) to help children to develop the habit of taking regular physical exercise and to perform it correctly;

c) to promote the accomplishment of a series of health-giving tasks to which the exercises are related: the activation of exchange processes in the body, strengthening the muscular system, improving the general state of health and mood while increasing pupils' capacity for work during lessons. 4

Each teacher of physical culture is responsible for the overall leadership and organisation of the exercises which he/she teaches to the children during their physical culture lessons. From each of the older classes (IV-X) he/she often trains several of the most able pupils to be physical culture 'activists' and they demonstrate and lead the exercises for their own classes. The children in the junior classes (I-III) may be helped by an instructor from among the older pupils or by their own class teacher who, in any case, is responsible for the organisation and discipline of the class with which they will be taking the first lesson. In School 112 in Moscow, the researcher attended 'gymnastics before lessons' with Class I at 8.20am in their classroom. A boy from their own class stood at the front and led the exercises which were directed with music by a male physical culture teacher over the tannoy system. The class teacher stood by and watched, but she explained that she usually takes part in the exercises. 5

The exercises remain the same for one month at a time.

The USSR Ministry of Education's Department of Physical
Education recommends that, whenever possible, the exercises should be conducted out-of-doors, but that during bad weather they may be taken in ventilated corridors or in halls but not in classrooms. 6 Examples of the sort of bad weather conditions which would cause the exercises to be moved indoors include 'an outdoor temperature of less than 10 degrees Celsius, rain, snow, strong wind or during a thaw'. 7 When the outside area has a covering of snow or some puddles, pupils can be asked to clear the ground before the exercises take place. 8 Each of the schools visited in 1985 by the researcher claim to conduct 'gymnastics before lessons', but there seem to be problems during the cold winter months because a lack of suitable space indoors means that the exercises are usually undertaken in classrooms at pupils' desks. Even in good weather, some schools have only limited outdoor space for exercises, for example, School No.112 in Moscow and School No.20 in Brest. This may account for the physical culture teacher at the latter school telling the researcher that her pupils are 'not too enthusiastic' about 'gymnastics before lessons'. 9

Pupils do not change into sportswear for 'gymnastics before lessons' but "boys should remove their jackets and girls take off their aprons". 10 Kachashkin recommends that boys in the primary classes undo their jacket collars and take off their belts for the exercises. 11 In any event, the clothing ought not to unduly impede movement.

Classes may either be grouped together - I-III, IV-VI, VII-VIII and IX-X or taken separately, depending on the space and areas available. Exercises may be chosen to suit ranges of age groups where necessary.
Leaders of the exercises should face their groups which may be standing in rows or columns. A variation could be a circle with the leader in the middle. All pupils should be sufficiently distant from one another so that they do not interfere with their neighbours' movements. Once the class has learnt the exercises it may be necessary for the teacher or leader to give only basic commands and indicate the tempo. Many schools, for example No. 112 in Moscow, have their own audio system and can relay music and commands for the exercises. When classes have been working outside, an orderly entry into the school is encouraged. To increase the pupils' motivation to work hard to perform high quality exercises, some schools have initiated weekly competitions to determine those classes whose pupils most correctly carry out the exercises and are the most disciplined. A certain amount of pressure is doubtless brought to bear upon lazy children by their classmates to improve their performance for the sake of the whole class - an example of the use of the 'collective' philosophy to encourage a high rate of participation by all. Results may be displayed for all to see and to act as a motivating force.

The exercises are designed to meet the aims of the activity and must therefore be planned to:

a) comprehensively influence the muscular system and gently activate cardiac activity;
b) not tire or over-excite the pupils;
c) have a beneficial influence on posture;
d) consist of exercises which are familiar to the children or are easily understood at the first demonstration;
e) stimulate the emotions;
f) be appropriate for the place where they are to be performed. 12

Usually the exercises are devised by the school's physical culture specialists who determine the loadings and teach them to the children during lesson times. Recommendations appear regularly in the monthly journal Fizicheskaya kul'tura v shkole and teachers' manuals.

In order to fulfil the requirement that the activity should generally exercise the whole muscular system, exercises are included for the shoulder muscles by using movements of the head and arms, the trunk where the body leans forwards, backwards and to the sides and the lower part of the body in squatting, lunging, hopping and jumping. Repeated actions involving large muscle groups and weight transference aim to stimulate an increased heart-rate. Some of the exercises, particularly those for older children, show a need for good co-ordination, and this is built up gradually through the younger classes with movements of increasing complexity.

Each series of exercises is repeated daily for several weeks (four in School No. 112 in Moscow) and then changed when a new series is learned. *

In the pre-war years, 'gymnastics before lessons' was done in most of the country's schools in attempts to improve children's health, but factors such as the introduction of

* Sets of exercises for 'gymnastics before lessons' for Classes I-X are given in Appendix I. They have been recommended to teachers by the Department of Physical Education of the USSR Ministry of Education and appeared in 1984 in Fizicheskaya kul'tura v shkole.
the two-shift system in schools and shortages of time and space caused it to be stopped in all but schools in rural areas. It appears in the 1983 physical education programme and schools were told to provide it from 1 September 1984. From 1 September 1985, schools are to be required by law to do it.

The researcher was told that of Brest's 24 general schools two or three do not implement 'gymnastics before lessons'. This is mainly because they are in rural areas and consider that they have sufficient space to offer worthwhile 'extended breaks' instead. *13 V.P. Bogoslovsky wrote in August 1984 that 'gymnastics before lessons' were being done in 94.9 per cent of the country's schools. In Azerbaidzhan the figure was 69.1 per cent and in Tadzhikistan 75.7 per cent.14

ii) Physical culture minutes during ordinary lessons

Physical culture minutes (fizkul'turnye minuty) are physical exercises which are conducted during ordinary lessons of any subject with Classes I-X. They are carried out when the teacher taking the lesson feels that the pupils are beginning to show signs of fatigue, loss of concentration or restlessness.

It seems that most Soviet schools include physical culture minutes during the school day and, of the schools visited by the researcher in 1985, all said that they implement this activity. In School No.20 in Brest, physical culture teacher R.N. Rumentseva commented that they were

* See later in this chapter for details on 'extended breaks'.
'compulsory for the juniors but the seniors often forget'. In fact, it is the responsibility of the teacher to ensure that the physical culture minutes take place, and it appears that subject teachers may be forgetting, but junior class teachers normally spend most of the lesson time with their own classes and are more likely to remember. As the teacher in Brest commented, physical culture minutes are now compulsory for junior classes (I-III) in all schools and from 1 September 1985 they will be compulsory for all classes.

It is claimed that research and practice in the country's 'foremost schools' have shown physical culture minutes to:

a) be a beneficial influence in restoring mental capacity for work;
b) prevent the accumulation of tiredness;
c) raise the children's emotional levels;
d) remove static stress;
e) give early warning of any deformities;
f) improve pupils' general health;
g) increase the productivity of the lessons.

Since the exercises are of only a short duration (some two or three minutes) they are invariably conducted in the room where the lesson is taking place and pupils sit or stand at their desks to perform the exercises. In this way they are very similar to 'gymnastics before lessons' when they are conducted in classrooms. The Department of Physical Education at the USSR Ministry of Education recommends that windows be opened to allow fresh air to circulate in the classroom.
As for 'gymnastics before lessons' the specialist teacher of physical culture devises the exercises, following advice from the USSR Ministry of Education in books for teachers and in *Fizicheskaya kul'tura v shkole.*

In the junior classes I-III the class teacher normally leads the exercises and for Classes IV-X, either the teacher or a pupil 'activist' leads the activity. The pupils are supposed to loosen their belts and undo their collars prior to commencing the exercises.

The leader (teacher or pupil) faces the class at the front of the room and explains and demonstrates the exercises which the class follows. Once the activity is finished, the pupils return to their seats and the lesson continues with the pupils (and occasionally the teacher) suitably refreshed.

Because of space restrictions the exercises cannot include particularly expansive or active movements. Generally, the activities include turning, bending, stretching, leaning, squatting, half-squatting and walking on the spot. Each series consists of around 3-4 exercises repeated 4-6 times, and should use the large muscle groups which are mostly inactive whilst the pupil sits at a desk. The Department of Physical Education recommends that physical culture minutes take place daily in the primary and middle classes. Kachashkin recommends that Classes I-II do them 3-4 times each day and that in Class III they should be done

*See Appendix J for details of recommended sets of exercises.*
2-3 times daily. 18

iii) Active breaks

In most schools children are encouraged to take an active part in the long break of 30 minutes or so between lessons three and four. It is described as 'igry i fizicheskie uprazhneniya na peremenakh' (games and physical exercises in the break) and they serve the purpose of 'active rest' - a form of recreation which is intended to refresh the children after three lessons of relative inactivity. * It is believed that the most effective activities are those requiring only a little or average energy expenditure in order not to over-excite the children in the limited time available, thus lowering their work capacity for the remaining lessons. 19 The 1983 'Regulations on the Physical Education of Pupils in General Schools' require that there be 'games and physical exercises during breaks' in the school programme 20 and in 1984, V.P. Bogoslovsky wrote that in 1983, 84.8 per cent of the country's general schools were implementing active breaks. He quoted the following figures for selected Republics:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Republic</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Latvia</td>
<td>99.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lithuania</td>
<td>99.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>97.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ukraine</td>
<td>97.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belorussia</td>
<td>92.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kirgizia</td>
<td>64.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkmenia</td>
<td>58.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tadzhikistan</td>
<td>36.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The importance of 'active rest' was first shown by the Russian physiologist I. Sechenev (1829-1905). See Chapter II.
He also said of the Republics with lower percentages:

"Undoubtedly, if they are to implement the demands of the Reforms, the offices of national education and school leaders in those Republics must rapidly change their attitudes towards the organisation of active breaks". 22

Whilst he acknowledges that there should be a certain amount of organisation of the activities, V.P. Bogoslovsky feels that this should not be excessive and he writes that, in some schools, active breaks seem like lessons. He also explained:

"Active breaks with their different activities improve the vitality of the organism, restore the capacity for work in the forthcoming lessons and provide pupils with active rest and the means to strengthen their health" 23

and he quotes a teacher in a school in Estonia:

"I think that the breaks for the pupils should be a rest and be away from the teachers". 24

The researcher observed an active break at School No.2 in Brest where teachers organised games activities for the junior classes on a hard outdoor surface. They were playing ball games and doing relay races. The girls of Classes IV-X all gathered outdoors and did aerobics led by V.T. Fedorova, teacher of physical culture. The girls wore their outdoor clothes and V.T. Fedorova explained that this was because they were learning new sets of exercises and would normally be more active and not require coats. 25 Music was relayed
through a loudspeaker and V.T. Fedorova stood at the main
doorway to the school at the top of a short flight of steps
where she could be seen by all the girls. Other women
teachers stood at the back of the pupils to maintain
discipline but none joined in the activity. The boys from
Classes IV-X were playing soccer and basketball outdoors.
There did not seem to be any male teachers organising the
games and the boys had not changed into sportswear for the
activity. In this school each class had two pupil 'activists',
one boy and one girl, and they helped organise the long-break
activities. If the weather was especially cold or wet
then all the pupils did games and exercises in the corridors.

At School No. 20 in Brest there were daily active breaks
for all pupils except the duty class. They had only a small
outside area and so the boys usually went out into the
yard and did exercises and the girls went into the gymnasium
for aerobics. The male and female teachers of physical
culture led the activities. Details of active breaks for
juniors at the school were given to the researcher and
follow:

The Organisation and Implementation of an Active Break in
School No. 20, Brest, for Classes I-III

Place: school yard
Clothing: everyday clothes

1st Part (3-5 minutes)

Line up in classes in the place where the preceding lesson
took place. March to the yard, chanting to music or clapping.
2nd Part (13-15 minutes)

General development exercises in circles (3-4 exercises: bending, squatting, swinging the arms).
Dances "Detko - en'ka", "Kazachok", "Tantsuite c nami" (Dance with us).
Active games for all children:
"Quickly to a place", "The sea is rough" and so on.

3rd Part (2-3 minutes)

Exercises whilst walking and exercises on the spot.
The organisation of entry back into school.

Responsibility: I.A. Ivanovskaya.
The teachers of Classes I-III.
Volunteer instructor.

School No.9 in Brest operated a two-shift system - the first shift had its active break after lesson three and the second shift (2.00pm - 7.30pm) had it after the second lesson - possibly because it becomes dark and cold by mid-to-late afternoon in the winter months. They had active breaks every day except Saturday when a school assembly took place after the second lesson. 27

Rural schools tend to have more outdoor space than those in city and urban areas and are better able to offer outdoor activities to their pupils. Where indoor space has to be used, then corridors, classrooms and gymnasia are utilised, but problems inevitably arise in older city schools because all the pupils are supposed to be exercising at the same time. Clearly a high degree of ingenuity, discipline
and organisation are needed in these cases. The activities used in active breaks seem to be relatively simple to organise. Young children usually enjoy relay races and team games and their class teachers are accustomed to arranging such activities with their pupils and the children feel at ease with their class teachers. Left to their own amusement, many girls would probably stay in a warm place and chat together - it therefore seems sensible to arrange mass aerobics, an activity which many of them enjoy and which offers all-round exercise in a reasonably dignified manner. Many boys play team games with obvious enjoyment and probably do not require quite the same degree of control as the girls. Participation in active breaks is compulsory for all healthy children and there seems to be no choice of activities. Teachers, too, seem to be obliged to take part in an organising capacity and for some, particularly the older staff, this no doubt causes annoyance at having to stand out in the cold for some 30 minutes daily. When questioned about the attitude of her staff towards all the extra physical education activities they are now obliged to organise, the Head of School No.2 in Brest, S.I. Romanovich, explained:

"They recognise that physical education work is of great help in mastering other subjects and that it helps children to be more disciplined, organised and healthy to do other subjects. They realise that movement is life and they all have a common aim - to maintain the health of the children". 28

V.P. Bogoslovsky, Head of the Physical Education Department
at the USSR Ministry of Education in Moscow, acknowledged:

"Many teachers help out with the extra physical education work and are interested in ensuring their pupils' good health". 29

G. B. Meikson of the Research Institute of Physiology of Children in Moscow was probably more honest when he admitted:

"There has been some resentment among other subject teachers and it will take some time to resolve this, particularly since their own subjects have not been given such attention". 30

iv) The sports hour in prolonged-day schools

Prolonged-day schools offer their facilities and staff to children who are unable, for a variety of reasons, to go home once their normal school hours are over until early evening. Usually this is because both parents are at work and do not want their child at home alone. In two-shift schools, those who attend the second shift may first come into school in the morning for prolonged-day activities. In 1983, 13 million Soviet children attended prolonged-day schools and by 1985, the figure had risen to 14 million. More places are planned for the future and there are now prolonged-day groups in around 50 per cent of all Soviet schools. 31 They offer pupils the opportunity to do their homework, have reading sessions, go on trips to the cinema or theatre and, in the case of academically weak pupils, have extra lessons.

Although prolonged-day schools have been functioning
in the USSR since the late 1950s, the concept of a daily hour of physical activity in addition to the twice-weekly physical culture lessons is a relatively recent innovation. It was first recommended in January 1979 by the USSR Ministry of Education and the Committee on Physical Culture and Sport attached to the USSR Council of Ministers in an Order entitled 'On Additional Measures for Developing Mass Physical Culture and Sport Among Schoolchildren'. It levelled criticism at schools for their failure to comply with instructions issued by the USSR Ministry of Education in a Resolution in September 1977 'On the Organisation of Physical Culture - Health Measures in the Regime of the School Day' in which it was claimed that opportunities for conducting physical culture - health measures in proper amounts in prolonged-day schools were not being exploited. It also maintained that the active break had been reduced to a minimum to facilitate increases in the time allocated for homework and to the organisation of different indoor activities.

The Order of January 1979:

"In a sense legalized the daily period of sport and physical culture in prolonged-day schools which was already being experimented with in some schools in Belorussia, the Ukraine and the RSFSR". 

As a direct result, the September 1981 Resolution 'On Raising the Level of Mass Sport and Physical Culture' made the sports hour compulsory for all prolonged-day schools.

Using the results gained from early experimental research work in a few schools, the Physical Education
Department of the USSR Ministry of Education and the Research Institute of Physiology of Children of the USSR Academy of Pedagogical Sciences compiled "Methodological Recommendations for the Organisation of Physical Education in Prolonged-Day Schools and Groups", full details of which are given below. Soviet researchers have concluded that a period of one hour daily planned and structured physical activity, preferably conducted outdoors, should stimulate pupils' central nervous systems and increase their capacity for work and this is the basis upon which the 'Recommendations' have been made. 34 Although referred to as a 'sports hour', the activities which are undertaken are varied.

The specific aims of the sports hour are said to be to:

1) reduce mental tension in the pupils;
2) counteract the development of excessive fatigue;
3) ensure effective rest;
4) increase pupils' work capacity;
5) strengthen their health;
6) perfect pupils' physical development and motor preparedness. 35

and also, "to assist in training children to take the GTO tests". 36 The sports hour is not necessarily of 60 minutes duration but may be anything from 30 minutes to 120 minutes long. One of the main criteria for selecting the time is the physical preparedness of the group. Lecturer in

* This is based upon Pavlov's studies of the relationship between the central nervous system and physical activity. See Chapter II.
physical education M.M. Nepravsky explained to the researcher:

"The better prepared the children are the less they need. If they are not well-prepared then they will require 90 minutes or more, but less if they have already had a physical culture lesson that day. They also require more before and after weekends to allow for the probable lack of exercise on Sundays". 37 *

We should recall here that Soviet researchers have concluded that growing children require at least two hours of physical activity daily to maintain healthy development.

Tables 28 and 29 show examples of timetables for prolonged-day schools. Where pupils have their educational lessons in the morning, their sports hour is placed immediately after lessons and before lunch. When a shift system is operated and pupils have afternoon lessons, the sports hour is timetabled at 8.30am, at the start of the prolonged-day period, which is in the morning. An additional outdoor period has been included for most groups.

The responsibility for the organisation of the sports hour rests with the head teacher of each school. He/she should decide when and where activities take place and arrange for supervision. The activities need not be led by a teacher of physical culture but, where possible, they should be planned by him/her. In some schools, assistance

* Soviet children attend school on Saturdays and on Sundays if a public holiday has caused them to miss a school day earlier in the week, for example May Day.
TABLE 28

EXAMPLE OF A TIMETABLE FOR A PROLONGED-DAY GROUP WITH LESSONS IN THE FIRST SHIFT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CLASSES</th>
<th>I-III</th>
<th>IV</th>
<th>V-VI</th>
<th>VII</th>
<th>VIII</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TIMES</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(active games and sporting activities)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sleep for children 7-9 years and for pupils of ill-health</td>
<td>14.00-15.00</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afternoon snack</td>
<td>15.45-16.00</td>
<td>15.30-15.45</td>
<td>15.45-16.00</td>
<td>15.45-16.00</td>
<td>15.45-16.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Homework</td>
<td>16.00-17.30</td>
<td>15.45-17.45</td>
<td>16.00-18.00</td>
<td>16.00-18.30</td>
<td>16.00-18.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Freetime, work in circles, pursuits according to interests</td>
<td>17.30-18.30</td>
<td>17.45-18.45</td>
<td>18.00-19.00</td>
<td>18.30-19.30</td>
<td>18.30-19.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leave for home</td>
<td>18.30</td>
<td>18.45</td>
<td>19.00</td>
<td>19.30</td>
<td>19.30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Where there are 6 lessons the sports period may be conducted in the period of time assigned for the outdoor period. This recommendation also concerns those cases where the physical culture lesson comes last in the daily timetable.

### TABLE 29

**EXAMPLE OF A TIMETABLE FOR A PROLONGED-DAY GROUP WHOSE PUPILS HAVE THEIR LESSONS IN THE SECOND SHIFT**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TIMETABLE OF ACTIVITIES</th>
<th>II-III</th>
<th>V-VII</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sport period outdoors (active games and sporting activities)</td>
<td>8.30-9.30</td>
<td>8.30-9.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Homework</td>
<td>9.30-10.15</td>
<td>9.30-10.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breakfast</td>
<td>10.15-10.35</td>
<td>10.15-10.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Homework</td>
<td>10.35-11.35</td>
<td>10.35-12.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free-time, work in circles, voluntary useful work</td>
<td>11.15-12.45</td>
<td>12.15-13.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lunch</td>
<td>12.45-13.15</td>
<td>13.30-14.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active rest outdoors (active games, sporting amusements)</td>
<td>13.15-14.00</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: Pursuits for pupils of the IV classes in the Second Shift are not desirable.*

is given by people from outside the school. For example, in School No.65 in Voronezh, both the physical culture teacher and the coach from the local DYSSH (children's and young people's sports schools) assist in planning and supervising the sessions. 38

Teachers from other disciplines are paid overtime to supervise and lead prolonged-day activities and assistance may be given in the sports hour by pupil 'activists' or other volunteers by arrangement with the school's physical culture collective (club), of which details are given below. Usually the adults who lead the activities are known as 'vospitateli' - 'upbringers' or 'child rearers' - to differentiate their role from 'uchiteli' - teachers or educators.

When planning the sessions, certain factors must be considered. The children are grouped by age and older classes by sex too. Because prolonged-day groups do not necessarily involve all the children from each class, it is often possible to put groups together - Classes I-III, IV-VI and VII-VIII. This reduces the number of staff required and also the pressure on facilities. The time of year and resultant weather conditions should also be considered, but in all events they should be "varied, interesting and easily understood". 39

If children with health problems are in the groups, the school medical staff are consulted so that a programme may be devised for those individuals with activities and work-loads appropriate to their conditions. Where children are not considered to be fit enough to participate in any of the activities, they are still to be involved by being
given duties judging and controlling races and recording points.

The choice of activities is not as rigidly specified by the education authorities for the sports hour as for the twice-weekly physical culture lessons. V.V. Bakhareva, who is responsible for the prolonged-day programme in her school, Secondary School No.65 in Voronezh, writes that in the winter the children engage in figure skating, sledging, skiing trips and ice hockey games. They also participate in a variety of paramilitary and active games in the woods. Additionally, two or three times weekly, they attend the skiing section which is managed by A.V. Rakitsky, a coach of Sports School No.12. In the spring, preference is given to folk games such as lapta* and hikes are organised into the forests where various games are played. She comments that these games are relatively simple and well-known to the children and that all that the teacher should direct is their start, observe that the rules are adhered to and be the judge where required. 40

Describing the activities of the sports hour to the researcher, M.M. Nepravsky explained:

"It should be recreative, curative and done every day. The difference between the sports hour and physical culture lessons is that in the lesson there is teaching and in the sports hour there is not. No new material is given and it should be based on already learned material". 41

* Lapta is a Russian folk game similar to rounders or baseball.
Here we can see clearly the purpose of physical culture lessons in teaching the necessary skills and knowledge for the children to participate in all aspects of physical culture and health measures in schools. Because no new material is taught, a specialist teacher is not always required to lead the activities. If specialists were required for every session then activities would be cut back owing to the country's shortage of qualified physical culture teachers. The sports hour is intended to provide healthy, enjoyable exercise and forms a large part of the daily requirement for growing children.

It is recommended that the activities be selected and planned to stimulate creativity, independence, initiative and activity in the children and that they take the following form:

a) slow evenly-paced running interspersed with walking, directional changes and travelling over obstacles such as canes;
b) general exercises such as bending and stretching;
c) active games - no more than two or three each session.

Classes I-III

Between the ages of 7-10 children usually feel a need for plenty of activity. Movements ought not to be too protracted or monotonous and should be interspersed with periods of rest and changed frequently to avoid boredom and fatigue. The following activities have been recommended for this age group:

a) exercises with large or small balls: throwing, catching and bouncing the ball on the ground and against a wall,
throwing to one another in a circle, in pairs or in a line;
b) walking making different movements of the arms, changing
the size and direction of the steps (short, long, wide
and together) and the tempo (accelerating and de-
celerating);
c) alternating running and walking, changing speeds;
d) jumping on the spot (on one or two feet) with a skipping
rope, a standing broad jump, with a run up and a high
jump over a rope;
e) throwing small balls, for example snowballs, at a target
from a distance;
f) competitions: for example 25-30 metre races, high and
long jumps and the distance a ball is thrown;
g) active games - two or three each session;
h) GTO training as required: running, jumping, throwing,
skiing. 43

Classes IV-VI

Between the ages of 10 and 12 years children generally
begin to widen their sporting interests. Like many other
countries, the Soviet Union offers activities to boys in
which they may display their strength, courage and dexterity
such as ice hockey, soccer, wrestling and unarmed combat
(sambo). Girls, on the other hand, are generally given
activities which develop expressive, gentle and graceful
movements, such as modern rhythmic gymnastics and figure
skating since these are considered to be more 'feminine'
types of pursuits. Some sports are offered to both sexes:
table tennis, volleyball, basketball, swimming, handball and

* See Fizicheskaya kul'tura v shkole, 12 (1983), pp48-52,
and 4 (1984), pp22-25, for examples of these games.
badminton. V.P. Bogoslovsky et. al. recommend that, whatever children's sporting interests, they should all undertake general physical training such as short distance running, high and long jumping, throwing small balls at targets and at a distance and exercises with balls, skipping ropes, hoops and canes. They also recommend that there should be a competitive element to the activities and that, whenever possible, they be held outdoors. From Class VI activities for girls and boys are usually organised separately.

**Classes VII-VIII**

For teenagers between the ages of 13-15 years it is recommended that sports hour activities be selected to develop "independence, creativity, initiative, a sense of collectivism and comradeship and to show ability and knowledge". Clearly, they are to offer a social training as well as recreational opportunities. This shows us just how seriously the Soviet authorities regard every opportunity to educate children in a communist spirit, even when they are exercising and playing games.

Many of the games and relay races may be similar to those for the younger groups and there may be training for athletics, skating, sporting or modern rhythmic gymnastics and for GTO tests. There may also be competitions against groups from other schools.

For all age groups it has been suggested that, instead of the above activities, the children may occasionally be taken on skiing or hiking trips, perhaps to do some orienteering at the same time. The following maximum distances
are suggested for ski trips:

- Classes I-III: 2.5km.
- IV-VI: 3 - 3.5km.
- VII-VIII: 4 - 5km. 46

Books and articles in *Fizicheskaya kul'tura v shkole* give advice to specialist teachers and sports hour organisers about recommended activities. In this way, the USSR Ministry of Education and the compilers of the physical education programme are doing all they can to ensure that maximum value is gained from the sports hour all over the country. It also helps to ensure that the children derive maximum enjoyment from the time and it should dissuade some teachers from using the period as an opportunity to give further lessons of physical culture and instead use skills already taught in lessons.

Naturally, the effectiveness of the sports hour is dependent upon the enthusiasm with which it is administered in each school. It is now a compulsory element in prolonged-day schools and it is the responsibility of each headteacher to ensure its place on the timetable. However, not every teacher is enthusiastic about physical exercise and, despite the obvious value of the sports hour to the children, both intrinsically and extrinsically, the commitment of some upbringers to their task may not be total. M.M. Nepravsky of the Brest Pedagogical Institute explained that:

"Middle-aged upbringers are often a problem when they are allocated supervision of a sports hour. In these cases they often ask a senior pupil, an 'activist', to help out, and in some schools staff from a local sports school may come in to assist". 47
That the USSR Ministry of Education has been prepared to ask and expect so many of its teachers to organise physical activities on a regular basis indicates several points:

a) it is confident that they can do the job adequately;

b) it feels that the value to the children is sufficiently great to justify the effort training non-specialists;

c) it is confident that the teachers will do the work without too many complaints;

d) that, with the assistance of pupil activists, the less competent and less willing teachers can perform their tasks adequately.

Teachers of primary classes I-III have all received some initial training in physical education and many are already accustomed to organising their classes in physical activities but others, such as teachers of mathematics or history, have seldom received any initial training, nor are they accustomed to managing classes of children moving around outdoors and in competitive situations. Courses have been arranged to help them to cope with these situations and are included on each teacher's inservice improvement course.

The researcher observed several sports hour sessions in September 1981 at School No. 228 in Leningrad:

a) Class I

Since it was raining outside, the session was held in the gymnasium. There were two classes - in total, approximately 70 seven-year-olds. A female specialist physical culture teacher led the group into the room and for two or three minutes they went through simple walking drills, single file around the room in different directions. There next
followed a series of exercises in lines with the children performing bending, stretching and jumping exercises upon the teacher's commands. Next there was a game 'Four Frosts' with four children designated 'catchers' to chase and 'freeze' the others. The game involved some chorus chanting and the teacher helped the children with this. Although the session had begun in a formal, quiet manner the children soon became lively, noisy and excited in the game. The sports hour lasted only 30 minutes and was reduced owing to pressure on indoor facilities, that is because there was only one gymnasium in the school.

b) Form V

There were 16 boys and 8 girls aged between 11 and 12 years. Theirs was to be a light training session to prepare for their participation the next day in the first round of an inter-school competition for their age group which is described below. From each prolonged-day school the best 25 fifth formers were to be selected to compete. The session commenced with formation and marching in line around the gymnasium followed by running with arm swinging exercises. Practice for the competition included pull-ups on metal frames attached to wall-bars for the boys and press-ups leaning on benches for the girls. The male specialist teacher of physical culture corrected faulty technique where necessary for two reasons:

a) to enable a greater number of exercises to be performed;
b) incorrect technique could invalidate pull-ups or push-ups and lead to disqualification in the contest.

Some of the children were very competent at the exercises
whilst others were clearly struggling to perform only a few. These are tests which are included in the GTO awards, and one would expect all pupils to have been taught and given practice in the exercises from an early age. After the practice, a game of handball was started and four mixed teams were selected by the teacher. Two played whilst two watched then changed in. The children's co-ordination, throwing technique and awareness of the concepts of the game appeared good.

These sessions took place at a time when the sports hour was only just being introduced into schools and, because of the wet weather on the day the school was visited, the programme was disrupted. Only two specialist teachers were observed teaching, but it was explained that normally smaller groups are led by other teachers outdoors.

The sessions followed quite closely the pattern set out in the official recommendation given above and, despite large numbers of children in Class I, on the whole they involved disciplined drill, mobility exercises, competitive situations and sport, thus meeting the aims of the sports hour.

In May 1985, the researcher visited School No.9 in Brest which operates a two-shift system and prolonged-day groups and there observed two sports hour sessions, both with pupils who come to prolonged-day groups in the morning and then attend academic lessons in the afternoon. 49

The first was a group of 10 Class IV pupils who were attending a twice-weekly extra swimming lesson. These children were considered to be weak swimmers, unable to
achieve a 50 metre swim which the school believed all its IVth formers should be capable of, since they had been taught swimming since Class I. A swimming coach and a specialist physical culture teacher, both male, were teaching. Later the same morning, the researcher observed an 'acrobatics' session with a IIInd form group of 12 girls and 7 boys. The teacher was a young male physical culture specialist. The session was conducted in a small gymnasium with murals of animals painted on the walls. A thick gymnastic mat covered most of the floor space. The class had already had four academic lessons that morning, a mid-morning snack after the second lesson and an active break after the third. We arrived part-way through the session and saw the children learning to do forward rolls and balances on either foot. They were being taught these skills and this, of course, does not strictly comply with the recommendations that activities be undertaken but with no new teaching. There then followed a game where the children were to follow and imitate the teacher's arm actions. When one of them was wrong he/she had to step on to the mat. To end the session, the children walked around the edge of the mat, on their toes, on their heels, crouching and marching swinging their arms. In good weather, the session would be taken outdoors, but on the day of the visit it was cold and wet outside.

From the examples of sports hour activities observed it seems that teachers are using the time to supplement the teaching of physical culture lessons. Admittedly, all the sessions observed were taken by specialists and their training and customary role as educators probably means that they 'teach' and are unaccustomed to merely giving instructions. As long as they do not overdo the instruction, there is
probably no harm and much good is done. It is unlikely that non-specialists will be able to teach much or be willing to in some cases and, as we commented earlier, their abilities to organise groups of children excitedly running about must be questionable.

**Interschool Competitions**

Competitions are held between schools in a variety of sports and quite frequently between prolonged-day groups. Such a competition was observed in September 1981 between Class V of School No.228 in Leningrad and three other class fives. 50

The competition was held at a neighbouring school: press-ups and pull-ups in the gymnasium, middle distance running on an oval cinder running track, ball throwing on the grass within the track, long jump along a grass runway into a sand-pit near the track and 30 metre sprints on a muddy path between nearby apartment blocks. The path was used by the public between races and this caused frequent delays. By British standards the facilities were poor with loose muddy ground surfaces and, as none of the children wore spiked shoes, they could not sprint effectively.

The children's performances varied - some were excellent and some poor. A few girls could not complete the 300 metre run and some boys did not finish their 500 metres run. Each child had to take part in every event and for some their technique was poor; however, most were clearly enjoying themselves.

The validity of the scoring was questionable owing to
the inexperience of many of the judges (including senior pupils) but as we note later in this Chapter, measures have now been taken to improve the training of volunteer judges nationwide. An overall score was calculated for each school and the winning class qualified for the next round against winners from other areas of the city.

All events except the girls' push-ups were taken from the then current GTO Stage I 'Bold and Skilful'. In the GTO programme girls should climb a rope and push-ups are not included until Stage II (for 14-15 year olds). No reason was given for this, but the inconsistency would suggest it was a local, not nationwide, competition.

v) **Days of Health and Sport**

In September 1981, the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union and the USSR Council of Ministers, in their Decree "On Further Raising the Level of Mass Physical Culture and Sport", instructed every secondary school to hold monthly 'Days of Health and Sport'. The instruction was repeated in September 1983 in the "Regulations on the Physical Education of Pupils in General Schools". Schools discussed arrangements for their own 'Days of Health and Sport' and many held their first in September 1982.

Apparently, however, not everyone was happy that they would be taking place. In Estonia teachers of academic subjects complained that pupils would miss whole days of lessons, but they were told that the 'Days of Health and Sport' were justified as:
"An effective influence in strengthening pupils' health and also the teachers' health, raising their capacity for work and thus compensating them for missing some lessons in academic subjects". 52

It was reported that in Estonia, for the first ever 'Day of Health and Sport', 82 schools organised sports activities. Of these, most schools claimed over 90 per cent pupil participation and some - 100 per cent. 53 Each Republican ministry of education advises its own schools on how to organise their 'Days of Health and Sport'.

In the school year 1984/85, the Brest region of Belorussia held monthly 'Days of Health, Sport and Tourism' * for its pupils. 54 These were held in out-of-lesson time on Saturdays and Sundays during the second week of each month. Pupils from all classes were involved, organised in age groups: junior, middle and senior. The Education Offices recommended that for opening ceremonies veterans of war and labour should be invited and that the Republican flag be flown and its anthem played. They also suggested that assistance for the organisation should be sought from parents, the schools' patrons and physical culture 'activists'. The activities included a number of competitions involving elements of GTO awards and the results are recorded for each participant for his/her badge. The programme for the year was:

**September**

Physical culture festival to celebrate the start of the

* The term 'tourism' embraces activities such as camping, hiking and orienteering and approximates to what we might call 'outdoor recreation'.
children's sports competition 'Hopeful Starts' *

a) solemn opening parade;
b) running races in connection with the programme of educational standards and GTO awards;
c) awards ceremony.

**October**

Physical culture festival devoted to the GTO awards

a) solemn opening parade;
b) competitions for 'Hopeful Starts': running, jumping, throwing a ball at a target, long jump and grenade throwing;
c) sports and active games, relay races, tug-of-war and so on;
d) solemn closing ceremony and awarding of medals.

**November**

"The Land of Sport Summons You"

a) opening ceremony with parade of judges and teams;
b) competitions between teams of different classes;
c) awards ceremony.

**December**

Gymnastics competition of 'Hopeful Starts' involving sets of exercises of morning hygienic gymnastics, acrobatic exercises, balance and GTO test - pull-ups and push-ups.

Awards ceremony.

**January**

Festival: 'Belorussian Snowflake'. Winter sports competitions,

* See later in this chapter for details of 'Hopeful Starts'. 
GTO awards and games on skis, skates and sledges.

February
Parades and songs to celebrate Army and Navy Day. Shooting competitions for GTO awards.

March
Week of competitions and active games.
An opening parade, competitions in basketball, volleyball, handball, pioneerball, * relay races and team games.

April
'Day of Tourism' with competitions for GTO awards including learning how to prepare for and undertake hiking trips.
Lessons on first aid and orienteering. Cross-country running - 'Green Paths'.

May
Week of the All-Union GTO.
Opening ceremony, finals of 'Hopeful Starts' and the summer combined-events GTO awards and awards ceremony.

June/July
Schools' swimming competitions (held after completing swimming teaching). Opening parade. Swimming using different styles to cover distances of 12, 25, 50 and 100 metres.
Awards ceremony.
(During these months hiking trips may be undertaken to complete the work for the badges "Young Tourist" and "Tourist of the USSR").

* A simplified form of volleyball for young children.
It would seem, from the details of 'Days of Health, Sport and Tourism' in Brest, that teachers' resistance to taking children from lesson times has been strong enough for the authorities to insist that these activities must be undertaken in out-of-lesson time. Nonetheless, class teachers are expected to attend and assist in the organisation. In the programme, reference is made to whole weeks of sports and athletics competitions, but in these cases the events involve different year groups each day so each child probably has just one day of active participation. For example, the researcher visited the 'Hopeful Starts' competitions on 25 April 1985 and saw pupils of Class VII competing. On the following day pupils of Class V were to take part.

Since many 'Days of Health, Sport and Tourism' activities involve taking GTO awards, this must relieve school teachers of much of the work in testing children which they would otherwise have to do in lesson time.

For the purpose of 'talent spotting', coaches from local sports schools are given an ideal opportunity to watch the city's children performing competitively and can, therefore, select likely candidates for their classes.

II Voluntary Extracurricular Activities which Schools are Required to Provide

1) Collective of physical culture

A collective of physical culture (kollektiv fizicheskoi kul'tury), in effect a sports club, is set up in each secondary school for the purpose of developing mass physical
culture, sport and outdoor pursuits among the nation's schoolchildren. The physical culture collective is involved exclusively in extracurricular activity (vneklassnaya rabota) and has as its primary aim:

"Assisting the school and the family in educating pupils in the spirit of communist morality, strengthening their health and all-round physical development and preparing them for work and defence of the Motherland". 55

The philosophy upon which collectives of physical culture are based is said to have its roots in Marxist-Leninist theory which supports "the unity of public and state organisations in the education of the younger generation through the collective". 56 Lenin considered collectivism to be a major principle of communist education and this view was shared and developed by early leading Soviet educators, such as A.S. Makarenko and Lenin's wife, N.K. Krupskaya. The Komsomol and Pioneer organisations, which were created for the purpose of disseminating communist beliefs among young people, work jointly in the council of the collective of physical culture of each school with the pupils to form self-governing bodies which organise practical, extracurricular physical culture work.

The Komsomol, at its Eighth Congress in May 1928, adopted the Resolution "On the Work of the Komsomol Among Children". In this, it recognised the need to create a pedagogical basis for mass communist work among children. With collectivism as a major factor in its work, the Komsomol and Young Pioneer organisations began to be involved in extracurricular physical activities for schoolchildren,
both within and outside the confines of the school.

More recently, in the Resolution of the Central Committee of the CPSU of 23 March 1972 "On 50 Years of the V.I. Lenin, All-Union Young Pioneer Organisation" the USSR Ministry of Education and the Central Committee of the Komsomol jointly offered to devise and implement measures to improve physical culture work amongst schoolchildren. The USSR Sports Committee was also enlisted to assist with this work which took place in schools outside normal lesson times.

In December 1977, the Central Committee of the CPSU and the USSR Council of Ministers proposed the Resolution "On Further Improving the Instruction and Education of Pupils in General Schools and Preparing them for Work". In it, they acknowledged the advisability of teaching physical culture to Classes I-III and the need for properly-trained staff to implement this. In an attempt to ease the problem of shortages of qualified physical culture teachers for younger classes and to further promote physical activity for older children the "Regulations for Collectives of Physical Culture in General Schools" were introduced by the USSR Ministry of Education and the Committee for Physical Culture and Sport attached to the USSR Council of Ministers. The Regulations were approved by the USSR Ministry of Education on 5 November 1979 and were reproduced at the end of 1984 in Fizicheskaya kul'tura v shkole a possible indication that collectives of physical culture were not operating

* For more detail on the history of Komsomol involvement in physical education with schoolchildren see Chapters I and II.
effectively in all cases and that it was considered necessary to remind those responsible for their organisation of the regulations and of their duties and aims.

All pupils in Classes I-X of general schools and boarding schools are eligible for membership of their school's physical culture collective. In Classes I-III the group is known as the physical culture circle (Kruzhok) and it may receive assistance from staff of the older classes. Membership for all pupils is voluntary but is strongly encouraged by the sub-committee responsible for propaganda.

Each collective of physical culture is said to organise its work on the basis of:

"Pupil self-government, with broad creative initiatives and independent actions of pupils in close co-operation with the Komsomol and Young Pioneer organisations". 58

Its leaders are elected by, and accountable to, the membership. 59

The general responsibility for organisation of the physical culture collective in each school is borne by the head teacher who must be informed of and approve each aspect of the collective's activities. Methodological guidance is given by the specialist physical culture teacher for Classes IV-X and by one of the class teachers for Classes I-III. The immediate leadership of each physical culture collective

is carried out by its elected council.

According to the Regulations, the council should consist of between 7-11 people, but may be larger and is elected at a general meeting of the collective's members. The council is composed mainly of 'activist' pupils of the school, representatives from the Komsomol committee, the council of Young Pioneer detachments and members of the school pupils' committee. The council is required to present an annual report to the general membership.

Each year the council elects from its number a chairperson, deputy chairperson and a secretary. It also forms committees to deal with the training of physical culture 'activists', mass physical culture among the pupils, the organisation of buildings and equipment, propaganda, sports arrangements, book-keeping and finance (see below for details of committees and Figure 5 for the organisational structure of the school physical culture collective). 'Activists' from among the general membership are appointed to serve on these committees as required by the council. Ad hoc committees may be set up at the discretion of the council in accordance with its terms of reference.

The council may recommend members of the collective who have shown a particular aptitude for sport for entry into a sports school (DYSSh) or for special commendation by the school's head teacher.

An example follows of the annual programme of draft decisions made in 1981 by the council of the physical culture collective in School No.854 in the Zelenograd district of Moscow.
FIGURE 5

THE ORGANISATION OF PHYSICAL CULTURE COLLECTIVES

- District (city/town) education department
- District (city/town) sports committee
- Patron and sporting organisation
- School teachers' council
- School pupils' committee
- General meeting of the class representatives
- School Komsomol committee
- Council of the Pioneer detachment of the school

Council of the physical culture collective (7-11 people)

- Office of physical education
- Museum of sport

Committees of the council of the physical culture collective

- Training of physical culture "activists"
- Propaganda
- Mass physical culture
- Sporting arrangements
- Management (according to the guidance of the office of the section and organiser of tourism)
- Finance

September: 1) Confirm the plan of work of the collective for the first half and also for the whole year.
2) Confirm the regulations of the schoolchildren’s sports games 'Hopeful Starts'.
3) Begin the festival and competition for the best staging of physical culture – health and mass sports work in the classes.

October: (Jointly with the Komsomol Committee)
1) The vanguard role of the Komsomol member in developing mass physical culture and children's sport.
2) The Komsomol group's sponsorship of classes.
3) The system of collective tasks, taking into account the instructions and self-accounting of Komsomol members.

November: 1) Agitation and propaganda of physical culture and sport in the school.
2) Tests for the introduction of the GTO programme among the pupils.

December: 1) Assess the results of the GTO programme for the first half year.
2) Confirm the plan of work for the physical culture collective for the second half of the year.

January: 1) Measures for developing mass physical culture in school.
2) Sponsorship assistance for the junior classes (I-III).
3) The Young Pioneer detachment – the centre of mass physical culture work.
February: School physical culture and sport and training pupils for service in the Soviet armed forces.

March: 1) The role of voluntary instructors and judges in mass physical culture work.
   2) Preparation for the annual conference of class representatives.

April: Promote the roles of physical culture and sport in the pupils' ideological-moral education.

May: 1) Analyse the work of the physical culture collective for the educational year.
   2) Plan the work for the new educational year.

The council at School No.854 also prints its own newspaper which is displayed on the wall for all pupils to read. In it, the council advertises and reports the activities of its physical culture collective. Additionally, the council in this school is said to:

"Organise physical culture activities during school vacations and in the evening, strengthen the material sporting base of the school (jointly with the management committee), listen to the advice of recreation officers and give awards to 'activists'." 62

According to the 'Regulations' the following committees should be formed with specified duties: 63

Training physical culture activists - "Nadezhda" (Hope) - assisting the physical culture teacher to train instructors, judges and organisers from among the pupils to organise and
conduct physical culture, health and sports measures in schools and in pupils' places of residence.

Mass physical culture - "Zdorovye" (Health) - assisting the school's head, class teachers and physical culture teachers in organising physical culture and health measures in the school day, but not in physical culture lessons. This may include gymnastics before school lessons, physical culture 'minutes' during lessons, active breaks, the daily sports hour with prolonged-day groups, assisting with the teaching of activists and organising monthly 'Days of Health and Sport'. They should also show initiative in creating elementary training groups for pupils likely to enter children's and young people's sports schools (DYSSh). Additionally, they should arrange, in conjunction with the school's staff, the training for and taking of tests for the GTO programme.

Management - "Trud" (Labour) - assisting the school's leaders with the organisation, use and care of sports buildings, equipment and safety measures.

Propaganda - "Plamya" (Flame) - should advertise the work of the physical culture collective: training groups, sports, 'tourism' and GTO work. It does this through the media of posters, the school radio, sports festivals, demonstrations by sportsmen, creating 'corners of physical culture' with illustrations and other material on sport, by organising discussions on, for example, the significance of physical culture and the rules of hygiene and nutrition. The committee may invite teachers, pupils' parents and medical personnel to these discussions as well as the pupils. A major aim of this committee is to encourage pupils to join
the physical culture collective, "including those who lag behind somewhat in physical development from their contemporaries". 64

Sporting arrangements - "Start" (Start) - arranges competitions within the school and helps the physical culture teacher to conduct sessions with the sports sections. With the teacher the committee recruits and selects teams to represent a class and/or the school in regional or city competitions such as 'Hopeful Starts'. Committee members keep records, register school records, register the pupils and organise work for the standards of the sports' classifications.

Finance and book-keeping - is responsible for a certain amount of accounting. All the activities are provided free of charge to pupils. The State may give additional finance to schools to assist with their extracurricular sports work, for example, in September 1981, prolonged-day school No.228 in Leningrad, visited by the researcher, was receiving an additional 30 rubles each day to train pupils in speed skating. 65

Theoretically, school physical culture collectives ought to offer all the activities described above. In practice, they may not have the staff, the facilities or the inclination of the head teacher or the physical culture teacher to offer them all.

We noted earlier in this chapter that the country continues to experience a shortage of qualified specialist physical culture teachers, yet the authorities impose further strains on teachers by making the organisation of
extracurricular work compulsory in each school. When asked by the researcher how much this work relies upon the assistance of 'activists' V.P. Bogoslovsky, Head of the Physical Education Department at the USSR Ministry of Education replied:

"The programme requires their assistance - there are now about five million physical culture 'activists' working as instructors and judges in our schools. We also rely upon help from young teachers who are interested in sport and want to ensure their pupils' good health". 66

We see from the work of the committees of physical culture collectives that they can, if operated efficiently, play a major role in training 'activists' and in assisting specialist teachers to organise both physical culture and health measures and extracurricular work in their schools.

Physical culture teachers receive additional remuneration for extracurricular work which, for the purposes of payment, includes:

"Physical exercises before classes, active breaks, sports festivals and competitions, hiking trips, sports sections and clubs, preparation for pupils taking GTO awards and junior sports rankings and training judges and instructors from among the pupils". 67

The amount paid is awarded on the basis of each teacher's normal salary which, in turn, is based upon his/her qualifications and years of service as a teacher.
According to the regulations governing teachers' pay for extracurricular work in general schools and boarding schools with between 10 and 19 full classes (of around 30 children), extracurricular physical education work is paid to the teacher of physical culture at the rate of one quarter of his/her normal salary. Where there are 20-29 full classes, an additional 50 per cent extra pay is awarded and where there are more than 30 full classes, 100 per cent extra pay is given.

In schools where more than one physical culture teacher conducts extracurricular work, extra payment is given at the discretion of the head teacher depending upon the amount of work done.

Documentation should be kept of all extracurricular work so that checks may be made. This involves:

i) a plan of work of the council of the school physical culture collective;

ii) plans of work and timetables of sports sections and circles;

iii) a list of mass sports measures for the academic year with a note of whether or not they have been done or are in the process of being done;

iv) a register for the work of the collective of physical culture, sections, circles, general physical training groups and seminars on preparing physical culture 'activists';

v) a register of the work done in the school physical culture collective.

In addition to pupil physical culture 'activists' who
assist as coaches and judges, adults are also enlisted as volunteer coaches, judges and referees and include parents, local athletes and people from the voluntary sports societies which are patrons of the school.

The Young Pioneer Organisation has begun to contribute to the training of 'activists', teachers and volunteer workers for extracurricular physical education activities. The Physical Education Department of the Leningrad Palace for Young Pioneers, for example, is now training school physical culture 'activists', organises lectures for teachers of primary classes and produces material to help physical culture workers. Similar work is said to be undertaken at the Grodno, Moscow, Donetsk and a number of other palaces for Young Pioneers and school pupils.

If the standard of judging (mentioned above) observed by the researcher in 1981 at a competition between the Vth classes of four neighbouring schools in Leningrad was typical, then much work was required in training sports officials. The physical culture teacher of School No.228 found the style of the gymnastic exercises - pull-ups and push-ups - 'questionable', but the judges allowed it; stop-watch operators at the 60 metres sprint track (a muddy stretch of path between apartment blocks) were noticeably inaccurate; at the long jump pit no-jumps were frequently allowed, and for measurement a tape-measure was stretched out and the judge remained standing and recorded what could only have been a crude estimation of the length of each jump. Judges were provided by the host school and were mostly adults but included some senior pupils. Teachers from the visiting schools had not been asked to assist.
In addition to the activities just mentioned, physical culture collectives also help the organisation of the following:

**GTO Programme Groups**

Extracurricular work is undertaken to prepare pupils to pass the GTO tests. A teacher of physical culture at School No. 112 in Moscow told the researcher that, in her opinion, the GTO norms were high and that for many children the work done in lessons did not prepare them sufficiently, and out-of-lesson work also had to be done for them to attain the required standards. 72

**General Physical Training Groups**

Pupils may be allocated to groups of between 15 and 20 people: their age and stage of general physical preparedness is taken into account for this. The activities are varied and are planned for the educational year: in the autumn - team games, athletics and gymnastics; in winter - skiing training and team games; in spring - team games, gymnastics and athletics, is an example given in one educational manual. 73 Variations doubtlessly occur and are determined by factors such as facilities and climate. The same source explains that the work of the section is supplementary to that carried out in physical culture lessons:

"The educational programme is the basis of the work of the section of general physical training. At the sessions of the section, skills are perfected in doing exercises: in difficult locations, using different apparatus and with the introduction of new elements. Children also learn new games, combinations of free movements
and how to build shapes such as a pyramid using groups of people". 74

General physical training groups meet once or twice a week for up to 60 minutes. Teams are selected for competitions and extra sessions may be held for this purpose. Each group elects monitors and for its teams-captains. These members help the group's leader, remind pupils of the work and mark the attendance register. Displays may be given to school gatherings and Young Pioneer assemblies. An important task of general training groups is to involve those pupils who have not achieved their norms in physical culture lessons, and are considered to be in need of further opportunities to improve. Teachers cannot make weaker children attend these sessions, but try to convince them that they are for the good of their health.

Sports Sections

(For Classes I-III the equivalent of sports sections are known as 'sports circles').

The types of sports offered depend upon the availability of suitable facilities and equipment along with the presence of adequately qualified teaching personnel. Kachashkin offers the following suggestions for the sports he considers to be the most suitable for Classes I-IV (7-11 years):

Class I - swimming, tennis, table tennis and figure skating;

Class II - the above, plus gymnastics for girls of 8 years and boys of 9 years;

Class III - begin skiing sports and diving;

Class IV - badminton, modern rhythmic gymnastics (girls), skating sports, athletics, sailing and soccer. 75
He suggests that from Class V on, the sports become more specialised and should be chosen with care so as to offer the optimum opportunities for pupils to learn and develop their skills.

The number of sports sections offered varies from school to school. In Moscow, School No. 112 has around 50 and covers sports such as soccer, judo, handball, figure skating, swimming, modern rhythmic gymnastics and synchronised swimming. In addition to its complement of physical culture teachers, 12 sports coaches work in the school including five for swimming alone. All the coaches are attached to sports societies such as Dinamo in the case of the swimming and soccer coaches who spoke with the researcher. At this school, sports sections operate until 9.00pm most evenings and pupils from other schools also attend. We should recall here that School No. 112 is an 'experimental' school, and that the USSR Ministry of Education has arranged for a greater than normal amount of physical education to take place in this school to assess its effect on the pupils. The school's head teacher told the researcher that, except for a few pupils who leave to attend sports boarding schools, none of her pupils go out of school for their sport. She estimated that some 95 per cent of the 964 pupils undertake extracurricular physical activities in the school. Although the coaches' work is controlled mainly by their sports societies, the head teacher has overall responsibility for all that takes place in her school.

Two sports section sessions were observed at School No. 112 - one in soccer and the other in modern rhythmic
gymnastics. The soccer session involved 20 boys of Classes I-III and was conducted in a sports hall by a coach from Dinamo. A doctor from a local polyclinic was in attendance and at various stages in the session she called boys out and checked their pulse and breathing. She explained that she was studying the influence of sport on the organism and that all the boys are registered with her polyclinic, and all attend it for a full medical check-up three times a year.

The modern rhythmic gymnastics session involved 13 girls from Classes V and VI, including some from other schools. The general standard seemed high and a strict level of discipline was imposed, especially on one girl whom the coach accused of a poor performance due to the girl's absence from some previous sessions.

Whilst School No.112 represents possibly the best example of extracurricular physical education activities in any Soviet school, we should recognise that, for a variety of reasons, others cannot or will not make such good provision. At School No.2 in Brest, for example, pupils attend sports sections at the nearby chemicals plant because the school facilities are used all day for lessons as the school operates a two-shift system. Because the school is out of the city, parents are mostly unwilling to allow their children to attend sports schools which are in the city and would necessitate long periods of travel. Instead, coaches from Spartak and Ministry of Education-financed sports schools come to the children at their school.

At School No.9 in Brest, which is situated in the city,
there are sports sections for volleyball, soccer, basketball, gymnastics and swimming with about 20 children in each. M.I. Barinova explained that:

"On the whole we rely on sports schools for our children to do extracurricular sport since our facilities are in full use for lessons for each of the two shifts". 80

School No.20 in Brest also has two shifts and R.N. Rumentseva explained to the researcher that:

"We need more and better facilities. We can only accommodate 230 of our 1548 pupils in our own sports clubs and sports sections and we send 535 to sports school classes. This is due to our two-shift system". 81

Attendance at sports sections and sports clubs is voluntary and, officially, their aim is to offer pupils a diverse variety of activities in accordance with each school's ability to provide a choice of sports. Their aim is to enable as many children as possible to participate in regular physical activity. Nonetheless, since many of those taking the sessions seem to be coaches and not school-teachers, it does seem from the researcher's observations that high standards are worked towards and achieved, although probably not to quite the standard of most sports schools. It was also learned during visits to schools that sports sections are set up to prepare pupils for competitions such as 'Hopeful Starts'. The function of sports sections has recently altered, they are no longer expected to train top sports performers, their aim is now to offer mass sports
activity.

Elementary Training Groups of Children's and Young People's Sports Schools

These groups are a relatively recent innovation and are set up:

"For the purpose of rendering assistance to secondary schools in developing mass physical culture - they have been particularly successful in the RSFSR, Ukraine, Belorussia, Kazakhstan, Lithuania and Moldavia". 82

Sessions are held twice-weekly and may take place either in school or in a sports school depending upon the availability of facilities, and teaching is undertaken by coaches from a sports school. So far, only those sports schools which are run by the USSR Ministry of Education are participating in the scheme, but V.P. Bogoslovsky expressed the hope that, in the near future, those sports schools which are sports society financed will also operate groups. 83

Like all other extracurricular work in schools, head teachers have overall responsibility for the work done in elementary training groups. Children attend voluntarily and may join without a trial or recommendation as long as there is room in the group which has, on average, around 25 members. In April 1985, the researcher visited a Ministry of Education financed sports school in the Vasileostrovsk (Vasily Island) Region of Leningrad and observed an elementary training group which was playing pioneerball (an elementary form of volleyball). Their skill level was not particularly high, but they were only young children of
around 10 to 11 years of age and seemed to be enjoying the activity. One of the coaches from the sports school supervised the game.

The above sports school has elementary training groups at its facilities every day and the deputy head explained that, generally, they consist of those children who are not particularly good at sport. When asked how sports school staff feel about being compelled by the Ministry of Education to run these groups she commented:

"On the whole, these groups are a nuisance. The younger children are quite good and usually try hard but as they become older they want to go in for sport but often do not work hard enough - they have insufficient genuine motivation to become proper sportsmen and sportswomen". 84

Those views conflict with the aims of the elementary training groups which are to offer schoolchildren additional opportunities for physical activities and also those quoted by the sports school's head:

"To attract children to sport outside classes and to attract them to go in for sport to utilise their time well". 85

We might question the value of using coaches who wish only to train children to a high standard in teaching groups of less able and less motivated pupils who seek mainly to enjoy themselves in the sessions. This is the dilemma in which Soviet educators find themselves in the post-1980 change-over period.
The question of a conflict with the ethos of Ministry of Education sports schools is investigated in the next Chapter.

It was reported in 1984, that an experiment was conducted with some of the youngest pupils in School No.8 in the town of Krasnogorsk to determine the value of twice-weekly sessions of training on a voluntary basis. 86 This was at a time when the concept of elementary training groups was still in the experimental stages. Each session was of 45 minutes duration and involved the children spending 80 per cent of the time doing physical exercises, such as running on the spot, short sprints and skiing and 20 per cent of the time playing team games. It was claimed that, of the group undertaking the experimental training, 87 per cent passed their GTO standards compared with a 66 per cent pass rate among those who undertook only conventional GTO preparation work. From the experimental group, 90 per cent are said to have attained a mark of '5' or '4' in the subject "Physical Culture". We are not told whether the experimental group volunteered for the twice-weekly sessions or was selected, but if the members were volunteers then we must acknowledge that they were probably the most enthusiastic, able and motivated children and that their results would be likely to be better even without extra sessions.

The school's physical culture teacher and co-author of the report claimed that regular training sessions with young children using his type of programme of physical exercises and games in elementary training groups of sports schools, prolonged-day groups and general training groups could elicit positive results. 87

The above activities clearly require a great deal of
planning and supervision to be successful, and the value of an organisation such as a school physical culture collective to an already undermanned and, in some cases, under-qualified teaching profession must be great. The specialist teacher is assisted by the collective's council and the collective is run as a sports club.

In a book published in 1983 in the Soviet Union, it was explained that:

"The main form of extracurricular work is the training sessions at sports clubs. However, they alone cannot resolve the tasks of extracurricular work since they do not include all the pupils. Therefore, work in class and preparation for participation in school sports competitions acquires special importance. Competition programmes are drawn up as closely as possible to the material pupils study at physical culture lessons."

In response to government calls for increases and improvements in mass physical culture work among the population, nationwide competitions are organised within and between schools with the final rounds involving children from schools all over the USSR. It was claimed in 1979, that more than 150 All-Union tournaments were held each year with the participation of over 30 million schoolchildren.

The major tournaments and competitions involving children in extracurricular school-based sporting activities are described below. V.P. Bogoslovsky believes them to be important in the overall physical education process
"It would be a serious omission not to comment that extracurricular mass sports work would not be complete without the organisation of competitions held outside school. Children love competing and competitions stimulate them to work towards regular physical exercise and are effective forms of propaganda of physical culture and sport. They also help to strengthen their health and promote their physical development and physical preparedness".  

He adds, referring to physical culture lessons and extracurricular work:

"At the same time it is necessary to stress that participation in competitions must be preceded by suitable training by every pupil. Only when this takes place can they be of equal use to every participant".  

In this way, pupils are not being asked to perform activities which are unknown to them and, in theory, all should have an equal chance. In reality, as we have commented earlier, variations occur in schools' facilities and specialist teachers. Where teachers are not particularly motivated to work hard they may not devote extra time and effort to training their pupils. At School No.9 in Brest, physical culture teacher M.I. Barinova admitted:

"We could not have achieved first place in the city in 'Hopeful Starts' without our pupils attending sports schools since we are not able
to conduct much extracurricular work being a two-shift school". 92

This would seem to confirm that quite a considerable amount of extra work is needed in most schools if they are to do well in the major competitions.

'Hopeful Starts'

On 30 October 1975 a joint decision was taken by the Secretariat of the All-Union Central Trade Union Council, the Secretariat of the Central Committee of the Komsomol, the USSR Ministry of Education and the USSR Sports Committee to set up All-Union children's team games which were to be known as 'Hopeful Starts' (Starty Nadezhd). 93 * The games were to involve Classes IV-X in all schools and their aims according to the "Regulations for the All-Union Team Games 'Hopeful Starts' " were given as:

"A further improvement in physical culture and health work in secondary schools, of the mass involvement of children and teenagers in physical culture and sports work and in actively drawing Young Pioneers and schoolchildren towards training for and taking GTO awards". 94

They were also to become a component of the All-Union school-children's spartakiads. 95

There is a clear effort to identify 'Hopeful Starts' with the Olympic Games. Their slogan is:

"From GTO badges to Olympic medals, from mass

* 'Merry Starts' for Classes I-III - see later in this chapter.
participation to proficiency, from participation in 'Hopeful Starts' to sporting summits". 96

and their logo incorporates the five-ringed Olympic symbol with a running track and an open book (the latter is also a symbol representing the Young Pioneer organisation). As a further example of reinforcing the symbolism, at the finals there is an Olympic-style torch and flame. At the 1980 finals at the 'Artek', Young Pioneer camp in the Crimea, the torch was carried in the opening ceremony by 1972 Olympic decathlon champion Nikolai Avilov and he then passed it to a young girl athlete, Alla Mart'yanova. 97

The former was an example of the high standards to which the finalists should aspire and the latter represented all schoolchildren competing in sport. The ex-Olympic sprint champion Valery Borzov was also a guest at the 1980 finals.

The competition has apparently involved vast numbers of children and it was claimed that in 'Hopeful Starts - 83', more than 21 million Young Pioneers and schoolchildren in 500,000 classes and detachments participated in the preliminary rounds. In the finals at the 'Orlyonok' (Eaglet) Young Pioneer camp on the Black Sea coast there were said to have been 124 classes involving 2480 schoolchildren from 62 cities and towns, 33 villages and 29 settlements, representing every Soviet Republic. 98

Unlike many of the nationwide competitions and tournaments in which teams or individuals participate, 'Hopeful Starts' involves school classes which compete with parallel classes of other schools.

'Hopeful Starts' is conducted in five stages involving
certain classes with the winners qualifying for the next stage:

1st **In every school** - Classes II-X

2nd **City, town or rural region** - Classes IV, V, VI, VII, IX.
   (Classes VIII and X are omitted since they have state examinations)

3rd **Regional including large towns** - Classes IV, V, VI, VII, IX

4th **Republic** - Classes V and VII

5th **All-Union** - for Classes V and VII only.

Stages 1 to 4 are held annually and stage 5 once every two years.

The researcher attended competitions for 'Hopeful Starts' at the Dinamo Sports Stadium in 1985 in Brest. A whole week at the end of April was devoted to the second stage of the competition with a different age group competing each day. The organiser explained that, for stage two, each school must choose its best class from each of the eligible age groups, and from that class twenty-five pupils are selected - the best 10 girls and the best 10 boys plus 5 others whose results count only if one of the other 20 fails to score on any event.

Stage 3 is conducted 'on paper' since distances are great between competing schools and the travel is considered too expensive. The results of qualifying teams are collated and the best team goes on to the next stage.

From Stage 2 the winners are decided in the following way. Each team competes in every event and is placed for each as a team. Each team's placings are added together, for example, 1st in sprinting, 4th in long jump, 7th in
swimming, thus 1 plus 4 plus 7 and so on for every event. In this way the team with the lowest total after all the events is the winner.

All the events are based upon the school physical culture programme and upon the GTO awards which may be gained at the competitions. In Brest, the event was organised mainly by the local education authority assisted by the Committee of the Komsomol and the Sports Committee of Brest. Pupils judged the long jump and teachers recorded sprint and long distance times with stop-watches. The events appeared to be conducted efficiently.

Children participating in 'Hopeful Starts' must be certified fit to compete by their school doctor and be receiving regular lessons of physical culture.

The activities for Classes I-III are based upon the elementary GTO stage 'Prepared for the Start': for boys and girls this includes throwing a tennis ball at a target, climbing up a rope using arms and legs, swimming, and travelling over lines of obstacles. Table 30 shows the activities from which the events are chosen for Classes IV-X. In Brest they used sprints, long jump, small ball throwing, middle-distance running, swimming, push-ups (girls), pull-ups (boys) and air-rifle shooting.

The regulations governing the competition stipulate that classes which receive specialist training in any sport may not participate in the competitions at any stages, nor should classes be given any special training before

* See Chapter VI for details of 'sports classes'.
### TABLE 30

**ACTIVITIES FOR 'HOPEFUL STARTS' COMPETITIONS - CLASSES IV to X**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TYPES OF EXERCISES</th>
<th>CLASSES IV-VI</th>
<th>CLASSES VII-VIII</th>
<th>CLASSES IX-X</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BOYS</td>
<td>GIRLS</td>
<td>BOYS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Running 30m</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60m</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100m</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long jump</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High jump</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Throw a ball (150g)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Throw a grenade</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swim untimed 25m</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50m</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swim timed 50m</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100m</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross country run untimed 300m</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500m</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000m</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1500m</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross country run timed 300m</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500m</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000m</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Running on skis 1km</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2km</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3km</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5km</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pull ups</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Climbing a rope using legs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Press ups</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Firing an air rifle</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Firing a small bore rifle</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: 'Polozenie o Vsesoyuznykh detskikh sportivnikh igrakh "Starty nadesht"' Fizicheskaya kultura v shkole, 7 (1952), p.48.*
competing. Since a considerable amount of professional prestige must surely be accrued by a teacher whose pupils fare well in the competition, there are likely to be classes urged to attend extracurricular sessions which include the activities and any hopes of equality certainly disintegrate when, as mentioned earlier, a teacher can admit that pupils from her school won the city finals because so many train at a sports school.

Despite these weaknesses, as a means of encouraging all children to take part in competitive physical activities 'Hopeful Starts', which involves virtually all classes in all schools, must be considered reasonably successful. Even if they do not choose to do any other sporting activities besides their compulsory physical culture lessons, 'Hopeful Starts' does give children a small taste of competition. For some it may be a bitter taste but most children, particularly those in the younger age group, seem to enjoy competing with others.

'Hopeful Starts' provides coaches with an ideal opportunity for 'talent-spotting' in a situation when these young athletes are most likely to be striving to give their best performances. Additionally, the competition offers motivation to youngsters to work to improve their GTO standards. Obviously, only a very small percentage of the children who compete in the preliminary rounds are going to compete in the finals, but the attraction of a sports holiday at one of the country's most prestigious Young Pioneer camps is doubtless incentive enough to ensure that most young athletes try their best.
'Merry Starts'

The junior version of 'Hopeful Starts' is 'Merry Starts' ("Vesyolye starty") and involves Classes I-III in schools. Young Pioneer camps also hold 'Merry Starts' competitions for children of ages 7-15 years. 100

In schools the competitions are based on activities from the GTO programme for the relevant age group and additionally may include mobile games, relay races, volleyball (Class I), basketball (Class II) and throwing medicine balls weighing 1 kilogramme (Class III). 101 It has been suggested that to allow the greatest amount of participation (massovost) by the pupils, there should be 3-4 teams of 8-10 children from each class. Each child may then take his/her turn in the team to compete in several events. Pupil 'activists' from Classes V-VIII are used to help train the youngsters and also to judge and organise competitions. 102

The aim of 'Merry Starts', besides offering an opportunity for a large number of schoolchildren to compete with and against one another, is said to be "to prepare children to take the elementary stage of the GTO programme". 103

All-Round Combined Tournaments

Beginning with preliminary rounds against local teams, many young and adult athletes compete in all-round combined tournaments which are held for the various age groups of the GTO stages. For schoolchildren, these may be organised by their school GTO councils and physical culture teachers. The tournaments consist of three to five sports and are held in winter and summer. Athletes may be selected to represent
their Republics in the USSR championships for prizes which are awarded by the *Komsomol'skaya pravda* daily newspaper. The events undertaken by young athletes in the 1982 finals, for example, were sprinting, middle distance running, shooting, swimming and throwing for the GTO stages II and III for boys and girls. The motto of the tournaments is 'From a GTO Badge to an Olympic Medal'.

**Spartakiads - USSR School Games**

Spartakiads among schoolchildren were first held in 1934 in a small number of Soviet Republics. The first All-Union Spartakiad was held in 1954 with the participation of all 15 Republics plus the cities of Moscow and Leningrad. At the finals in Leningrad, the Ukraine took first place and in the following two years the city of Moscow was the winner.

The USSR Schoolchildren's Spartakiad is now considered "the most important sports event for young athletes in the USSR". At the 15th Schoolchildren's Spartakiad, held in 1978 in Tashkent, there were said to have been more than 7000 young athletes who were:

"At the same time the best of their generation and no more than the tip of the iceberg, since over 30 million young people had taken part in the preliminary heats - the competitors in Tashkent included only those who had been consistently victorious, initially in their school championships and then at the district, town and finally Republic level."
The competitions of the 15th Spartakiad were given an Olympic flavour "the symbolism was clearly directed to the future - to 1980" (the Moscow Olympics). The insignia for this Spartakiad was five rings over an open book to represent sport and study and the motto was "Olympians Among Us". Any exceptionally talented athletes detected in the finals would, we can assume, have been assigned to top-class coaches in their home areas and given extensive training for the next two years for possible participation in the Olympic Games.

In 1981, the 16th Schoolchildren's Spartakiad, whose finals were held in Lithuania, involved a reported 35 million participants in its preliminary rounds. There were 22 events - 21 Olympic sports and chess.

Schoolchildren's Spartakiads are now held every two years. The finals of the 17th were staged in 1984 in Uzbekistan and involved 28 different sports, including shooting, go-karting, chess and 25 Olympic sports. There are reported to have been 1045 international, national and Republican referees and judges at the finals.

The numbers of youngsters participating in the early rounds has risen dramatically since the first Spartakiad in 1954 when 7 million children are said to have competed in 7 different sports with 2600 finalists. In the preliminary rounds of the 17th Spartakiad there were a reported 37 million participants with 6969 finalists. Ten All-Union and around 200 Republican youth records were said to have been exceeded.

The improved quality of the finalists is shown by the
following list of sports titles and rankings held by the athletes in the 15th, 16th and 17th Spartakiads.

Table 31

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Merited Master of Sport</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master of Sport, International Class</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master of Sport</td>
<td>387</td>
<td>570</td>
<td>800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Candidate Master of Sport</td>
<td>1274</td>
<td>1840</td>
<td>2430</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sportsman 1st Rank</td>
<td>1606</td>
<td>2078</td>
<td>2512</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


At the 1984 finals, the following new titles were awarded: Master of Sport International Class - 5, Master of Sport - over 500, Candidate Master of Sport - 861 and, in addition, 10 new All-Union youth records are said to have been set.

Unlike 'Hopeful Starts' competitions in which whole classes are involved, the Spartakiads are concerned with individual schoolchildren from Classes VI-X, the best of whom represent their Republics in the finals. The initial rounds do, however, take place in schools and every child has the opportunity to compete, but it is unlikely that the casual sports participant will be involved in any but the
preliminary rounds. Indeed, of the competitors in the finals of the 15th Spartakiad, 48 per cent are said to have been receiving sports training at children's and young people's sports schools, and in the 16th Spartakiad finals in 1981 this figure rose to 60 per cent. Pupils at sports boarding schools are said to have constituted about one-third of the finalists in the 16th Spartakiad and to have won 80 per cent of the medals.

A competition of this scope and size clearly has aims and purposes in addition to the intrinsic value to each competitor. In 1981, F.E. Shtykalo, Deputy Minister of Education of the USSR wrote:

"By the time of the next USSR School Games in 1984 there will be more schools and more sports grounds, physical training will be even more widespread than it is today, there will be broader opportunities for spotting natural athletic ability and, most important, there will not be a single boy or girl in the country who is not on a friendly footing with sport".

Here he expresses the view, in accordance with the 1981 Resolution "On Further Increasing Mass Physical Culture and Sport", that sport for all should be improved and made more widely available. He also recognises the value of encouraging vast numbers of young people to participate in sport as a means of detecting talent. The Spartakiads give talented youngsters valuable experience in competition at a high level and offer them a good training ground for later,

* By 1983 there were 46 such schools - see Chapter VI.
possibly international-level events.

Father, Mother and I - a Sporting Family

A number of school-based activities and competitions are held which involve parents and children together. The most popular of these is "Papa, mama, ya - sportivnaya sem'ya" (Father, mother and I - a sporting family). Others include "Family cross-country running" and "The whole family at the start". In these activities, parents and their children (usually one child per set of parents) compete as a family against other families.

The active involvement of parents in school sports activities would seem to serve several purposes:

i) to encourage parents to take exercise for their own sakes;

ii) to offer additional motivation to children by competing for their family rather than for themselves;

iii) to encourage parents to take a greater interest in their children's health and physical education.

However, it has been suggested that competitions involving parents are not as popular as their organisers would hope and that:

"A number of difficulties need to be overcome including, perhaps chiefly, the inactivity and absence of regular physical culture work among parents". 120

A lecturer at the teacher training institute at Nikolaev, P.P. Satsyuk, wrote suggesting that teams of 10
boys and 10 girls plus six family groups should compete against other teams. In this way, only a relatively small number of parents is required. Competitions should take place on Sundays, he proposes, and be held in school sports halls. Activities should include games requiring precision in hitting targets, speed, strength and dexterity, gymnastics for the children, individual GTO events and exercises with weights for the adults. Some of the activities are for family groups only, for example, push-ups for mothers and daughters only, exercises with weights for fathers only and soccer penalty kicks for fathers and sons only. 121

At School No.20 in Brest, the teachers of physical culture prepared a sheet of instructions on the gymnastic exercises which two parents and one child would be asked to perform in the competitions. Using the information, which includes diagrams and details of scoring, families are able to practise at home. The exercises include balancing, lifting and assisted balance positions and are intended to be undertaken regularly to develop "strength, dexterity, flexibility and co-ordination". 122 One of the physical culture teachers at School No.112 in Moscow confirmed that at her school these competitions are held several times each year and that they are always on Sundays to avoid clashes with lessons and to enable parents to participate. 123

Sports Clubs and Competitions

Many schools enter teams for nationwide tournaments in which, it is claimed, many millions of children are involved in the preliminary rounds. Among the most popular are
Leather Ball' (soccer), 'Golden Puck' (ice hockey), 'Neptune' (swimming) and 'Olympic Snowflake' (ski racing). Most are sponsored jointly by the USSR Ministry of Education, the USSR Sports Committee and the Komsomol, and are governed by "Regulations for Competitions" set out by the Committee for Physical Culture and Sport attached to the USSR Council of Ministers. 124

Brief details follow about some of the clubs whose activities are organised within and by the Young Pioneer organisation but are held in schools, Young Pioneer palaces and houses, in housing complexes, in sports clubs and in Young Pioneer camps.

'Neptune' - a swimming club which was founded in the spring of 1969 at the time when the Soviet sports movement was beginning to promote its campaign to teach all children to swim. The organisers of 'Neptune' wanted to attract youngsters to swim in pools, reservoirs and rivers. They also wished to co-ordinate the efforts of teachers, coaches and doctors in teaching swimming in a properly planned manner. Additionally, they arranged for staff to be trained to run the newly-built swimming pools. The club has set a programme for teaching swimming to children in stages:

1st Stage - "Learn to Swim" (Class I - children under 8 years)
Be able to swim 25 metres without a time limit; know the basic water safety rules.

2nd Stage - "I Know How to Swim" (Class II - children under 9 years)
Swim 100 metres and know the rules of personal hygiene.

3rd Stage - "Young Swimmer" (Class III - children under 10 years)
Swim 100 metres and know about basic physiological
processes involved in swimming.

4th Stage - "Youth Judge" (Classes IV-VI, children under 13 years) 
Swim 25 metres in flippers and mask, 50 metres in clothes and be able to dive to a depth of 1.5 metres and pick up two objects; take the "sports judge" award.

5th Stage - "Youth Assistant Coach" (Classes VII-VIII, teenagers under 16 years) 
Take the 2nd youth ranking and pass the award of "swimming instructor".

6th Stage - "Youth Life-Guard" (Classes IX-X, teenagers under 18 years) 
Pass badges in lifesaving, rendering first-aid to a victim and towing a person for 20 metres.

The standards required in this programme are low when compared with swimming awards in Britain as organised by the Amateur Swimming Associations and the Royal Life Saving Society. However, it is a relatively new activity for many Soviet children, and their teachers and coaches. The emphasis which is placed on teaching children to judge, instruct and perform life-saving skills would seem to indicate a plan to train personnel to promote and run the sport in the form of teaching, recreation and competitions for school-age children.

'Leather Ball' - a soccer club formed in the summer of 1964 under the combined leadership of the All-Union Central Trade Union Council, the Komsomol, the USSR Ministry of Education, the USSR Sports Committee and the RSFSR Ministry of Municipal Economy. Millions of boys are said to take part annually in the preliminary rounds of the countrywide 'Leather Ball'
tournament which is open to school and neighbourhood teams. It has been claimed that more than 10 million boys competed in 1975\textsuperscript{126} but for 1980 the figure quoted was reduced to 3.5 million.\textsuperscript{127}

Volunteers are often recruited to help train the boys and to organise matches; these may be former soccer players, coaches, Komsomol workers, students of sport and physical education and parents. Girls are not encouraged to play soccer in the USSR as it is considered injurious to their health, however, as the sport develops for women in other countries, the Soviet authorities may permit girls and women to play the game and arrange matches for them.

'Golden Puck' - an ice-hockey club founded in 1964 and first advertised in the newspaper 'Pionerskaya pravda'.\textsuperscript{128} As with 'Leather Ball', a countrywide competition is organised beginning with preliminary rounds between local teams. There is often wide media coverage of the final matches in the press and on the radio and television. In 1984, there were claimed to be three million members in the 'Golden Puck' Club.\textsuperscript{129} Teams are organised by school Komsomol committees and by local housing offices.*

'Mesh Ball' - a club for field hockey formed on 14 December 1967. The first finals of its annual tournament were held on 9 February 1968 when teams played for a prize sponsored by the Moscow City Committee Komsomol and the newspaper Moskovsky komsomolets. It was due to the efforts of this newspaper that the club was formed, in Moscow initially, but it soon spread to other areas. Since field hockey is not included in the programme of school physical culture lessons

\* See Chapter VI for details of physical activities organised by local housing offices.
few children have opportunities to learn the sport except as
an extracurricular activity in school or at a sports school.
However, since the USSR enters field hockey teams in the
Olympic Games it must endeavour to promote the game among
its youngsters in order to be able to detect and train
particularly talented players.

Clubs have been organised in other sports in a manner
similar to those described above and a few are listed below
with the dates they were founded, where known:

'Silver Basket' (basketball)
'Swift Ball' (handball) - 1976
'Silver Shuttlecock' (badminton) - 1979
'Wonder Draughts' - 1978
'White Rooks' (chess)
'Good Shot' (small-bore shooting)
'Volleyball Orbit'
'Silver Skates' (speed skating)
'Queen of Sports' (athletics)

Schools may select one or more sport for which to
enter teams in the competitions organised by children's
sports clubs. Most of the arrangements are made by the
Komsomol committee in each school. In addition to school
teams, there are also some from sports clubs, local housing
teams, Young Pioneer palaces and Young Pioneer houses. It
does seem, however, that schools' involvement is quite
considerable.

The aim of the tournaments is said to be:
"To discover new talent - their mass scale provides
inexhaustible opportunities for talent seeking". 130
'Tourism' in Schools

The 1983 'Regulations on the Physical Education of Pupils in Secondary Schools' made 'tourist' trips an obligatory item in the extracurricular mass sports work of all secondary schools. They may be undertaken at various times but should be in out-of-lesson time: during the day, at weekends, during a 'Day of Health and Sport' or during vacations and may last for just a couple of hours or for several days or more.

'Tourist' trips may be led by a physical culture teacher or, in the case of Classes I-III, by the class teacher, but other teachers or volunteers from the Young Pioneer, Komsomol or other organisations can lead trips provided they are eighteen years of age or over. Regulations govern the appointment of instructors of 'tourism' in schools and they are required to undertake a training course of 90 hours duration comprising practical and theoretical work. They must also hold the badge "USSR Tourist".

Most of the work of 'tourism' in schools is undertaken under the auspices of the Young Pioneer organisation. Children may join clubs with names such as 'Vertikal' (Vertical) and 'Gorizont' (Horizontal). For children of Class IV and above, there is a programme which leads to the badge "Young Tourist".

Competitions are organised both within schools and against other schools and regions and, in 1982, the finals of the 4th All-Union 'Tourist' competition for Young Pioneers

* 'Tourism' is the Soviet term for 'outdoor pursuits' (it does not mean travel abroad!).
and schoolchildren were held in Azerbaidzhan. \textsuperscript{132} Walks and expeditions are often organized to sites of war memorials and children are encouraged to develop a sense of patriotism whilst at the same time developing their 'tourist' skills.

Besides walking, children are taught to read maps, recognise landmarks, read a compass, erect and use tents, undertake hill and mountain walks and study geography, natural and local history, biology and photography. The Soviet authorities possibly recognise that 'tourism' provides a cheap but healthy activity for schoolchildren, and can offer many opportunities to instil in youngsters a love of their country by going out exploring and visiting places they would otherwise not travel to. This is particularly true of children from the cities and is especially valuable to those who live in cramped housing conditions.

It has, apparently, been difficult for some teachers to encourage their pupils to undertake 'tourist' trips. In the introduction of a book on 'tourism' in schools, teachers are warned:

"You will not succeed in enticing everyone to 'tourism' all at once. You will find that you are in conflict with parents who will mistrust you and also with the stubbornness of individual children who are more accustomed to playing in their yards or spending many hours on end sitting in front of their televisions". \textsuperscript{133}

In the same book it is recognised that "'tourism' has great educational potential". \textsuperscript{134} Among the work which is included in the 'tourism' programme is hiking which "should be conducted systematically from the fourth to the tenth classes
with intricate itineraries". 135 It is recommended that hikes be undertaken by all classes in all schools and in Young Pioneer and school camps:

"Only then will 'tourism' really be an all-embracing communist education for the younger generation". 136

In order to encourage mass 'tourism' among schoolchildren, from 1979, free rail travel has been made available to organised parties of schoolchildren during the summer vacations from schools, sports schools and Young Pioneer groups. In addition, between 16 May and 30 September trips for schoolchildren over 10 years of age can be made by train at 50 per cent reductions. 137

The awards "Young Tourist" and "USSR Tourist" ensure a degree of unity in school 'tourism' programmes. The standards for these awards are as follows:

"Young Tourist" Badge - awarded to pupils of 10-14 years of age who have carried out four hikes, each with one night away camping in ordinary conditions and generally covering 48 kilometres. The decision to award the badge and certificate rests with the council of the Young Pioneer detachment.

"USSR Tourist" Badge - awarded to pupils of 14 years of age and over who have carried out, in the course of one or two years, five one to two day-trips. In total, these should comprise not less than 5 days and generally cover not less than 75 kilometres on foot or on skis, not less than 100 kilometres in a rowing boat or not less than 150 kilometres by bicycle. To undertake 'tourist' hikes in the summer, participants must camp out for not less than two nights. The
badge and certificate are registered by the young 'tourist' centres. 138

The major similarity between physical culture and health measures and extracurricular mass sports work is that schools are now required to make provision for both. The differences are that, for the former, pupil participation is compulsory and, for the latter, it is voluntary. The material required for physical culture and health measures is intended to be taught entirely in physical culture lessons, but it is generally supplemented during extracurricular mass sports work with teaching given by specialists which also draws on the lesson material learned by all pupils.

Physical culture and health measures are supervised almost entirely by non-specialists who receive extra remuneration only for work with prolonged-day groups. Teachers of physical culture may, however, earn up to twice their normal salaries through their work organising all the activities and undertaking some teaching duties on the physical education programme in addition to their normal lessons. This, no doubt, motivates the profession to provide the most comprehensive programme possible since regular records and reports must be submitted to school administrators.

The payment of extra money to physical culture teachers indicates the importance assigned to all the forms of school physical education work and that teachers can be paid up to double their normal salaries shows the amount of extra work that is considered necessary to organise the programme effectively. It also confirms that there are insufficient
qualified physical culture teachers, at this time, to do all the work since so many, in effect, do the work of two teachers.

In this chapter the investigation has been concerned entirely with those physical activities which take place in and under the auspices of schools and are additional to physical culture lessons. Through physical culture and health measures (gymnastics before lessons, physical culture 'minutes', active breaks, sports hours in prolonged-day schools and days of health and sport) the opportunity may be taken to give regular amounts of the daily physical exercise which the authorities claim children require for healthy growth and development. From September 1985, schools were obliged by law to provide these measures for all classes. Prior to this date, they were described as being 'compulsory' but there is well-documented evidence suggesting that many schools have simply been ignoring some of their obligations. In certain cases their reasons have been practical, mainly due to a lack of facilities, but in others, teachers and administrators have argued that it is unhygienic for children to exercise vigorously in the clothes that they will be wearing for the remainder of the day.

It is probable that the 1984 Education Reforms and the law obliging schools to implement fully the physical culture and health measures will ensure that many more schools meet their obligations although official figures are unlikely to confirm this for several years.

Since some schools are not providing all the activities for physical culture and health measures it must be concluded that, for the country as a whole, they are not
achieving their intended aims, namely to provide part of each child's daily exercise quota and to accustom him/her to undertake regular physical exercise. Government figures have shown that those Republics which are implementing the measures in full tend to be in the European areas of the country while the Central Asian Republics are responding rather more slowly.

It would be incorrect to apportion all the blame for these deficiencies upon physical culture teachers because head teachers have overall responsibility for implementing the physical education programme in their schools. Head teachers, in turn, are responsible to their Republican ministries of education which should ensure that those activities required by the USSR Ministry of Education are carried out in all their schools. All educational establishments concerned with physical education in schools are circulated with *Fizicheskaya kul'tura v shkole*. In this magazine, the USSR Ministry of Education has recently published several articles explaining the importance of physical culture and health measures for children's health, identifying those Republics which do not implement them correctly. It is not certain, however, how many teachers and administrators actually read the journal completely.

Whilst it is acknowledged that not all children undertake and benefit from regular daily exercise as prescribed by the authorities, it should be recognised that many millions of schoolchildren are in full receipt of all the measures. However, the results cannot be fully examined for a number of years - not until the child reaches adulthood. Then, if he/she is healthy, is physically capable of working and
is still regularly undertaking independent physical exercise, the physical culture and health measures in schools will have been proved successful. At present, this certainly does not seem to be true of adults who were school pupils some years ago since it seems that few of them take regular exercise and this fact is well known to the Soviet authorities. It is therefore really too early to make accurate assessments of the success of current physical culture and health measures in schools, and so this study has been concerned at this stage mostly with assessments of whether the measures have been taken up by schools. As the USSR Ministry of Education has the backing of a law to enforce the measures in schools it may be assumed that, as far as the state is concerned, they form an integral part of the physical education of children and must not be omitted.

Physical culture and health measures are not a recent innovation in Soviet schools and many were operative during the war years of the 1940s in attempts to strengthen undernourished children. However, now that the measures have been made compulsory, the aims have also changed with their main purpose being to oblige underactive youngsters to exercise, hopefully improving their health and work capacity both during their lesson times and once they leave school.

The aforementioned measures such as those employed in Soviet schools have been used in schools in England and Wales but have now largely disappeared except for 'active breaks' (playtimes). In these, activities are seldom organised by teachers, who are present merely in a supervisory capacity to ensure the safety and good behaviour of their pupils who are left to organise their own amusements.
To the Western observer, the fact that Soviet teachers, not qualified or trained in physical education, are organising and supervising children's physical activities during the school day is more than a little surprising. It is acknowledged by Soviet administrators that some resentment exists among teachers that they are obliged to do this, but the majority seem to regard it as a duty "for the health of our children". Because neither these teachers nor pupil 'activists' who assist them are trained to do more than supervise these physical activities, the need for sound teaching in physical culture lessons is proven to be of great importance. Without this, the measures could not be implemented safely or correctly and, indeed, the supervisory staff and pupil 'activists' could well feel unable to perform their duties and, without their goodwill, the measures simply could not proceed.

Extracurricular activities have been organised in Soviet schools for many years in varying degrees according to the availability of facilities and staff. They have also been dependent upon the inclinations of teachers, volunteer helpers, parents and coaches from local sports schools and clubs to donate their time and skill to the activities.

Whilst one of the aims of extracurricular physical activities has always been to involve as many children as possible in exercise for the sake of their health, a major aim has also been to train youngsters to achieve high standards in sport, especially in school sports sections. The 1983-85 programme of extracurricular activities shows an important change over earlier programmes with the emphasis now placed on mass participation in sport rather than the
pursuit of individual excellence. Trade-union run sports schools are now charged solely with the responsibility of developing the more talented pupils, whereas Ministry of Education sports schools are to provide elementary training groups with staff and occasionally facilities as well as their normal sports training.

In addition to giving children the opportunity to undertake regular physical activity in schools on a voluntary basis, extracurricular mass sports work also enables pupils to use the skills they have learned in their physical culture lessons in sports of their choice. Although each pupil's participation is said to be voluntary, it is a duty of the committee of the school physical culture collective to organise propaganda to persuade as many as possible to take part. The committee includes a number of pupils from the general membership of the collective and, because of this, pupils probably more readily accept its organisation and participate than if activities were solely organised by adults. This could be because Soviet children are already accustomed to the (very Russian) doctrine of collective responsibility.

The Soviet authorities acknowledge that, without school physical culture collectives, the work of their members and committees and the 'activists' they train, school extracurricular mass sports activities could not be organised on their present scale. Although specialist physical culture teachers oversee the organisation of the programme, they are unable to supervise and teach all the activities personally, particularly in schools with two shifts, as they are required to teach physical culture lessons. Many extra-
curricular physical activities require specialist teaching and for these either a physical culture teacher, a coach from a local sports school or club or a parent or another adult with some coaching experience may be assigned to the activity. In some cases, senior pupils who have received training under the auspices of the physical culture collective may be assigned to teach or assist with groups particularly of younger children.

In schools where facilities and physical culture teachers are involved all day with lessons in a two-shift system, school administrators have had to accept that the organisation of a comprehensive programme of extracurricular activities is impossible and they may advise their pupils to join sports schools. This is acceptable for physically able and talented children but, unless he/she can join an elementary training group, a less talented pupil may not gain a sports school place and, even if successful, may soon drop out or be asked to leave since the standard is too high. Where there is competition for places, some pupils may not be allowed to join at all.

In the programme of extracurricular physical activities there seem to be sports to suit a wide variety of interests and abilities although, for the reasons already stated, some schools can offer a wider choice than others. These include general physical training groups and elementary training groups, both offering activities at lower levels of skill and expertise and GTO groups which supplement the work done in lessons to attain GTO badges and are considered necessary for many children to reach the required levels of performance. Sports sections concentrate on specific sports and now aim
to promote 'sport for all' and not excellence as they have done formerly but they generally cater for higher levels of competence than the aforementioned groups and certainly require specialist teachers or coaches in order to be effective.

Competitions are organised involving whole classes or individuals. Since most of the pupils are required for their class teams for 'Hopeful Starts' and 'Merry Starts' competitions there is probably a degree of compulsion attached to pupils' participation, but there is no evidence to suggest any unwillingness to take part. However, observations at one interschool competition revealed that not all participants had received sufficient preparation to properly undertake or even complete the events for which they were entered. The distress which this must cause some children is detrimental to achieving the aim of the competitions - to propagandize sport and attract pupils to undertake regular exercise.

Although schools are not supposed to hold specific practice/training sessions for 'Hopeful Starts' and 'Merry Starts', it is clear, from discussions with teachers that, unless their pupils undertake sports activities in addition to their physical culture lessons, their teams have little chance of winning in the initial rounds. All the events are said to be based upon work done in physical culture lessons and are, therefore, within the capability of all healthy schoolchildren, but additional work is obviously essential for many pupils to retain their self-respect or gain glory in competition against others. Despite this, many millions compete in the early rounds and this fact alone achieves the aim of the 'sport for all' campaign.
An additional benefit to be gained from the organisation of competitions involving virtually every Soviet child is that talent is displayed and can be detected and promising children invited to attend sports schools. Whilst relatively few win places in the final rounds, the authorities obviously consider that these competitions can motivate children to take part in sport and encourage them to spend additional time in sporting pursuits. References to Olympic competition are used freely to further motivate children to perform well and some schools invite famous sports personalities to talk to and meet pupils.

Competitive sport is also available in a wide variety of events in school sports sections and includes nationwide tournaments whose early rounds are held among local schools. This is similar to school teams in England and Wales except that some competitions are based on a much larger scale in the USSR since the country is 100 times bigger. In Soviet schools, teachers and coaches utilize the skills the children have developed in their physical culture lessons and add to them the specific skills and training necessary for the chosen sport.

Since the majority of the activities taught in sports sections encourage competition and, consequently, a desire to win, they will involve many teachers and coaches who must adapt their emphasis from working towards excellence to a policy of 'sport for all' to meet the requirements of the USSR Ministry of Education. It is clear that they will need to organise additional groups to cater for all who wish to take part, or accept more children into existing groups and pay less attention to selection by ability.
Children's artistic interests are developed in gymnastics sports sections which include acrobatics for boys and girls and modern rhythmic gymnastics for girls. Again, competitions are arranged for the children and the gymnasts require strength and co-ordination. The ever-increasing popularity and success of gymnasts from the USSR can be attributed, at least in part, to their early training in sports sections.

Competitions involving children and their parents are organised in an attempt to involve the adults in sport for their own health and also to persuade them to encourage their children to undertake more physical activity. This is part of the government's overall efforts to encourage sport for all; however, there has been a certain degree of resistance from parents to taking part. This could stem from a general reluctance by some people to be organised, often preferring activities they have chosen and arranged for themselves, and the failure of earlier school physical education programmes to encourage children to participate in sport in later life.

'Tourism' offers children who may not enjoy the more competitive aspects of certain sports an opportunity to engage in active outdoor pursuits. Although children have been encouraged to undertake pursuits such as hiking, camping, orienteering and cycling for many years, these activities have assumed a greater importance recently because of the research findings that many children are taking insufficient regular exercise and, instead, spend much of their time indoors, often watching television. Many children (and their parents) have been slow to take an interest in 'tourism',
but the introduction of school-based groups and offers of cheap or even free travel are inducements to greater participation.

Great effort is expended in schools to instil in pupils a sense of patriotism and pride in their country and through 'tourism' children are shown and helped to appreciate the countryside. They are also taught, through visits to sites of battles, war cemeteries and war memorials, about the atrocities of war, and in schools there is strong evidence that pupils are being taught to condemn war and to try to work towards peaceful coexistence with other countries.

'Tourism' is currently popular among adults and the authorities want to encourage more people to participate in its various forms for the above reasons and also to benefit their health by exercising outdoors. By encouraging children today, they believe that they will have a more healthy adult population in future years.

As well as giving healthy children enjoyment and a controlled outlet for their energies, extracurricular mass sports work also provides less healthy and less well prepared children with opportunities to improve their strength and to practise those skills in which they are unsound. It is to accommodate these children that the teachers and coaches responsible for the activities must be aware of the needs of individuals and accept that the children's improving health is of greater importance than the pursuit of excellence.
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