



Spare-time higher education in Communist China with emphasis on higher correspondence education
by Lee Ira Bruckner

A thesis submitted to the, Graduate Faculty in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

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Abstract:

The major purpose of this investigation was to examine the development and nature of spare-time higher education in Communist China with special concentration on higher correspondence education. Translations of Chinese language articles that were published for national and local consumption were the chief sources used to reveal this understanding.

Major summary findings on spare-time higher education were as follows: (1) spare-time higher education has been the most complex and diverse system of higher education in Communist China; (2) it was established as the apex of a system of education to provide college-level education for full-time workers, cadres, and peasants; (3) it was closely coordinated with productive labor so as to meet the local needs and demands; (4) it generally offered fewer and more specialized courses than full-time universities; (5) its objective was to train "a new socialist man," one who would work with both his intellect and his hands and also have the "correct" Marxist-Leninist viewpoint; (6) it was regarded as a way of extending higher education to both rural and urban areas with "greater, faster, better and more economical results;" and (7) on a longterm basis, the Communist regime viewed spare-time higher education and higher correspondence education as ways for making the transition from socialism to communism by gradually reducing and eventually eliminating the three great differences between town and country, industry and agriculture, and manual and mental labor.

The following conclusions were drawn: (1) the ideological goal of making good Communists and the political control exerted through the Party were dominating influences in the development and nature of sparetime higher education; (2) economics played a major role in determination of the nature of spare-time higher education for the masses by provision of advanced specialized training geared to the needs and demands of production; (3) fundamental social problems of a rapidly expanding population and of illiteracy determined the nature and character of spare-time higher education; (4) great diversity, flexibility, and extreme specialization and control of education by the Party characterized spare-time higher education; (5) apart from ideological considerations and Party control parallels to the development of similar education in the United States were on-the-job extension work, self-study aids, special curriculum provisions for both individuals and groups, adequacy of faculty, radio and television as media of special design and the sharing of already established facilities; (6) the creation of the three types of radio, television, and radio-television universities upgraded the quality of spare-time higher education; and (7) the name higher education as presented by the Chinese emphasized major attention at all levels of quality readiness.

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SPARE-TIME HIGHER EDUCATION IN COMMUNIST CHINA WITH EMPHASIS
ON HIGHER CORRESPONDENCE EDUCATION

by

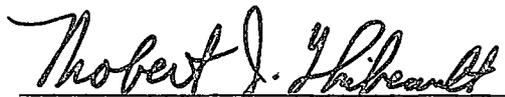
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ABSTRACT

The major purpose of this investigation was to examine the development and nature of spare-time higher education in Communist China with special concentration on higher correspondence education. Translations of Chinese language articles that were published for national and local consumption were the chief sources used to reveal this understanding.

Major summary findings on spare-time higher education were as follows: (1) spare-time higher education has been the most complex and diverse system of higher education in Communist China; (2) it was established as the apex of a system of education to provide college-level education for full-time workers, cadres, and peasants; (3) it was closely coordinated with productive labor so as to meet the local needs and demands; (4) it generally offered fewer and more specialized courses than full-time universities; (5) its objective was to train "a new socialist man," one who would work with both his intellect and his hands and also have the "correct" Marxist-Leninist viewpoint; (6) it was regarded as a way of extending higher education to both rural and urban areas with "greater, faster, better and more economical results;" and (7) on a long-term basis, the Communist regime viewed spare-time higher education and higher correspondence education as ways for making the transition from socialism to communism by gradually reducing and eventually eliminating the three great differences between town and country, industry and agriculture, and manual and mental labor.

The following conclusions were drawn: (1) the ideological goal of making good Communists and the political control exerted through the Party were dominating influences in the development and nature of spare-time higher education; (2) economics played a major role in determination of the nature of spare-time higher education for the masses by provision of advanced specialized training geared to the needs and demands of production; (3) fundamental social problems of a rapidly expanding population and of illiteracy determined the nature and character of spare-time higher education; (4) great diversity, flexibility, and extreme specialization and control of education by the Party characterized spare-time higher education; (5) apart from ideological considerations and Party control parallels to the development of similar education in the United States were on-the-job extension work, self-study aids, special curriculum provisions for both individuals and groups, adequacy of faculty, radio and television as media of special design and the sharing of already established facilities; (6) the creation of the three types of radio, television, and radio-television universities upgraded the quality of spare-time higher education; and (7) the name higher education as presented by the Chinese emphasized major attention at all levels of quality readiness.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Nearly one-fourth of the world's population lives in the People's Republic of China (shortened in this study to Communist China). With a total population of between 700 and 800 million people and an annual increase in population of from 12 to 15 million additional school children to educate each year, Communist China has faced tremendous educational problems. In addition to the growth rate each year, she has had to face the difficult problem of lowering the illiteracy level, which Mao Tse-tung estimated to be 80 percent of the population in 1945.¹

The immensity of such an undertaking can be visualized when it is realized that all educational reforms had to be accomplished in the midst of vast political, economic, and social upheavals. It was a tremendous educational task to raise even a majority of this enormous population to the semi-literacy level. Since most of the workers and peasants who make up the bulk of the population could not be spared from their regular jobs to attend the full-time schools, other kinds of education were adopted to educate the masses.

Over the years, both spare-time "after-work" and part-time "work-study" education have played a dominant role in schooling the workers and peasants. In the early years of the regime, most of the effort in this respect was confined to spare-time literacy classes and spare-time primary and middle school (secondary) classes and schools. Later, the half-day "work-study" agricultural middle schools and labor universities provided on-the-job training for numerous youths from both the cities and the countryside.

As the educational level of large numbers of workers and peasants was raised, they demanded that advanced spare-time college-level classes

¹Mao Tse-tung, "On Coalition Government," Selected Works of Mao Tse-tung (New York: International Publishers, 1956), Vol. 4, p. 300.

be established to offer specialized training in numerous subject areas. Many factories, mines, and other industrial enterprises established spare-time colleges and universities not only to meet the demands of the workers for advanced training but also to meet the increasing demands of production. Since production could not be increased significantly without at the same time raising the technical level of the workers, these spare-time colleges sponsored by factories and other enterprises were widely established throughout China. Others were set up on a joint or cooperative basis by different enterprises or by factories and institutions of higher education. Many of the regular institutions of higher learning also set up evening universities to provide spare-time college-level training for workers. Correspondence, radio, and television colleges and universities likewise played an important role in the training of workers and peasants at the higher educational level.

Spare-time higher education played an increasingly important role following its early widespread development in factories, mines and other enterprises in 1956 and 1957. During the years of the Great Leap Forward (1958-60), various enterprises and institutions established numerous additional spare-time colleges and universities of many diverse types. This movement was augmented in early 1960 by the establishment of a national Spare-Time Education Committee to direct, coordinate, and supervise all levels and types of spare-time education throughout the country.

Spare-time higher education managed to survive in spite of numerous setbacks, difficulties, and problems which beset it during the last two years of the Second Five-Year Plan (1958-62) when repeated crop failures, natural disasters, and the failure of the Great Leap Forward created great havoc in the whole spare-time education system. During this time, however, many independently sponsored spare-time colleges were either closed or forced to drastically cut their offerings. Much reorganization took place at that time in the spare-time higher educational programs. As a result of these many readjustments, stress was placed on other forms and types of spare-time higher education to take

the place of the reduced programs in many of the independently sponsored spare-time colleges. Regular and special types of higher education, including correspondence, radio, and television colleges and universities, helped to meet the need for adequate but less expensive programs geared to the local production needs.

As more stress was placed on expanding spare-time higher education in the rural areas, greater emphasis was given to the further development of spare-time higher correspondence education. As a result, great expansion occurred both in spare-time higher education and in higher education by correspondence. For example, there were more than one thousand spare-time institutions of higher learning in Communist China by early 1965 with 430,000 students enrolled.² Included in this number of spare-time higher institutions were 126 which offered higher correspondence education.³ Though these schools represented only 13 percent of the total number of spare-time institutions of higher learning, they nevertheless accounted for 34 percent of the total enrollment in spare-time institutions of education in 1965.⁴

A careful examination of published materials revealed no comprehensive studies on spare-time higher education or higher correspondence education and the important and significant role which they have been playing in Chinese higher education. It was therefore felt that a strong need existed for such a study.

I. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The major purpose of this study was to examine the development

²"Ministry of Higher Education Calls National Conference of Higher Education by Correspondence," New China News Agency. Nanking Dec. 8, 1965, translated in Survey of China Mainland Press, No. 3599 (Dec. 16, 1965), p. 7.

³Ibid.

⁴Ibid.

and nature of spare-time higher education in Communist China with special concentration on the area of higher correspondence education. But in order that the nature of spare-time higher education might be understood, it was necessary to give the background of Chinese Communist education in general. In achieving the basic purpose of the study, the problem resolved itself into two parts: (1) to develop an understanding of Chinese Communist education in general; and (2) to determine the nature of spare-time higher education.

In order to understand general education in Communist China, it was important to determine some of the emphases, achievements, weaknesses, and problems of the Chinese system. These would provide a proper background for understanding and appreciating the nature of spare-time higher education and higher correspondence education.

The major problem of this investigation was to determine the nature of spare-time higher education. This problem further resolved itself into determining the answers to the following questions:

1. How did spare-time higher education develop into a significant system of higher education?
2. What were some of the major objectives and policies of the Chinese Communist regime in developing spare-time higher education?
3. What were the major forms of spare-time higher education developed in Communist China?
4. What were the major representative and special types of higher correspondence education developed in Communist China?

II. PROCEDURES

In order to answer the questions presented under the statement of the problem, the following characteristics in approach to literature will show some of the steps taken in the investigation of the sources.

1. Extensive reading was done in the broad fields of Chinese history and culture and in the specific areas of Confucian and Republican education.

2. An examination was made of important secondary source materials on Chinese Communist education.

3. A comprehensive bibliography was prepared of available translated "primary" source materials on Chinese Communist education from Communist China publications, including books, documents, newspapers, magazines, and radio broadcasts which were either published in Chinese and translated by outside sources and agencies or else published or broadcast in English by the Chinese Communist regime. Although other sources were also consulted, the principal sources for the material used in this study were the Survey of China Mainland Press (SCMP), Current Background, Extracts from China Mainland Magazines (Extracts . . . became Selections from China Mainland Magazines in 1962), all issued by the American (U. S.) Consulate General in Hong Kong; the Communist China Digest and Translations of Political and Sociological Information on Communist China, issued by the United States Joint Publications Research Service (JPRS) of Washington, D. C.; the Union Research Service Series issued by the Union Research Institute, a division of the Union Press, in Hong Kong; and the Foreign Broadcast Information Service of Washington, D. C., the United States government monitoring service which publishes Daily Report: Far East. These Chinese sources in translation are the source materials used by many of the authorities in the field of Chinese Communist education; nevertheless, the data itself is primary source material.

4. From this extensive bibliography of translated "primary" source materials on Chinese Communist education, a selected bibliography was prepared on spare-time and spare-time higher education.

5. These translated articles on spare-time and spare-time higher education were then read in either printed publications or microfilm copies.

III. IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

An increasing amount of literature on Chinese Communist education

has been published during the past decade by researchers on Communist China. Competent scholars such as Robert Barendsen, Leo Orleans, Theodore Chen, Chang-tu Hu, Munemitsu Abe, Paul Harper, Stewart Fraser, and others have written on various aspects of Chinese Communist education. Most of the studies, however, have been on the regular full-time schools while only a limited number of studies have given consideration to the two other major classifications of Chinese Communist education--the part-time "work-study" schools and the spare-time "after-work" schools.

The only significant source of information available in English on the development of spare-time education, including spare-time higher education, in the Communist occupied or so-called "liberated areas" of China before 1949 was the documentary work compiled by Michael Lindsay and others.⁵ Michael Lindsay's work, while dealing primarily with Chinese Communist educational problems in the 1940's, includes helpful background material on the 1930's when the new soviet bases were set up in Northwest China following the "Long March."

Apart from the brief but helpful summaries of spare-time education given by Barendsen, Chen, Hu, Fraser, Chang Nai-pan, and others in general articles or specialized works relating to other aspects of Chinese Communist education, three studies by Abe, Orleans, and Harper deal more specifically with spare-time education to the first decade of Communist rule in China.

Abe's survey article on spare-time education, "Spare-Time Education in Communist China,"⁶ provides a good general summary of the various types and levels of spare-time education, including spare-time higher education. Leo Orleans' Professional Manpower and Education in

⁵Michael Lindsay, Notes on Educational Problems in Communist China, 1941-1947, with supplements on 1948-1949 by Marion Menzies, William Paget, and S. B. Thomas (New York: International Secretariat, Institute of Pacific Relations, 1950).

⁶Munemitsu Abe, "Spare-Time Education in Communist China," The China Quarterly, No. 8 (October-December, 1961), pp. 149-159.

Communist China,⁷ gives detailed consideration to the growth and development of spare-time education, including spare-time higher education, from 1949 through 1959 and compares the enrollments of the spare-time higher institutions during that decade with those of the regular full-time institutions of higher learning.

Since both Abe and Orleans concluded their studies in 1960, other references had to be consulted for the development of spare-time education in the 1960's. Though scattered references to spare-time and spare-time higher education have appeared in this decade in articles, books, and other studies on Chinese Communist education, the major work to appear on spare-time education was Paul Harper's Spare-Time Education for Workers in Communist China.⁸ His study, as the title indicates, was limited to spare-time education in factories, mines, and other industrial enterprises in China and embraced the years of 1949 through early 1963. Although the emphasis of his work was on the secondary and lower levels of spare-time education, he also included some information on the higher education of workers. In addition, much of what was said regarding workers' education at the intermediate level held true for workers' education at the higher level. This study by Harper was limited to the spare-time education for workers.

A careful examination was made of the field and revealed little information on spare-time higher education in Communist China. The writer felt that a contribution could be made by researching in this phase of Chinese Communist higher education. Since one of the most important forms of spare-time higher education is spare-time higher education by correspondence, special emphasis was devoted to this facet of study.

⁷Leo A. Orleans, Professional Manpower and Education in Communist China (Washington, D. C.: National Science Foundation, 1961).

⁸Paul Harper, Spare-Time Education for Workers in Communist China. Bulletin No. 30, OE-14102 (1964), Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1964.

IV. LIMITATIONS

During the first decade of the Communist rule in China, great emphasis was placed on the development at all levels of three kinds of education--academic full-time schools, part-time "work-study" schools, and spare-time "after-work" schools. This study was limited to a consideration of one of these, namely, spare-time education. In order to give proper background for an understanding of the development and nature of spare-time higher education in the Chinese Communist educational system an overview of its education (1921-1966) is presented in Part I. This overview was limited to the following three main aspects:

1. An historical consideration of the development of the Chinese Communist educational system from 1921 through 1966.

2. A consideration of certain major achievements and weaknesses in the Mainland China educational program.

3. A study of certain selected social, economic, and political problems reflected in Chinese Communist education.

Part II of this investigation--Spare-Time Higher Education--was further limited to:

1. The development and nature of spare-time higher education in Communist China.

2. The three major forms of spare-time higher education--independent spare-time colleges, evening universities, and correspondence institutions of higher education.

3. Representative and special types of spare-time higher correspondence education sponsored by ministries, industries, institutions, and other enterprises between the Great Leap Forward (1958) and the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution (1966).

Another limitation was inherent in the nature of the study. Its purpose was to examine the literature to determine the nature and development of spare-time education as reported. Higher education thus was given as reported with no attempt made to interpret its quality other than to give published, official reports on quality emphasis and to report comparisons by the Chinese of the quality of spare-time with regular full-time.

PART I

AN OVERVIEW OF CHINESE COMMUNIST EDUCATION (1921-1966)

CHAPTER II

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE CHINESE COMMUNIST EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Since its beginning in South China and later in the so-called "liberated areas" of Northwest China, the Chinese Communist educational system has been an evolving one and one that has experienced many vicissitudes over the years. At times the regime has been pragmatic in its approach toward education and at other times doctrinaire. The educational developments, emphases, and trends through the various periods have often been not only a reflection of the problems received from the Kuomintang government but also the success or failure of the new regime's own educational program. Its educational system is the result of not only what they have inherited from the previous government and what they have borrowed from the Soviet Union, but, what is more important, the educational changes that they, themselves, have instituted as a result of their own philosophy, needs, policies, and experiments. These educational changes have often been based on past experiences as well as current and future goals but have always been under the direction and oversight of the Chinese Communist Party (CCP).¹

In this chapter, consideration will be given to the historical development of the Chinese Communist educational system from 1921 through 1966 with stress on the educational developments, emphases, and trends. During this almost half century of growth, many changes took place. The writer has divided the growth and development of the Chinese Communist educational system from 1921 through 1966 into six distinct phases or periods. Each phase or period had a dominating characteristic. These six phases of development were as follows: (1) the period of evolution (1921-49); (2) the period of transition (1949-52); (3) the period of development (1953-57); (4) the period of experimentation (1958-62);

¹Hereafter designated as the CCP or the Party.

(5) the period of expansion (1963-65); and (6) the period of revolution (1966--).

I. THE PERIOD OF EVOLVEMENT (1921-49)

The roots of the Chinese Communist educational system go back several decades to various CCP pronouncements on educational aims and objectives as well as to practical educational policies formulated and adopted first in the Communist occupied areas of China, called by the Communists "liberated areas." and later in all of mainland China.

In its first public statements after its founding on July 1, 1921, the CCP expressed itself on education. The First Manifesto on the Current Situation² (June 10, 1922) listed compulsory education as one of its most immediate aims.³ The following month in the Manifesto of the Second Congress⁴ it called for the improvement of the educational system.⁵ Two and a half years later in the Fourth Manifesto on the Current Scene⁶ (January, 1925), the CCP demanded among other things that women be granted complete equality in all political, economic, legal, social, and educational affairs.⁷ The Central Committee (CC)⁸ of the CCP, in its Resolutions and Spirit of the Second Plenum of the CC⁹ of

²The text of this manifesto is given in Conrad Brandt, Benjamin Schwartz, and John F. Fairbank, A Documentary History of Chinese Communism (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1959), pp. 54-63.

³Ibid., p. 63.

⁴Ibid., pp. 63-65.

⁵Ibid., p. 65.

⁶Ibid., pp. 74-77.

⁷Ibid., p. 77.

⁸Hereafter designated as the CC.

⁹Brandt, Schwartz, and Fairbank, op. cit., pp. 166-179.

July 9, 1929, stated that its roots were still not strong enough among the great body of the masses and dictated fifteen tasks that must be carried out in order to win them over, including the strengthening of the CCP's propaganda and educational activities.¹⁰

In November, 1931, a Chinese Soviet Republic was established in Juichin, Kiangsi, in South China, and the First All-China Soviet Congress proclaimed the Constitution of the Soviet Republic¹¹ on November 7, 1931. It recited the basic tasks to be accomplished throughout China and called upon all workers, peasants, and toilers to work toward their realization. The Constitution called for two basic educational goals: (1) the right to education, and (2) the introduction of free universal education.¹² Little is known about the educational system set up in South China. Lindsay states that although much educational work was attempted, "there is almost no information available about the original Chinese Communist educational system in the South China areas of the Chinese Soviet Republic."¹³

When the Soviet Republic in South China succumbed to the armies of Chiang Kai-shek in October, 1934, the Communists set out on the "Long March" across China to the borderlands of the Northwest to set up new soviet bases.¹⁴ Great losses were sustained by the Red Army, but some fifty thousand men finally reached the new base in North Shensi and Kansu in 1936. These and other "liberated areas" that subsequently came

¹⁰Ibid., pp. 171, 173.

¹¹Ibid., pp. 220-224.

¹²Ibid., p. 223. The statement in the Constitution reads, "The Soviet government of China shall guarantee to all workers, peasants, and the toiling masses the right to education. The Soviet government will, as far as the conditions of internal revolutionary war allow, begin at once to introduce free universal education. . ."

¹³Michael Lindsay, Notes on Educational Problems in Communist China, 1941-1947, p. 35.

¹⁴One of the best known accounts of the Long March is found in Edgar Snow's, Red Star Over China (New York: Random House, 1938).

under Communist control became the testing ground for the Communist experiments in education. The educational experiences gained in these "liberated areas" became the basis for an evolving educational system that was later to provide educational patterns for operation in the transitional period following the defeat of the Kuomintang and the Communist occupation of the Chinese mainland in 1949.

Michael Lindsay's study provides what is perhaps the only available detailed research collection in English on the educational system of the Chinese soviets. Lindsay includes a collection of laws and regulations pertaining to education up to the end of 1945.¹⁵ His study, buttressed by first-hand observation and documentation, details some of the main features of the Communist educational programs as they developed in the "liberated areas." The educational policies and programs described by him for the Shensi-Kansu-Ninghsia area and the documents pertaining to educational laws and regulations in the Shansi-Chahar-Hopei Region--though not necessarily representative of all Communist held areas since each was locally developed--do present, at least in their broad features, what may be regarded as typical Chinese Communist education. Since all education was under the direction of the CC of the Communist Party, it tended to reflect many of the same major characteristics in the various communist held areas, though local educational patterns and programs frequently differed greatly because of local application and experimentation.

In the "liberated areas" the CC of the Party issued policy directives based on current problems as well as on the educational objectives that had been formulated by the Party since 1921; these in turn became the basis for developing local regulations and laws regarding education. Lindsay states that what comes to the fore in these various areas

. . . is not actual laws and regulations but general directives on policy from the Communist Party Central Committee which the Communist Party organizations in the different Regions then used

¹⁵ Lindsay, op. cit., pp. 1-145.

as a basis for actual laws and regulations, applying the general principals to the particular local circumstances. . .16

Several significant developments, emphases, and trends mark this period of "evolution" in Chinese Communist education. The educational system was, first of all, extremely varied in its initial phase. Wide differences prevailed not only between the different regions but also within the same region. Lindsay notes that there would likely be ". . . considerable variation in conditions between areas which have been under practically continuous Communist control since 1938 and areas organized much more recently."¹⁷ A great deal of flexibility was given to the local level authorities and much experimentation in education was encouraged. The general policy of "opposing uniformity in education and adjusting education to practical needs" resulted in a vast variety of educational institutions and programs.¹⁸

Compulsory education, which had been one of the first expressed aims of the CCP after its founding, was instituted by the Communists but met so much popular resistance by the people that it had to be discontinued after only a brief trial. This objection on the part of the people raised the fundamental question, "Education was meant to help and serve the masses so why should the masses strongly reject it?" As a result of this discussion on what kind of education the masses actually wanted, there evolved the principle of "people managed, public help," which became the basis for the new "people managed" schools.¹⁹ In this type of school, the government would help find and finance a teacher and the village community could decide when classes should be held and just what was to be taught. Literacy

¹⁶Ibid., p. 16.

¹⁷Ibid., p. 8.

¹⁸Ibid., p. 41.

¹⁹Ibid., p. 37.

classes, arithmetic, and various practical subjects were the most common courses. So popular and successful were these schools in the Shensi-Kansu-Ninghsia area that from 1944 on they spread and became a basic type of elementary education throughout the "liberated areas." These new "people managed" schools were generally limited to villages which did not have the regular schools. The failure of compulsory education had thus stimulated a reevaluation of education principles which had produced the "people managed" schools at the elementary level. It also led to great changes in the middle school and university levels of education by emphasizing the training of capable students for specific practical tasks.²⁰

Related to the problem of compulsory education and what kind of education the people wanted was the discussion of what sort of educational system was really suited for China. In two of the Communist documents included by Lindsay,²¹ it was argued that the kind of educational system which both the Kuomintang government (with the copying of European, American, and Japanese models) and to some extent the "liberated area" government had been trying to set up was unsuitable for China. This system was quite suitable for the economically advanced countries where the problem of adult illiteracy was negligible but did not meet the needs of China where the problem of adult literacy was so serious that a literate population could only be attained after a time lag of several decades.²² It was argued that a regular full-time school system, which begins with small children and removes them from productive work for a decade or more, was too heavy a burden on a nation with a poor economy like China; therefore, stress should be

²⁰ Ibid., pp. 38-39.

²¹ The two documents are: "The Question of the Reform of General Education," Ibid., pp. 54-57; and "System and Courses in General Education," Ibid., pp. 57-63.

²² Ibid., p. 40.

placed on cadre²³ and mass education. The full-time school system supported by the government should be primarily for the training of cadres; others, primarily adults, should attend mass schools operated and supported by the people themselves. Cadre education should have priority over mass education because cadres were in the advance guard and being trained to lead the masses. Likewise, adults should have priority over children in mass education because of the fact that more rapid social gains were achieved from adult education. In both cadre education and mass education practical knowledge and skills needed for revolution and for production should have priority over cultural education.²⁴

Much was done in the "liberated areas" to develop mass education with special emphasis upon adult education. Many different methods were used. The directives and discussions speak of experimenting with "all kinds of forms and methods."²⁵ In these, special emphasis was placed upon discussion and small mutual-help groups which sought to investigate practical problems. All students and teachers were urged to combine theory with practice and to take part in actual production in order to break down the traditional barrier between manual and mental labor.²⁶ These dual objectives were incorporated into many of the varied programs of mass education. Two types of mass schools which were

²³The term "cadre" is used by the Chinese Communists to refer to an official or a functionary.

²⁴Lindsay, op. cit., pp. 40, 59-60.

²⁵Ibid., p. 43.

²⁶Ibid., p. 41.

prominent in this period were the part-time or half-time schools²⁷ and the spare-time schools.²⁸

The half-time schools with their goal of combining work and study into an integrated program became quite popular. They included a great variety of types, including some of the "people manage, public help" village schools with various arrangements of half-day and alternateday schools and also the winter schools with their emphasis on studying several months during the slack winter season. This latter type became a very popular form of adult education in the "liberated areas."²⁹ One directive in 1943 stated that "in most villages the half-day school should be the main form" and recommended that whole-day schools in fairly large villages be converted to half-day schools to permit students to spend half of their time in production.³⁰

Besides the half-time schools there were various types of spare-time schools with their emphasis on study after regular working hours. Specific types mentioned include literacy classes during rest periods and meal times, newspaper reading groups, night schools, and a

²⁷ Basically, both terms--"part-time" schools and "half-time" schools--refer to the same type of school which has as its goal the combining of both work and study on somewhat of an equal basis. More precisely, "half-time" schools refer to those schools which combine work and study on an equal basis; however, the term is frequently used very loosely to include other "work-study" schools of the same basic type which do not combine them on an equal time basis. Since "part-time" schools include not only the "half-time" schools but also other types of "work-study" schools, it will be the basic term used in this study for this type of school. "Half-time" schools will be used in their more limited sense or when this term is exclusively used of this type of school as in the current period under consideration. All "half-time" schools are "part-time" schools, but strictly speaking, all "part-time" schools are not "half-time" schools.

²⁸ "Spare-time" schools, in contrast to "part-time" or "half-time" schools, conduct classes for workers, peasants, and cadres after their regular full day's work.

²⁹ Lindsay, op. cit., p. 43.

³⁰ Ibid., p. 83.

special home type with children teaching adults in their own families.³¹ These are all basic forms of spare-time education. How extensive spare-time education was at the different levels in the "liberated areas" during this period is not clear.³²

The emphasis of all education in the Communist held areas was primarily political. Snow pointed out in the late 1930's that this emphasis on politics was common in Chinese Communist education in the base areas. He notes that

. . . under the emergency Soviet educational system there were three sections: institutional, military, and social. The first was run more or less by the Soviets, the second by the Red Army, the third by the Communist organizations. Emphasis in all of them was primarily political. . . .³³

Lindsay was of the same opinion regarding Chinese Communist education in the first half of the 1940's. He stated that a frequent criticism of education in the "liberated areas" by outside observers was that it was "almost entirely political propaganda."³⁴ He then goes on to emphasize that the Communists considered political education of great practical importance in building up a new democratic system and regarded it as

³¹ Ibid., p. 43.

³² See Ibid., p. 64. Although it is not stated whether or not the teacher training schools and the vocational schools operated by the local productive organizations included spare-time schools, the implication is that they did. For example, it is mentioned that the best arrangement for such local productive organizations as the railway administration, the mining bureau, and industrial and agricultural organizations was for each to operate its own vocational schools. Since the later pattern in Communist China was for such local productive organizations to offer their workers extensive spare-time courses from the literacy level on up to and including college level education, it would appear that some of these vocational courses were taken after and in addition to regular work and were thus spare-time education courses. Likewise, where there were no teacher training schools, middle schools were urged to include courses in order to produce trained teachers.

³³ Snow, op. cit., pp. 254-55.

³⁴ Lindsay, op. cit., p. 42.

the basis for all education in the "liberated areas."³⁵ One of the overall goals of the soviets was to reeducate and indoctrinate the masses by a heavy concentration on politics in adult education. Although this degree of concentration on politics varied, political education in 1945-46 was estimated to be fifty percent of the education course content in the old base areas and seventy percent in the newly-recovered areas.³⁶

The organization of Party education--both political and cultural --was to a large extent through local groups and conferences. One of the most important educational movements inside the Communist Party was the so-called "cheng feng" movement which has been translated as "ideological remolding" or "reforming". This movement had considerable influence on the Party cadres in 1942 when the movement started but was also to reappear in subsequent years when remolding and rectification of Party members was necessary.

Early in this period when the educational system was first beginning to evolve, an important aim of the Party was to work for compulsory education. Later, however, compulsory education was discontinued in the "liberated areas" of Northwest China after a brief trial because of great popular resistance on the part of the people. In this initial phase of education, the educational system was extremely varied and much flexibility was given to local communities to develop their own schools. Locally operated "people managed" schools became very popular in villages which had no regular schools. Two other types of schools that developed during this time were the part-time and the spare-time schools. In all types of schools, however, political education played a very important role in Chinese Communist education and was also stressed during the transitional years after the Communist regime assumed power over all of China in 1949. Political education was particularly stressed in the spare-time adult classes both before and after.

³⁵ Ibid.

³⁶ Ibid., p. 42.

the occupation of the Mainland.

These basic characteristics of the Communist educational system, which first appeared as Party objectives or were the result of general directives on policy issued by the CC of the Communist Party, give the key to the basic educational goals of the Chinese Communists. Those educational characteristics which appeared first in the Chinese soviets were reproduced in the "liberated areas" and later in the evolving educational system developed in the transitional years by the new People's Republic of China.

II. THE PERIOD OF TRANSITION (1949-52)

Lindsay has noted that the Chinese Communists were not unaware that they would have many transitional difficulties and problems in destroying the old educational system and outlook and in thoroughly rebuilding a completely new educational system.³⁷ However, when the CCP assumed power of the Chinese mainland in 1949, it had little in the way of either practical experience or pedagogical theory other than what it had gained in Party policy formulation and pronouncements and in practical experience in the old "liberated areas." Most of the regime's educational work had been at the primary and middle school levels and confined largely to the rural areas; it had had a very limited amount of experience in large urban centers where the majority of the colleges and universities were located.

When the Communists inherited the educational system of the Kuomintang regime in 1949, the question was asked, "Whither should the

³⁷ Ibid., p. 54.

education of new China go?"³⁸ In September, 1949, Chairman Mao Tse-tung pointed out in the "Common Program of the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference" that "the People's Government should systematically reform the old educational system, educational contents and pedagogical methods."³⁹ When the First National Educational Work Conference convened in December, 1949, a threefold guideline for the development of the new educational system was laid down under Mao Tse-tung's firm direction. It stated that "the education of new China should use the new educational experiences of the old liberated areas as the basis for developing the new educational system, should absorb the useful experiences of the old education, and should make use of the experiences of the Soviet Union."⁴⁰ This strategy was followed in reforming the old educational system and in formulating a new one.

During these three years of transition, the new regime launched land reform, the suppression of counter-revolutionaries, the ideological transformation of intellectuals, and political movements such as the "resist-America and aid-Korea" campaign.⁴¹ Some 310,000 educational

³⁸"Chronology of the Two-Road Struggle on the Educational Front in the Past 17 Years," Chiao-yu Ko-ming [Educational Revolution] editorial board, Peking: No. 4, May 6, 1967, pp. 2-8, in Translations on Communist China: Political and Sociological, No. 411, pp. 5-7. Translated in Joint Publications Research Service [hereafter cited as JPRS] report No. 41,932 (July 21, 1967). A condensed version of the same Chinese language article is to be found in "Chronology of 17 Years of Two-Road Struggle in Education," in Communist China Digest, No. 191, pp. 167-186, and translated in JPRS report No. 43,204 (Oct. 31, 1967). All references to this article will be to the longer version in the JPRS report No. 41,932, pp. 5-52, and will have the title abbreviated to "Chronology of the Two-Road Struggle. . ." This article was written in period of the Cultural Revolution by a pro-Maoist and deals mainly with the struggle between Mao Tse-tung and Liu Shao-ch'i on educational issues and policies during the first seventeen years of the regime's history in Mainland China.

³⁹Ibid., p. 7.

⁴⁰Ibid.

⁴¹Ibid., p. 6.

institutions at all levels were reported to have been taken over by the Communists.⁴² Numerous institutions were reformed, amalgamated, and reorganized. The new regime informed educators and students in many schools to continue carrying on with "socialistic consciousness" as their guideline. However, the regime reacted more quickly and harshly with foreign affiliated schools. This might well be called the Nationalistic Period because it was, as Chang-tu Hu points out, "for the 'nationalistic' purpose that all Western-sponsored institutions of education were the first to be subjected to the fury of educational reorganization, and . . . were declared hotbeds for the spread of individualism, liberalism, and bourgeois decadence . . ." ⁴³ Within three years all foreign affiliated schools had been put out of existence by a process of amalgamation and reorganization. Fraser states that "from 1949 to 1952; consolidation, reconstruction, and reorganization were paramount" and goes on to point out that already "in this initial stage of Communist control some of the harshness and dogmatism of Chinese Marxism quickly became apparent."⁴⁴

During this transitional period, the Soviet Union became Communist China's educational model and many of its higher educational institutions were reorganized on the Soviet pattern. Further changes were inaugurated when the basic outline of a new school system was announced on October 1, 1951; these included certain adjustments in educational patterns as well as in the structure of the full-day schools. Spare-time classes for adults were set up in order to implement the mass literacy program, and stress was placed on establishing technical vocational schools to produce urgently needed technicians. In order to

⁴²Ibid., p. 8.

⁴³ Chang-Tu Hu (ed.), Chinese Education under Communism. (Classics in Education No. 7, New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1962), p. 31.

⁴⁴ Stewart Fraser, Chinese Communist Education: Records of the First Decade (Nashville: Vanderbilt University Press, 1965), pp. 12-13.

implement some of these decisions, a new separate Ministry of Higher Education was set up in 1952.

In this brief transitional period, the Communist regime sought to destroy the old educational pattern and establish a new one based on the regime's educational experiences in the "liberated areas." The useful experience of the old educational system were to be retained but the remaining elements of that system were to be eliminated. During this three-year period, large numbers of educational institutions at all levels were taken over and reformed, amalgamated, and reorganized by the Communists. All foreign affiliated schools were closed during this time. These reforms set the stage for the development of education along the established guidelines during the first five-year plan for economic development.

III. THE PERIOD OF DEVELOPMENT (1953-57)

The educational program of the First Five-Year Plan (1953-57) for economic development was geared to the training of an exclusive elite.⁴⁵ This period was one of relative stability on the educational front.⁴⁶ During these years the Communist regime sought to further develop secondary and higher education in order to train engineers and technical specialists. Such personnel were needed to meet the needs of

⁴⁵"Educational Program of Communist China," Education in Communist China, p. 2. (Originally published as chapter three of the Japanese language document Seiji Keizai Soran [Political-Economic Handbook on China] by the Association for Asian Political-Economic Studies. Tokyo: January 1, 1962, pp. 777-788.) Translated in JPRS report No. 17,188 and reproduced by the Photoduplication Service, Library of Congress, Washington, D. C. [Scholarly Book Translation Series by the Research & Microfilm Publications, Inc., Annapolis, Maryland].

⁴⁶Robert D. Barendsen, "Education in China: A Survey," pp. 5-6 in a Reprint from Problems of Communism, Vol. XIII, No. 4 (July-August, 1964), pp. 19-27. (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, n.d.). Barendsen calls these five years the "Period of Stabilization" (p. 5).

construction and to develop heavy industry which was the major aim of the First Five-Year Plan. In addition to the efforts made to improve the technical levels of teachers at home, many promising students were sent abroad for advanced training.

The period embraced by the First Five-Year Plan for economic development was the apex of what one Chinese Communist critic called "the blind introduction of Soviet experiences."⁴⁷ Vast numbers of textbooks, teaching guides, and other materials from the Soviet Union were translated and adopted without really being adapted to the conditions of China.⁴⁸

Spare-time primary and secondary classes replaced many of the accelerated short-term courses in 1956 and 1957. Popular schools, which were usually primary schools operated and supported by the people at the local level, continued to be set up during these years although they registered a decreased enrollment in 1956.⁴⁹ The regular primary schools, however, showed a sharp increase in enrollment for that same

⁴⁷"Chronology of the Two-Road Struggle. . .," op. cit., p. 17.

⁴⁸Li Yun-yang, "A Brief Discussion of the Struggle between the Two Paths in China's Higher Education," Education in Communist China, p. 38. (Originally published in the Chinese language publication Hsin-hua Pan-yueh-k'an [New China Semi-Monthly] Peking: No. 24, 1957, pp. 104-108.) Translated in JPRS report No. 17,188 and reproduced by the Photoduplication Service, Library of Congress, Washington, D. C. [Scholarly Book Translation Series by the Research & Microfilm Publications, Inc., Annapolis, Maryland].

⁴⁹I Wo-sheng, "Education in Communist China During 1962 and a Comparison with Education in the Soviet Union," Communist China 1962, Vol. I (Communist China Problem Research Series. Kowloon (Hong Kong): Union Research Institute Limited, 1963), p. 194. He says, "According to the statistics of 1956, there were over 50,000 popular schools (with an enrollment of 3,800,000), representing 9.7 percent of the total number of primary schools in mainland China at that time. In comparison with preceding years, however, this percentage implied a decline"

year as did the secondary and higher educational institutions.⁵⁰

Although this period was one of development as far as schools were concerned, it was one of unrest among the intellectuals and students. The early summer of 1957 was marked by a brief six-week period of intellectual revolt and voluminous criticism of the Communist regime on the part of the country's academic, managerial, and artistic intelligentsia. This episode, which came to be known as the "Hundred Flowers" period to the outside world, was the result of an invitation by Chairman Mao Tse-tung to criticize his regime.⁵¹ It gets its name from Mao's earlier slogan to "Let a hundred flowers bloom, let a hundred schools contend." Mao had expected only mild criticism and was quite unprepared for the over enthusiastic response on the part of his critics. The repercussions of this movement were felt throughout China and in other socialistic countries as well. This resulted in a nation-wide anti-rightist struggle on the political and ideological front. The new rectification campaign, marked by the "withering of the hundred flowers," imposed greater regimentation upon the intelligentsia and students and "reform through labor" was again stressed for those who did not take to heart Mao Tse-tung's formula of "criticism, counter-criticism, and persuasion."

⁵⁰The actual enrollment increase among primary and secondary students may not have been as high as reported since it is stated in the "Chronology of the Two-Road Struggle. . ." that in 1956 "there emerged the new pattern in which primary schools in rural villages were 'padded' to become middle schools" and resulted in an increased enrollment of over thirty percent for secondary school students and almost a twenty percent increase among primary students (p. 20).

⁵¹For official documentary records from the Chinese Communist daily press on this brief "Hundred Flowers" period, see Roderick MacFarquhar, The Hundred Flowers Campaign and the Chinese Intellectuals (New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1960). See also Edgar Faure, The Serpent and the Tortoise: Problems of the New China (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1958), for a discussion of the cheng feng movement and what Faure calls "the 'cluster of 1957 campaigns' (the rectification campaign, the campaign against the right-wing deviationists and the Hundred Flowers)" (p. 76).

During this period of development which coincided with the First Five-Year Plan of economic development, the educational goal of the regime was to train technical specialists and engineers in the secondary and higher institutions of education for heavy industry. Not only were many of the top students sent abroad for advanced studies, but large numbers of teaching materials of all types were translated and adopted from the Soviet Union. Since it was a period of relative stability, the primary, secondary, and higher institutions all had an opportunity to grow and all showed increased enrollments. The period closed in unrest among the intellectuals and students, and a new rectification campaign was conducted on the political and ideological front to reform recalcitrant intellectuals through participation in manual labor. This prepared the way for many new experimental institutions and educational programs which combined education with productive labor the following year.

IV. THE PERIOD OF EXPERIMENTATION (1958-62)

The period of experimentation paralleled the Second Five-Year Plan of economic development. The Chinese Communists have called 1958 the "experimental year" in education because of the many educational programs that were initiated on a trial basis at that time. In that year, the launching of the "Great Leap Forward" with the aim of making Communist China one of the great industrial nations within the following decade and the formation of the people's communes had tremendous repercussions on the educational system. New educational goals and policies were formulated, and there was a movement to decentralize the schools. Stress was placed on experimentation and specialization. The 1958 "Directive on Educational Activities" announced that the school system must be thoroughly reformed and called on all party committees and administrative levels throughout China to "undertake experimentation

along definite patterns in arriving at a new school system."⁵²

The "definite patterns" laid down under the leadership of Mao Tse-tung and the guidance of the Party included the simultaneous development and dual sponsorship of two main types of schools--those that were to be supported at government expense and those which were to be sponsored "by the people."⁵³ This new policy of "walking on two legs" as it was called was substituted for the previous "one-sided" and "normal" policy. Ch'en Lei'szu points out that the substitution of the "walking on two legs" policy together with the "combination of education with productive labor" was the outstanding educational feature of Chinese Communist education in 1958 and the means by which the Communists plan to eliminate the differences between mental and physical labor and provide a favorable transition from socialism to communism.⁵⁴

Of the two main types of schools--government supported and people supported--the first kind included the regular full-time schools for the training of the Communist elite from the primary on through the higher levels of education. The second kind, including the part-time and the spare-time schools, was to be locally sponsored and self-supporting. Many varieties of part-time and spare-time schools were

⁵²"Educational Program of Communist China," op. cit., p. 11. The fuller statement reads: "The present school system must be thoroughly and properly reformed. All provincial, metropolitan and autonomous district party committees and administrations will undertake experimentation along definite patterns in arriving at a new school system. These groups are authorized to report to the Ministry of Education. When an intensive experimentation program based on a specific model has been carried out, a decree announcing a new school system will be published for the entire nation."

⁵³"Chronology of the Two-Road Struggle. . .," op. cit., p. 28.

⁵⁴Ch'en Lei-szu, "Education," Communist China 1958 (Communist China Problem Research Series. Kowloon [Hong Kong]: Union Research Service, 1959), p. 116.

inaugurated during the first half of the Second Five-Year Plan (1958-62).

Both the government and the people-sponsored schools were to "combine education with productive labor." In the regular full-time schools, students at the primary and secondary levels were required to perform from four to eight hours of "productive labor" per week, while students of higher education had to spend two to four months of "vacation" time each year working for the state.

The part-time "half-work, half-study" schools at this time were mainly at the junior middle school level (grades 7-9) and were operated on a part-time basis by a collective organization; students studied in class for half of the day and worked the other half. The agricultural middle schools were one of the most popular of this type of junior middle schools. The formation of the rural people's communes in 1958 greatly stimulated the development of numerous part-time schools.

The spare-time schools were operated for full-time productive laborers who attended classes after regular working hours, in the evenings, or by correspondence. These spare-time schools were usually sponsored by the communes, factories, mines, or other industrial enterprises for their workers. They took literacy as the starting point, and many of them offered classes up to and including the college level. Spare-time higher education became the means by which the régime could satisfy the demand of workers and peasants for further education, and at the same time, keep them in their regular full-time jobs in production.

Many of the experimental educational programs which had undergone vast expansion in the 1958 era were seriously affected by a series of drastic economic reverses and were either greatly curtailed or abolished by the end of this five-year period.⁵⁵ The "Great Leap

⁵⁵"Chronology of the Two-Road Struggle. . .," *op. cit.*, pp. 42-43, gives evidence for this in such statements as the following, "After 1961, almost all colleges and middle schools with half work and half study launched since 1958 have been abolished and almost all factories sponsored by these schools have been suspended."

Forward" had within two and a half years proven rather to be a backward leap, almost leading the country into economic ruin. This failure was augmented by three successive years (1959-61) of continuous natural disasters and crop failures over much of China and by what the Chinese called "the sabotage of the Soviet Union"⁵⁶ in withdrawing most of her assistance, technical aid, and advisers from China in 1960. Due to these agricultural setbacks and developments, the Second Five-Year Plan of 1958-62 was less successful than the First.⁵⁷

Many experiments, changes, and reforms were tried during this five-year period. An attempt was made in the 1960 Reforms⁵⁸ to compress twelve years of school work into ten years so as to have "full manpower units" at an earlier age while at the same time maintaining or even raising the academic standards. This compression of years and acceleration of primary and secondary education was also to be accompanied by "suitable increases" in "productive labor" and by a reduction in the number of hours in class. When some of these reforms were implemented in the classroom, however, it was found that the quality of education was drastically lowered. Therefore, in 1961 and 1962 there was a continuing campaign to improve the quality of education. Also, in 1962 emphasis was placed on the importance of training postgraduate students.⁵⁹

With the launching of the Great Leap Forward and the rural people's communes in 1958, many new schools at all levels were initiated on an experimental basis. These included many types and levels of spare-time education as well as the half-work and half-study agricultural middle schools. Schools were decentralized, and experimentation and specialization were emphasized on the local level. The Party

⁵⁶Ibid., p. 34.

⁵⁷"Educational Program of Communist China," op. cit., p. 1.

⁵⁸Robert D. Barendsen, "The 1960 Educational Reforms," The China Quarterly, No. 4 (October-December, 1960), p. 58.

⁵⁹I Wo-sheng, op. cit., p. 193.

called for the simultaneous development of two main types of schools-- the regular full-time schools which would continue to be funded by the government and the people sponsored schools which would be locally and directed under the guidance of the Party. All full-time, part-time, and spare-time schools were called upon to "combine education with productive labor," though the amount of productive labor and education varied greatly with the kinds and levels of education. As a result of three successive years (1959-61) of natural disasters and crop failures coupled with the failure of the Great Leap Forward (1958-60), many of the educational programs suffered retrenchment during 1961 and 1962. After a period of reorganization and readjustment, however, plans were developed for expanding all three kinds of education for both the urban and the rural areas.

V. THE PERIOD OF EXPANSION (1963-65)

The Central Committee (CC) of the Party had advocated in 1958 that the schools be run under the policy of "walking on two legs," which meant the simultaneous and parallel development of the regular government or public schools on the one hand and the people supported schools on the other. The people supported schools included both the part-time and the spare-time schools. The development and expansion of these two basic kinds of education varied according to the funds, personnel, and students available. There is considerable doubt as to just how much expansion took place in the full-time government sponsored schools during these three years. Barendsen is of the opinion that some of the reports in 1962-63 of increased enrollment, especially at the higher education level, were exaggerated and that full-time enrollments in that school year may actually have been smaller than in 1959-60.⁶⁰

⁶⁰Barendsen, "Education in China: A Survey," *op. cit.*, p. 10. He also points out that since the Communist regime curtailed the release of annual school enrollment statistics in 1960, it is difficult to get a comparative picture on enrollments.

Nevertheless, it appears from press reports that an expansion in regular school enrollments, at least at the primary level, did take place toward the end of this period. A New China News Agency (NCNA) dispatch for September 30, 1965, reported that the new work-study primary schools "together with the increased enrollment in full-time schools" were responsible for a fourteen percent increase of primary school pupils in China over the previous year (1964).⁶¹ The greatest expansion in this three year period, however, was not in the full-time regular schools but rather in the part-time "work-study" schools and in the spare-time "after-work" schools. One explanation why the part-time and spare-time schools underwent vast expansion while at the same time the regular schools remained relatively stable as far as enrollment was concerned is that many students, especially at the middle school level, had to discontinue regular schooling to take a job assignment in the countryside but were able to continue studying in either part-time or spare-time schools. Another reason for their growth, however, was that the regime seemed to be returning to the "Great Leap" policy of emphasizing these schools.⁶²

Part-time schools of all types, many of which had been either abolished or converted to full-time schools during the retrenchment years following the Great Leap Forward, were again stressed. The basic prototype part-time "half-work, half-study" institutions begun in 1958--the agricultural middle schools for training junior middle school students and the "Communist Labor Universities" for advanced students--were greatly expanded. Since both of these types were theoretically self-supporting and designed to reach workers and peasants who had had

⁶¹"China Adopts Work-Study System in Education," New China News Agency [hereafter cited as NCNA], Sept. 30, 1965, in Survey of China Mainland Press [hereafter cited as SCMP] (Hong Kong: American Consulate General), No. 3551 (Oct. 5, 1965), p. 17.

⁶²"Secondary Education," China News Analysis, No. 554, March 5, 1965, p. 1.

little formal training, they were especially adaptable to the rural areas.⁶³ The experience gained since 1958 by several agricultural colleges and other schools in combining education with farm labor became the basis for the establishment in 1964 of a new work-study system in education in which study was combined with farm and factory work and was to run parallel with the established full-time schools. It was known as the work-study system of education but had a variety of names.⁶⁴

This new work-study system of schools was set up on an experimental basis in both rural and urban areas under the educational guideline of making education serve proletarian politics and combining education with productive labor. The guideline of "five years for experiment and ten for popularization" was to be strictly adhered to. Large numbers of children attended these schools during their first years of operation. A New China News Agency (NCNA) dispatch for September 30, 1965, stated that seventeen million children were studying in these work-study primary schools in China and that this was eighty percent above the enrollment for 1964 when they began.⁶⁵ According to this same report, the enrollment in work-study middle schools had increased eighty-seven percent over 1964.⁶⁶ A national conference on

⁶³For detailed information on these "half-work; half-study" institutions see Robert D. Barendsen, Half-Work, Half-Study Schools in Communist China; Recent Experiments With Self-Supporting Educational Institutions (U.S. Office of Education Bulletin No. 24. Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1964).

⁶⁴For example, in the urban industrial areas these schools were called "part-work, part-study" schools or "work-study" schools, while in the rural areas they became known as "part-farming, part-study" schools, "farm-study" schools, or "farming-study" schools. When both types were referred to together, they have been translated as "part-farming (part-work) part-study" schools, "part-farming (-work) part-study" schools, or "work-study and farming-study" schools.

⁶⁵"China Adopts Work-Study System in Education," op. cit., p. 17.

⁶⁶Ibid.

higher and secondary agricultural education convened by the Ministry of Agriculture in 1965 decided that this new farm-study system should be introduced in all agricultural colleges and secondary schools throughout the country.

With the gradual recovery of the national economy from natural disasters and the failure of the "Great Leap Forward," the regime again began to reemphasize the importance of spare-time education among peasants and workers. In the latter part of 1963, a movement was launched to promote spare-time education among both groups. A national conference on spare-time education was held in Peking in 1964. Great emphasis was placed on developing various levels of spare-time education. Correspondence and evening courses at the higher education level were developed for rural as well as urban areas.

Productive labor and politics received a great deal of prominence throughout these years. Both of these emphases were combined in the 1964 "Socialist Education Movement." This was "a revolutionary movement for the re-education of the people" by which the working class, including students and teachers, was organized to produce a greater degree of political consciousness. They made progress in building socialism by further developing the three important movements of class struggle, production struggle, and scientific experimentation.⁶⁷ Three hundred thousand youths were reported to have participated in this movement in 1964 alone.⁶⁸ In that same year education departments

⁶⁷"Intensify Socialist Education for the Working Masses," Hung-ch'i [Red Flag], Peking: No. 1 (January 4, 1964), in Translations from Hung-ch'i, No. 1, 1964, p. 6. Translated in JPRS report No. 23,651 (March 12, 1964).

⁶⁸Ku Hung-chang, "Educated Youth Go to the Countryside," China Reconstructs, No. 5, May, 1965, p. 36, in SCMP No. 467 (May 3, 1965), p. 36. Also, see "More Than 300 Thousand Educated Youth Head for Rural Areas and Mountains," Shih-shih Shou-ts'e [Current Events], No. 5, March 6, 1965, p. 30, in Selections from China Mainland Magazines, No. 469 (May 17, 1965), pp. 30-31.

strengthened political ideology by having students study about and emulate Lei Feng. This was known as the "Lei Feng Movement" and likewise emphasized both politics and productive labor. Lei Feng was a Communist soldier who was selected as a model and was being glorified for being satisfied with obscure and unpretentious daily work; he obeyed the Party and was ready to do any assignment given him. Stress in the movement was laid on following his example by urging students to accept any job assignment given them by the Party--whether for advanced study or for rural reconstruction work in the frontier areas. Likewise, students were urged to be both "Red [politically correct] and expert [professionally competent]."

Throughout these years there were continuing demands for reform and for cutting down on the burdens of students. However, since there was disagreement up to the very highest levels as to whether political education, productive labor, militia training, or academic courses should be cut from the curriculum, it remained to be seen what the results of this power struggle would be and how it would affect Chinese Communist education.⁶⁹ These were determined in the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution.

VI. THE PERIOD OF REVOLUTION (1966--)

The Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution of 1966 inaugurated an entirely new phase in Chinese Communist education, but it is not clear just what its results will be on the educational system because it is still in the process of change.

The roots of the struggle leading to the Cultural Revolution go back some years, but the struggle is reported to have reached an unprecedented sharp stage in 1962 at the Spring Festival Round Table Conference

⁶⁹See "Chronology of the Two-Road Struggle. . .," *op. cit.*, pp. 44-50, for an account of this power struggle as it pertains to education.

