

(p. 13), referring to the sable as a member of the weasel family (p. 42), equating 100 verstas with 100 miles (p. 74), dating the founding of Yakutsk to 1640 (p. 95), and calling Yakutia a "country" (*passim*). The legendless map on pages 116–17 is apoplectic; it locates Petropavlovsk-Kamchatsky in Kazakhstan, lists Buriatia as an SSR, confuses the Viliui and Tunguska rivers, mislocates the Urals, and misspells Tobolsk, Yeniseisk, and Kirensk.

Thus, although Mowat at times writes evocatively and arrestingly (as in his descriptions of Lake Baikal [pp. 41–42] and permafrost [pp. 150–52]) and occasionally offers some interesting glimpses into Siberian life (such as the "nature kids," the taiga culture, *valuta* resources, northern transport, and reindeer herding), his generally uncritical and shallow treatment will likely multiply rather than "dispel some of our misconceptions about Siberia," which is his stated purpose (p. viii). Another purpose, as he himself admitted on CBC Radio, was to enjoy the ruble royalties from Russian translations of his books, royalties that can only be spent in the USSR. For a more sober account the reader is advised to consult George St. George's *Siberia* (New York, 1969).

JAMES R. GIBSON  
*York University*

A HISTORY OF JEWISH EDUCATION IN THE SOVIET UNION. By *Elias Schulman*. Institute for East European Jewish Studies, Brandeis University, 3. New York: Ktav Publishing House, 1971. viii, 184 pp. \$10.00.

THE BLACK YEARS OF SOVIET JEWRY, 1939–1953. By *Yehoshua A. Gilboa*. Translated by *Yosef Shachter* and *Dov Ben-Abba*. Boston and Toronto: Little, Brown and the Graduate Center for Contemporary Jewish Studies, Brandeis University, 1971. xiv, 418 pp. \$15.00.

POLAND'S GHETTOS AT WAR. By *Alfred Katz*. New York: Twayne Publishers, 1970. xiii, 175 pp. \$6.00.

RED STAR OVER BETHLEHEM: RUSSIA DRIVES TO CAPTURE THE MIDDLE EAST. By *Ira Hirschmann*. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1971. 192 pp. \$5.95.

Isaac Babel wrote a story in which one of the characters asks, "Can I not have the Sabbath as well as the Revolution?" The unreality of this hope is soon made clear. Indeed, the common background for these four works is the tragic fate of East European Jewry in the twentieth century—the century that saw the promise of emancipation and also witnessed the reality of extermination.

This process is clearly revealed in Schulman's exposé of the fluctuating fortunes of the Jewish school system in Soviet Russia. He begins with an account of the intellectual and cultural ferment in the Pale of Settlement and its concomitant educational problems, which centered on the dual issues of secularism and language of instruction. The language struggle waged by the minority nationalities in Russia and Austria-Hungary impelled the Jews along a similar path. Thus in conjunction with the development of secularizing influences, the idea of a Jewish secular school system emerged, with Yiddish as the language of instruction. In 1908 the first conference for the Yiddish language, held in Czernowitz, proclaimed Yiddish as a "national language of the Jewish people" and demanded "its political, social, and cultural equality." This stand was opposed by Hebraists and Zionists.

The situation changed fundamentally with the advent of the Soviet regime. The language struggle was initially resolved in favor of Yiddish. The conflict now involved the content of education as distinct from its medium. Even so, Schulman makes it clear that Jewish educational officials in Soviet Russia had to emphasize that their work on behalf of the Yiddish language had no connection with Yiddish-speaking activities outside the Soviet Union. They feared the accusation of nationalism. One such official, M. Levitan, said, "The 160,000 pupils who study in the Soviet Yiddish schools must be enclosed within one frame with the 23,000,000 children who study in the schools of the Soviet Union in all languages." Schulman virtually ends his book with the early 1930s, when the Yiddish-language schools reached their zenith, only to yield within a few years to governmental suppression. This volume is a worthy, well-documented addition to the publications of the Brandeis Center.

Gilboa deals with later developments. Governmental antagonism to Jewish culture beginning in the thirties—temporarily interrupted by the war—reached its climax in the early 1950s. Only with the death of Stalin in 1953 was even greater tragedy averted. Even so (and here Gilboa quotes the Polish-Jewish journal *Folksstimme* of November 1956), "The fact that other nationalities suffered, especially in the years 1949 to 1953, does not refute the inescapable fact that not only were the leading Jewish writers and cultural leaders imprisoned and murdered, but the entire Jewish social and cultural life in the Soviet Union was liquidated. And this, to our deep regret, is not a fantasy, but the horrifying truth" (p. 221).

Much has already been written on this aspect of Soviet policy, which is by no means without contemporary relevance. Yet Gilboa's book, scrupulously documented and temperate in tone, has the qualities that make it a work of abiding reference. It is also extremely readable. So far as present evidence allows, here is a remarkable contribution to our knowledge of the campaign against "worthless cosmopolitans," the Crimean affair of 1952, the Prague trial at the end of that year, and the "doctors' plot" early in 1953. Of special value is the lengthy chapter "The National Awakening in Soviet Jewish Literature," which is a comprehensive analysis of the literary reaction to the German anti-Jewish atrocities in occupied Poland and Russia.

At the end Gilboa asks, "Why?" What motives may explain Soviet anti-Semitism? He dismisses any suggestion of ideological motivation. He also makes a sharp distinction between Stalin's own anti-Semitic feelings and theories and his calculation of the possible benefits to be derived from the denunciation of anti-Semitism. Gilboa's final conclusion is that Stalin's anti-Semitic policy in his last years was "essentially reactive": sometimes it seemed to be used as a means of diverting attention from economic difficulties at home; it could also serve as a useful political weapon; it could be used to win Arab support; by identifying the Jews as Westerners it could help to blacken the West in Soviet eyes; and so on. The especial horror of the Black Years arose from the conjunction of supposed *raison d'état* with anti-Semitic instincts. In the elaboration of this argument, Gilboa brings Stalin's Jewish policy into perspective with Soviet developments in general—as indeed he does throughout this most valuable work.

Dr. Katz's aim is to present a picture of Jewish life in wartime Poland, and to give special emphasis to Jewish resistance. He begins with a succinct description of Jewish parties and politics in prewar Poland, and in subsequent chapters covers the establishment of ghettos in Poland, their internal organization, the resistance they offered to the Germans, and relations between Jews and Poles during the war.

Under no circumstances could Katz have had a pretty story to tell, but two features make it especially painful to read. First, there was the disunity among the Jews. In the Bialystok ghetto, for example, although all agreed that they must combine forces against the Germans, no agreement on strategy was attained. Communists and Bundists urged the need to leave the ghetto and join forces with the Partisans in the nearby forests. The Zionists, on the other hand, argued in favor of making a concerted stand within the ghetto itself. Second, there was the evidence of collaboration between certain Polish elements and the Germans in implementing anti-Jewish policies. Through charge and countercharge Katz moves with compelling authority. This is a short book, but it embodies a wealth of material and makes a really useful contribution to both Polish and Jewish wartime history.

Hirschmann is a man with a good heart, but his diplomatic assessment is sometimes naïve; or perhaps it would be more accurate to say that he fails to do himself justice because he has endeavored to cram too much into a short book. Whatever the cause, this volume is little more than a brisk trot, headline after headline, through the familiar story of Russian involvement in the Middle East during the postwar period. The Soviet Union, says the author, has in different ways exploited every weakness of Israel, the United States, and the Arab nations in order to establish itself as a Middle East power. The answer must be a firm declaration by the United States: "Thus far and no farther." It may be that the author has a story to tell, but all he succeeds in presenting here is instant history.

LIONEL KOCHAN  
*University of Warwick*

EDUCATION AND MODERNIZATION IN THE USSR. By *Seymour M. Rosen*. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1971. xviii, 234 pp. \$2.95, paper.

LENIN'S GRANDCHILDREN: PRESCHOOL EDUCATION IN THE SOVIET UNION. By *Kitty D. Weaver*. Photographs by *Henry Weaver*. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1971. 254 pp. \$7.50.

The process by which Soviet citizens are prepared through education to assume their places in society is the common denominator of these books. In other respects they differ markedly in purpose, scope, and methodology.

Seymour M. Rosen is a Soviet and East European comparative education specialist for the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. His book focuses on the relation between education and modernization in the USSR, and purports to help bridge the gap between early works on tsarist educational policies (Nicholas Hans, W. H. E. Johnson, and D. B. Leary) and "the surveys of the post-Sputnik period" (Nicholas DeWitt and Nigel Grant), and to serve the needs of graduate or senior undergraduate students of Soviet education (p. xii).

According to Rosen, education did not "cause" modernization in Russia but did contribute to and reinforce that process (p. 165). The author discusses the techniques used by Soviet agencies of education to direct manpower into those professions and vocations required for planned modernization. These techniques include admissions controls, annual quotas of specialists, coded educational specialties, and governmental priorities for specified research and teacher training. He also indicates weaknesses in the system: inflexibility resulting from a too rigid standardization of the curriculum; differences in the quality of full-time education, work-study