WORLD ORGANISATION FOR EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

O. M. E. P.

(Organisation Mondiale pour l'Education Préscolaire)

Report of the 5th World Conference
held at Den sociale skole, Copenhagen
15th to 21st August, 1954
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Price 4/-
Under the flags of 14 nations

Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Great Britain, Finland, France, Jugoslavia, Norway, South Africa, Sweden and the United States of America were represented at the 5th World Assembly of OMEP by national delegates or observers. Israel had, according to the Statutes, transferred their voting rights. Australia and Lebanon sent working papers for the commissions and material to the exhibition.

Greece sent hearty greetings. UNESCO was officially represented by Dr. Foster.

The Italian National Committee sent their reasons as to why they were not attending. A motion answering this protest was unanimously adopted by the Assembly (see page 33).

After the Council meeting of January 16th and 17th 1954 OMEP was in some danger of dissolution as a result of developments arising from the Assembly in Mexico 1952. A Scandinavian proposal, based on a protest made by the USA delegation in Mexico, had been rejected by the Council. The majority vote was exercised by two deputies who were not members of the Council. At this meeting of the Council, the National Committee of India was also refused recognition.

The Founder President of OMEP, Lady Allen of Hurtwood, the President, Mme Herbinière-Lebert, the two Vice-Presidents, Mlle Alice Claré and Mr Harald Flensmark and the General Secretary, Mme Claire Sauvier then decided to meet these extraordinary circumstances by extraordinary measures. As several of the more important National Committees declined to take part in a Rome Assembly it was decided to hold the 5th Assembly in Copenhagen.

So that voting rights might be allocated at the Assembly without controversy it was decided that the Credentials Committee should be composed of representatives of indisputable National Committees that had belonged to OMEP since its foundation and had taken part in the Assemblies in Paris 1949 and in Vienna 1950 and had also fulfilled their obligations according to the Statutes. Austria, Belgium, Denmark, France, Great Britain, Italy, Mexico and Sweden satisfied these conditions.

As Italy and Mexico refused to send delegates to Copenhagen, the Credentials Committee consisted of Lady Allen, Mlle Claré, Mr Flensmark, Mme Herbinière-Lebert, Miss Schill, Mr Tesarek and the General Secretary (without voting rights). The votes were distributed as follows: South Africa (1), Austria (7), Belgium (7), Denmark (7), France (7), Great Britain (7), Israel (7, votes transferred), Norway (3), Sweden (7), Jugoslavia (7).

The Assembly unanimously adopted the Scandinavian proposal that each recognized National Committee should appoint one delegate to the Council, and each Preparatory Committee should appoint one observer, without voting rights.

The Statutes and By-Laws were amended in accordance with this principle.

The General Assembly in Copenhagen was held in full harmony. Not less than 1,100 friends of OMEP attended a public meeting in the Town Hall, addressed by
Lady Allen of Hurtwood and Mme Herbinière-Lebert. The latter was given the title of Founder President by the Assembly as an expression of gratitude for the work she had done for OMEP since 1948. The Assembly decided that India should be offered full recognition as a National Committee.

When the 14 flags were taken down, to the tunes of old Viking-Lures, it was felt by everyone that the Copenhagen Assembly had taken a stride forward in the work for mutual understanding and international collaboration in the field of early childhood education.

Address of Welcome

By Mr. H. Horsten
Chief of the Division of Child Welfare,
Ministry of Social Affairs.

It is with special pleasure that I in the name of the Ministries of Education and Social Affairs have the honourable duty of bidding the delegates of OMEP's 5th world congress welcome to Copenhagen. OMEP, as you all know, was formed with the object of establishing an international organization to protect and assist small children, to strengthen the background, basis and development of the home and the family, and also the nursery school. As an organization for the education of pre-school children, it has, in my opinion, an aim that embodies some of the finest and most valuable purposes conceivable nowadays; for the work on behalf of little children undoubtedly ranks among the most fundamental undertakings for the future of our whole civilization. This work for the children, therefore, is one of the objects that commands the very greatest interest of the ministries.

We have assembled this time to discuss matters relating to the nursery school teachers, since the main subject of the congress, is "The selection, training and supplementary instruction of the teachers of pre-school children". In the community of to-day, the nursery schools and, by the way, the crèches also, are becoming increasingly important.

As the oldest preventive institutions came into existence as a result of industrialization and a heavy migration to the towns, it was quite natural that the social significance of the institutions has been in the forefront right from the beginning. Those who took a special advantage of the institutions were the working-class women, who had to have somewhere to put their children while they went out to work. Under the present-day conditions too, the social importance of the institutions is very considerable, especially in cases where the mother is the sole supporter, or where both husband and wife go out to work. In this way the nursery schools have taken on a twofold significance: they preserve the economic basis of home life, and they see to it that the children are not neglected while the mother goes out to work.

During recent years, the educational importance of the nursery school teacher has come to be appreciated more and more. The view has been generally accepted, at least in this country, that nursery schools have a definite task in supplementing the natural education provided in the homes of the children themselves. Equally so the community has realised the importance of having attached to the pre-school institutions teachers who have undergone the training required. In Denmark we have, therefore, made it a rule that in future the educational tasks of the nursery school will be entrusted only to persons who have been through the 2-years training provided by our excellent training colleges for nursery school teachers.

To illustrate the great interest which is being shown in this country in the training of nursery school teachers, I should like to mention that a proposal submitted by the Danish Ministry of Education is now being considered, concerning the establishment of an advanced course for certificated nursery school teachers, inter
alia with a view to persons who are to take over positions as heads of nursery schools or of combined institutions under the preventive child welfare system.

As far as the crèches are concerned, the educational aspect is not so greatly emphasized, because, at any rate up to the present time, looking after the physical welfare of the children in the best manner possible, has been considered to be their principal task. In more recent times, it has, however, become appreciated more than ever before that a certain spiritual influence is of great importance for the infants' later development, and that it is difficult to give sufficient attention to this aspect of infant welfare. In this country, therefore, we consider it important that children should not be sent to crèches until they are at least one year old.

That we in Denmark have realized the importance of nursery schools and crèches, is indeed clearly demonstrated by the fact that considerable subsidies are paid out of public funds towards the establishment and running of these institutions. The only conditions for obtaining these subsidies are that the institutions conform to certain requirements as to the arrangement and equipment of the premises, the financial circumstances of the parents and the training of the personnel, etc., whereas the religious or other ideals of the institution are not taken into consideration.

In my opinion, we are concerned here with a domain in which the different countries can learn a lot from each other, and where, therefore, an international organization may serve a most useful purpose. It is my definite impression that during the years that the organization has existed, it has succeeded in discharging these tasks in the very best manner, not only through educational work within the individual countries, but also through the important co-operation with UNESCO, for which, as we all know OMEP has solved quite a number of specific tasks.

I therefore take this very welcome opportunity of thanking all the women and men who have contributed, and are contributing, their efforts within this noble organization for the splendid work which they have done. I wish to express my thanks not least to Madame Herbinière-Lebert, the World President, and to Lady Allen of Hurtwood, who are both present here to-day, and to Dr. Foster, the representative of UNESCO. At the same time, I should like to convey to you the compliments of the Ministries of Education and Social Welfare, as the ministers, unfortunately, have been prevented from attending this meeting.

I am firmly convinced that the work to which we should like to contribute - the bringing up of the children - will greatly profit by the results of this world congress. For it is somehow a fact that to obtain the full benefit of the work of an international organization numbering members in many different countries, the members must meet personally at congresses, for it is just this personal contact that provides an opportunity for the best exchange of valuable experience and new impulses. On behalf of Denmark, then, I welcome you most cordially to this country.

Modern psychological research in the field of early childhood education

by Mrs. Åse Gruda Skard

Whenever and wherever there is a child present, something is bound to happen. When more children are together much will happen all the time. We all have experiences of how a child falls down, how children start hitting each other, how a child retreats into a corner and refuses to leave it, how a child refuses to eat, how a child disobeys when we don't expect it and suddenly is helpful in another situation, how a child one day understands what he did not understand the previous day, or manages some task he never managed before, how a sudden smile or expression of affection on the part of the child throws warmth into our existence.

All such situations and many, many more must be handled in one way or another. We as adults, as responsible in some capacity, react to all that happens in and with the children around us. We react in a different way today than adults did a generation or two ago, and we talk about "old" and "new" education. The difference between this old and new education has many causes, but I think we may gather them in two main themes: For one thing, our conception of human beings generally has changed and we have included children in the category of real human beings with their rights, responsibilities and individualities. Second, we have acquired a different kind of perspective in our view of education. Whereas the old education was mainly concerned with the Here and Now, the immediate effect of treatment as seen from the adult standpoint, the new education is concerned with the causes of a child's behaviour and the long-range effect of the treatment as seen from the viewpoint of the individual child, the causes in terms of abilities, past experience and ways of reaction in the child, and the long-range effect in terms of the formation of total personality of the individual child. Paradoxically we might say in the old education one would express the attitude towards the child in words such as "You are little - I must teach you to behave like the adults." In the new education we might say: "You are little - and a human being. How do you experience this situation? What in your personality makes you behave like that? How can I help you at your own present level so that you will be happy now and later grow into a responsible adult person able to utilize your potentialities for your own good and for the benefit of society?"

In order to function in a way conforming to the ideals of the new education it is evident that we need more knowledge of what a child - any child - is like, than was needed in old days, more knowledge of what is happening in the process of growing up from infant through childhood into adulthood as well as more knowledge of what one particular individual child is like as different from other individuals. In other words, we need much more knowledge of psychology in all our work with all our communication with the children.

What would be the chapters of child psychology that we need most? Actually, we need knowledge of three kinds.
We need knowledge of processes that go on in all children—growth processes, learning processes, interplay of growth and learning. We would like answers to such questions as: What can we expect from children at a certain level of development? What can we expect will happen next, in the nearest future? What kind of experiences and treatment will children of certain ages be most susceptible to? What is the hardest strain on children of each developmental stage? What do children understand and how do they think at various levels?

We need knowledge of the individual differences that we may expect, which means to know about the variations of inborn equipment within normal ranges, of possible variations in the growth process and also to know about the effects of past experience, present surroundings, individual conflicts, and the expectations of the future that a child may harbour. And we need knowledge of the interplay of individuals in smaller or larger groups. We need to know about the relationship between a child and the grown-ups around him; between his eyes and his heart; and so forth. And we need to know about social relationships between a child and his peers, the interplay of children in a group of two or three or more.

Now, does psychological research of today give us answers to these questions? Can we find in really scientific investigations the facts and the knowledge that we need?

When we look into research in child psychology today, we must be struck by the variety of the work that is going on, but also by the pending dissatisfaction among the research workers themselves. It is as if they were waiting for something new, some new synthesis, or some new and clarifying hypotheses. It seems to me that we are in a stage of transition, that we are at the end of a period of piecemeal research of small areas and very limited problems, and that we are at the first dawn of something new. Maybe this new approach will grow out of all the very different approaches to child psychology that we can find today. Research into child psychology has grown out of or is connected with the interests in other fields of research or psychological hypotheses of various kinds. For a survey of the more important parts of psychological research we may use these related fields or general hypotheses as starting points. In the following I shall try to outline some of the main areas of present-day research and use some examples from specific investigations. These examples will mainly be taken from American research work which I happen to know more thoroughly than the work in other countries at present. Of course, this does not in itself imply an evaluation or a distribution of quality as much quite as important material might be supplemented from Europe and other parts of the world. The research work I am going to talk about I shall try to place in four main groups relating to theories of growth, learning theories, psycho-analytical and other clinical systems, and theories derived from anthropological and sociological work.

I

Children's growth in height and weight, the changes in body proportions, etc., have been measured through generations. It was only natural that psychologists would in the same way try to investigate the growth in behavior and reactions patterns in children. This could be done in two different ways: either by following the same children in their individual growth, such as done already by Preyer, Scupin, Stern and other of the early child psychologists—or by examining a great number of different children at each age level, as started by Binet and followed by Terman and innumerable others. In a different way Piaget has been one of the pioneers in this area by his investigations of the growth of thinking in children. The first difficulty in such work as compared to research in physical growth was that no reliable instrument of measurement was available. The tools for measuring psychological growth had to be invented as was done in the creation of tests of various kinds in the work of Binet, Gesell, Charlotte Bühler and others. Even this work is yet far from terminated. We can still see how people like Psyche Cattell, Nancy Bayley, Ruth Griffith (England) and many others are still struggling to construct finer tests for the measurement of stages of development. And even when excellent tests have been created in one country we cannot simply take these tools over for use we apply the units of grammes and meters from one country to another. All tests have to be modified for a new language, new cultural ways of reactions, etc. So additional work in this field must be done in all our countries and has been performed by e.g. Carin Ulin in Sweden. Often a variation of tests must be constructed for urban and rural children also.

Even when the tests are ever so well constructed they must first of all be used for the establishment of norms before we can know what they mean. What is the common reaction to these tests at various ages? and how wide is the spread of variation within the normal range? While Gesell and his followers have been most concerned about the central trend of development from age level to age level, others have been more interested in how children may differ in various respects and still be "normal".

Parallel to the work by Gesell, Ilg and collaborators in establishing the norms for typical behaviour for children at one year, two years, etc., is the work by Willard Olson and his helpers in Ann Arbor, Mich. While Gesell, etc., have focussed their attention on the motor and intellectual behaviour of growing children, Willard Olson has specialized his work in coordinating the body behaviour and the abilities in such school subjects as reading readiness working on the hypothesis that maturity is the important feature more than training, or rather, that training is useless or even harmful when applied before a certain degree of maturity is reached. Therefore, Willard Olson is concerned not only with how we generally may expect at certain age levels but no less with the individual differences in various traits, and in following these individual variations through the ages.

As norms are becoming better established (e.g. by the careful and impressive work done by Nancy Bayley), the question of individual variations may come to the foreground to a higher degree. Here the work by Sibylle Escalona should be mentioned. She, as well as a group of collaborators, has investigated very thoroughly a group of 128 babies, 16 in each age group, from 4 weeks to 32 weeks, in order to find how they differ and whether certain traits then go together. She picks out e.g. the two most active and the two most passive babies in each group, and investigates whether activity has any connection with dexterity, irritability, motor development, sensory development, reactions to food, etc. Simultaneously, one of her collaborators (Grace Heider) has taken up the problem of how these differences arise and what variations one may expect in this field.

On the whole, one might say that the main question for psychologists is: how do human beings develop, what can we expect of children as they grow, what are the normal sequences in growth of motor development, intellectual traits, emotional behaviour, etc. (in that order), and how are such sequences related to body growth and age level?

The results of these investigations help us to anticipate certain reactions and behaviour patterns in every child as he grows, and also to know what traits in his behaviour are symptomatic considered symptoms of something personal and unusual, maybe even pathological.
Children don't only grow, they are also influenced by their experiences – they learn. Now, how do they learn? John B. Watson and the behaviourists considered practically all behaviour as acquired by learning, and learning through the conditioned reactions. The question of reinforcement, gestalt patterning, motivation, etc. in the learning process is still central to many psychologists, and much work is being done in this field, particularly with experiments on rats. But human learning is of course at least as important, and experiments on various forms of learning in children are going on in many places.

The conditioned reaction-type experiments have been refined and are particularly applied to the research on the autonomous nervous system. Thus, John Lacey at Fels Institute in Ohio is performing a series of experiments worth following. He has both made important observations on the individual differences in these systems, and on such learning of which the individual may be entirely unconscious. He e.g. subjects an individual to a long series of stimuli, some of which are followed by shock (such as sudden ice-cold water over one foot, etc.). In the series, some stimuli are repeated, and at the end of certain involved constellations, the shock is always applied. The constellations are too difficult for any individual to learn, and all after-examinations reveal that the individuals are unable to give any kind of explanation or cue on which to react. Still, the registrations of reactions in the autonomous system, such as sweat secretion, breathing, blood pressure, heart-beat, etc. show that the individual learns, and that gradually the shock is anticipated by the organism through unconscious learning. This experiment is extremely important, in that it demonstrates how an individual will react to stimuli even without knowing about it itself, and how the organism learns independently of conscious perception.

At the same Fels Institute another psychologist, Glenn Heathers, is investigating another aspect of learning, namely, the learning of independence and dependence in children of nursery school age. He registers carefully the reactions of two-year old children in a situation that is new to them, and studies at the same time the mother’s treatment of the child, as well as the mother’s own adjustment to difficulties, so as to find how she encourages or discourages independence in her child. This is similar to observations made by most nursery school teachers, but some future investigations different from our present program will be necessary, namely, that the behavior of the children in a new situation is registered in detail and written down in a form that makes it available to further data analysis, that these new situations are standardized for the different children, that the data concerning the mothers are similar and comparable, and that in this case, the children as well as their mothers are known to the examiner through careful testing and observation even from before the birth of the child, since the Fels Institute follows its “families” very carefully from pregnancy on in longitudinal research.

Such investigations that are inspired by the different theories of learning will, for our practical use, give us information about the way in which children are influenced by our teaching and treatment of them on the whole, what praise and punishment may mean to them, how they acquire not only academic subjects such as understanding pictures, learning nursery rhymes, etc., but how they learn to be independent or dependent, how very much of the learning that goes on will be on a subconscious level, and how the status of the total organism will come into the picture of any learning process.

Research is not limited to the study of how children grow and learn; no less intriguing to psychologists is the question of why specific things happen or individual children behave as they do. This question is particularly approached by those who in one form or another are inspired by clinical psychology and especially by psychoanalysis or other forms of “depth psychology”. The psychoanalytical research work and hypotheses have brought much new insight into the continual development of the individual, both child and adult. It has also brought into the limelight the unconscious processes of the child, in a way that is quite different from the methods applied by research in learning. Psychoanalysis has emphasized the importance of childhood experiences for later development. And it has given us new insight into the involved relationship between the child and its parents. All these hypotheses have been developed mainly by examination of the past of adults or older children. Different clinical methods have yielded information about the way in which the present character of the individual, his conflicts and peculiarities, have their root in earlier experience. But it is evident that psychologists will feel a great need to verify all these many hypotheses by examination of the growing organisms themselves, to follow in the processes of the present what is sometime going to be the past experiences of the individual. Both directly and indirectly psychoanalysis, child guidance work and other forms of clinical psychology have inspired new research in the growing children and their surroundings.

Directly, psychoanalytic reconstruction of the past of the individual has called forth some intensive longitudinal research projects in which the same children are followed more or less closely through their emotional development and the experiences of contact with their parents. In the U. S. A., such work is going on at Yale University, in Denver, Colorado and at the Putnam Center in Boston, Mass. In all these places, investigation starts with a psychological examination of the mother during pregnancy. John Benjamin in Denver takes in five to six new cases every year; the Yale groups with Milton Senn, Kathe Wolf and Ernst Kris as the leaders have limited themselves to ten cases, and at the Putnam Center the plan includes only three families.

Numerically, these studies are built on a very limited material, but the idea is to follow each case very carefully through a long period of years and to observe, if possible, the effect of parents’ attitudes to and treatment of the children as well as the processes in inhibition, repression, projection, regression, the effect of frustration and similar difficult unconscious processes.

Child guidance work has directly inspired much research that is of the greatest importance for our treatment of both normal and devious children. One of the most advanced of these studies is the so-called “Guidance Project” directed by Jean MacFarlane in Berkeley, Calif. Dr. MacFarlane started out with the question in mind whether the guidance given to children and parents in the clinics was of any real use, or whether maybe just growth would have cured the difficulties in the families. She selected every third child born in Berkeley during a certain period, and divided the families into two groups, of which one was given continuous guidance, the other not. Both groups were investigated regularly from the time the babies were 21 months old until they were 17 years old, and later whenever possible. Both physical and psychological measurements were used, but also projective tests, observations in nursery schools and later in grade school, and the mothers were interviewed about their treatment of the children, the family situation, etc. Particular attention was paid to problems that occurred during the years, and one of the next publications to appear is a survey of the problems found
in the group that did not receive any guidance, when the problems appeared and if such was the case, when they disappeared again. This investigation may indicate what problems are common at certain age levels, and what difficulties children are likely to encounter in a normal life and cope with all by themselves. Later, the family constellation and its influence on the children will be investigated similarly, and the material will yield results both with regard to the different age groups and their common traits, and to the development of each certain case in its growth and learning process.

The problem of how children are able to cope with the difficulties they encounter in their lives is also the topic of the present research work being done by Lois Murphy. She tries to collect material from many different sources, observing children in various play situations, following them in their experiences in their homes, etc., all in order to find out how ordinary children can solve their problems and cope with their difficulties without getting stuck in them as neurotic children do.

Another attempt has also been made to find out more about children who are not neurotic or maladjusted. Grace Langdon and Irving Stout have already published two books about "These Well-Adjusted Children". They selected from the earliest nursery school through college 200 children who work along with other children and adults, who work well and are happy. The children were all traced back to their homes in order to find out what kind of surroundings the well-adjusted children come from. To general surprise, it was found that a large part of these children were from broken homes, some were adopted, or were not foster-children at all. But the great majority came from ordinary homes such as most children do everywhere. An attempt was made to find out the factors in the homes that make for this good adjustment, but only rather superficial methods were used in this first attempt. Anyway, the investigation shows us that broken homes, the situation concerning an adopted or foster-child are not in themselves the cause of maladjustment, even though we find so many maladjusted children with such backgrounds. The problem must, evidently, be analysed more deeply.

The causes of maladjustment have been a matter of much research ever since William Healy published his famous "Individual Delinquent" in 1915. The work is still continued at his old institution "The Judge Baker Guidance Center" in Boston, now under the leadership of George Gardener, and at other child guidance clinics, though the time left for research is usually too limited. The new approach to this problem is taken up by Fritz Redl who has a department at a large of these mental hospitals in Washington, working exclusively with research on problem children. Some of his earlier work in this field was published in the books "Children who Hate" and "Control from Within". Like most research on maladjusted children, the work by Fritz Redl and his associates is psychoanalytical in its hypotheses and research methods, but Redl is also strongly interested in the more general hypotheses of growth, and in the ordinary interplay of child and surroundings. As Freud has already demonstrated, treatment of neuroses and other mental disturbances in Washington brought out actual processes in human mind and gives us new insight in the dynamics of psychological life yielding us better understanding of what is actually going on in the organism and why behaviour and emotions appear in certain manners.

How is a neurosis in its beginning? What are the reasons for maladjustment and delinquency? How can we diagnose psychosis, neurosis or delinquency at an early stage, in order to be able to prevent its development? Much of the research on early childhood has this problem as one of the minor themes, especially in the longitudinal studies of children (such as the work of MacFarlane, Yale or Denver).

John E. Anderson and his staff in Minneapolis have approached the problem in a different way. In a small community in Minnesota, every child in school in 1950 was examined with careful testing methods, both verbal and projective. The same children were reexamined even more carefully in 1954, and will be followed with various research methods at regular intervals. At each stage, an attempt is made to predict maladjustment; as the years go by, all maladjusted individuals will be picked out for further analysis, and their previous records will be examined for symptoms that might at that earlier date have indicated the beginnings of mental disturbances. It is, of course, extremely important that one should be able to spot maladjustment early, in order to prevent its later development.

Psychoanalysis, childhood guidance and other forms of dynamic psychology have stressed the importance of the relationship of a child to other human beings, setting up many special hypotheses such as the Oedipus complex, the importance of infant-mother relationship in the first year of life for later schizophrenia, the influence on the individual character of sibling jealousy, or the place in the sibling group, etc.

Many attempts are being made to check the reliability of such hypotheses. Thus, the above-mentioned research projects going on at Yale, the Fels Institute, and in Berkeley all try to investigate the role of the parents in the children's lives, the relationship of parents and children at various ages, the importance of the parents' educational system and their attitudes at a particular time for the further development. Similarly, Percival Symonds and Eva Nordland after him have tried through questionnaires and observations to approach the same problem and has published the results in a couple of much-quoted books. The research up to fairly recently on the relationship of infant and mother, and the effect of a missing infant-mother relationship has been summarized in the well-known book "Maternal Care and Mental Health" by John Bowlby (England). But new research is forthcoming, and we should be on the lookout for such material. We may expect to gain a better understanding of children at all ages if we know what in the first place influences the different direction of further development.

A study of the effect of various attitudes and practices in parents on the development of aggression and dependency in children is being undertaken by Robert and Pauline Sears and their associates. More than 300 children took part in this study, all around four-five years of age. The parents were questioned about the way in which the children were treated during the previous years. The children were observed in nursery school, and in standardized doll-play situations, and were found out how highly frustrated at home are more aggressive in pre-school, but more research had to be done in order to ascertain the causal relationship of such facts - whether active children will be both more frustrated and more aggressive, whether the aggressiveness stems from the great amount of frustration, or whether something else will be the basic explanation. This research with its roots in dynamic psychology reminds us of the Glenn Heather's research with learning theories as its background. And it is interesting to see how psychologists starting from different basic viewpoints still may end up by working on detailed research projects which are quite similar to one another.

Not only the child's relationship to adults is of interest to the psychologists. Also, the children's mutual relationship is important, not least the relationship of siblings. Is really jealousy the prevailing emotion among siblings? Is the personality definitely influenced by the individual's place in the group of siblings?

Helen Koch in Chicago has studied 144 pairs of siblings of two children families in all possible constellations: older boy - younger brother, older boy - younger sister, etc., and varying age differences, less than 3 years' interval, 3-5 years, etc. She has 24 different groups, with 6 pairs in each group. It takes time to work out
the involved statistical calculations, but the results will be illuminating and trustworthy. So far she finds e.g. that the most difficult relationship seems to be between two sisters when the age difference is fairly large. But she also tries to find out whether one or another ordinal position will make for more or less friendliness towards schoolmates, quarrelsomeness, obedience, choice of friends, etc. The results should help us considerably in the understanding of the individual children we have around us.

Gradually, other children mean more and more to a growing child, but what do they mean? How do they act towards each other? Why do they prefer one child to another? What is the effect of such preferences on those who are preferred or rejected? Research is in its beginning stage in this field. Ever since Charlotte Bühler published her first investigations in some of these problems, psychologists have been working on them. Sociometric methods have meant a great improvement of tools in this field. Studies in the dynamic forces within groups of children at various ages are mainly carried out at the nursery schools that are part of a university. Many of the children who are studied during long time are observed in such nursery schools (Yale, Berkeley), but in even more places, these investigations are carried out as specific research projects. Let me mention e.g. Boyd MacCandless in Iowa who tries to find out the variations in children's preferences for other children as expressed in their actual behaviour and in their verbal expressions of likes and dislikes. The words and actions don't always coincide - a fact that we should remember.

While relationship to mother, siblings, teachers and companions has been a matter of great attention in psychology, the relationship between father and child is greatly neglected. It is true that such research speaks about "parents", but usually it is the mother who is meant, or perhaps the mother and father are described together. Recently, however, Lois Meek Stolz has made a study of the father-child relationship in families where the father was away during the war, maybe without even having had an opportunity to see the child until it was some years old. Realizing the importance of this father-child relationship, Mrs. Stolz is now writing a book on child psychology for fathers. In our long term project in Oslo, we have all the time considered the fathers to be of great importance in the lives of the children, so we from the very beginning included the fathers directly in the investigation, even before the baby was born.

Thus, psychoanalysis and clinical psychology on the whole have brought both new insight and new inspiration to child psychology. The problem of forces influencing children, and interior drives coming to the fore in the individual as growth proceeds and situations vary, the understanding of individual differences in terms of past experiences and the formation of personality as an interplay of dynamic forces within and around the growing organism - the study of deviant children as a product of inherited potentialities and traumatic experiences working at vulnerable stages of the growing organism - directly or indirectly, all research in these fields is derived from clinical psychology and from one or another of the psychoanalytical schools.

IV

From other parts of the scientific world, child psychology is just now being subject to strong impulses that in future will increasingly give inspiration to new research. Anthropology and sociology have both contributed new knowledge and raised new problems in our field. Only recently, the anthropologists became aware of child-rearing problems as one of the significant traits in different cultures. And only recently, the sociologists have given us facts that lead to the realization of the variation in child-rearing in different social classes. But these newly brought out facts have already been of decisive importance to new research in childpsychology. The work of modern anthropologists like Ruth Benedict and Margaret Mead, and of sociologists like Robert and Helen Lynd have made the psychologists aware of new problems.

By cooperation with research workers from these various fields, new vistas have been opened of great promise for future research. And, by necessity, these research projects will gradually have to be applied to established knowledge and methods from many fields of child psychology. Tools like developmental tests, projective tests, methods from clinical psychology, etc. will be used in new ways and for new purposes. Hypotheses from various fields may be tried on their validity from these new points of view.

One of the most active groups of psychologists, sociologists and anthropologists is to be found in Chicago. Under the leadership of Robert Havighurst much research is being devoted to the differences of child-rearing in different social classes, and the effect of this child-rearing on the personality of the individual. Havighurst and Allison Davies have published a popular book, "The Father of the Man", that makes a comparison of the upbringing of children in middle-class and lower-class culture in Chicago, with special reference to the attitude towards aggression in different milieus. Ernest Haggard tries to find the effect of varying parental pressure in different social groups on the achievement of children in school, their personality and their relationship to other children. Robert Hess studies the forms of discipline and other factors of child-rearing in different social groups in order to find out to what extent and for what reasons children resemble their parents in behaviour and attitudes. And Allison Davies studies the differences in children from different social classes in their total social life, what clubs they choose to belong to, what part they take in club activities, and how they tackle the problems they encounter in school classes. (He is more interested in the effect of social mobility, in a family that is on its way to a higher social level or the opposite, than in the problems of socially stable families.)

A different approach to the psychological-sociological problems is found in Roger Barker and his associates. Barker asks the questions: What is the real world that the children live in? What are their daily experiences? What will ordinary children in an ordinary community encounter of frustrations, pleasures, opportunities for games, participation in the life of adults, etc? - So, in the little town called Midwest, the whole community has been studied in order to find out how it appears to the children of various ages. Where are the children at each age level allowed to be present? Where do they spend the greater part of their time? How do other people treat them? What does Nature supply of opportunities for satisfaction? The first results of all these observations were published in the book "One Boy's Day", but more will follow, all of which should open our eyes to an understanding of what life is actually like for our own children in our own communities.

What life is like to children in different cultures from the very beginning has been taken up systematically in a different manner by Jules Henry. He had careful observations made in an American hospital of mothers and babies during the first 7-10 days of a baby's life, and found that the attitude of the mothers is a true expression of the culture in which they lived, that success, accomplishment and alertness were expected and highly evaluated by their mothers even in very newborn babies. And he compares this expectation with the attitude of the parents in the tribe of Pilaga Indians where a very different cultural pattern prevails. The idea is, that if we could have similar studies of these differences in cultures, we
would know more about the possible general effect of surroundings and treatment than we do today.

As we see, not only children of different social classes have been compared with one another, but also children of different nations or cultures that are quite dissimilar. The psychologists, Wayne Dennis, has studied and published a book about the Hopi Indian children. Other cultures have been studied by teams of psychologists and anthropologists, and the work is increasing in scope and interests. We have in Norway a study of this kind going on in a part of Oslo where children are followed both in their development and in their changing surroundings in order to find out how these children are treated, and how they respond to the treatment through the years.

Very important in this field is the recent book by the psychologist, Irving Child and the anthropologist, John Whiting, entitled “Child Care and Personality”. The book surveys a multitude of cultures with their child-rearing practices, and the effect of these practices on certain aspects of adult life. It shows very clearly both how large and complicated the problems are that must be solved, and how little we still have of really good material for comparison of child development in various cultures.

Actually, the question asked by Roger Barker is a question that we may all put to ourselves: what is “real life” like to a specific child? What is the home culture in which he lives? In answering it, the variations in cultures from one country to another, and from one social group to another must make us cautious in applying the facts found in one setting to children from a different setting. On the other hand, similarities in child reactions in spite of different cultures will give us indications of what is generally human, inherent in the human species. But first of all, these investigations have a message to all nations, that research in child psychology must be duplicated in many cultures, so that we may find out more about what is common and what differs in child-rearing and child development.

VI

In my opinion, the future of child psychology at the present juncture lies in a fresh combination of various methods.

a) Comparative research in different countries is necessary and will prove fruitful in many types of psychological investigation, both regarding the problems of growth and the problems of specific cultural patterns.

b) New research in dynamic processes will be no less required, perhaps by means of more exact methods than we have so far been able to invent, and by careful and reiterated investigations which may further increase the number of examined cases in different milieus, and also make the observations increasingly exact.

c) The problem of interpersonal relationship will necessarily be in focus of much research, combined with the growth problem, since the relationship may differ in terms of varying developmental levels. And the problem of growth and development is far from solved; e.g., we need very much more factual knowledge about the vulnerability of various developmental stages to various frustrations and strains.

One great difficulty in child psychology of today is to find methods for investigation that are inclusive enough and still manageable. We float between limiting our data too much so that important facts may be omitted, and collecting so comprehensive a body of facts that we lost our way in trying to analyze them.

Many turn away from research in child psychology for these reasons. It is easier to make experiments with rats. It is easier to handle sensible adults. It is easier to put an infant into a laboratory where environmental factors are limited. It is easier to examine senses and reflexes than internal drives and emotional conflicts. It is certainly not easy to trace the causes and effects through a longer part of life, to see the effects of stimuli at one stage on the reactions several years later.

But in this work as in most research work, patience is required, patience both in those who do the research and in those who wait for the results of this research.

Still we may ask even today: how can the piece-meal results of research in child psychology that are at present available be of any use to us in our actual work with children? How can parents, foster-parents, workers in children’s homes, orphanages, nursery schools, day nurseries, teachers, etc. find anything in present child psychology that may be of real help? What shall we look for in this vast field where only such a small section is as yet cultivated? Is child psychology really of any assistance to us?

If such ideas beset us, let us try to estimate soberly what child psychology has doubtlessly given us and is still giving us of knowledge and insight. First, we know very much more today than we did some years ago about what we can expect from a child at a specific age, what growth brings to the developmental levels. Much in child behaviour that baffled previous generations is not so surprising to us anymore; we know a fair amount about the characteristic behaviour and reactions of a child of one year, two years, etc. Thus, we also know more about behaviour patterns that will disappear “by themselves” and which, therefore, will give us less worry than our predecessors may have experienced. We will also be able to make more reasonable demands at the various age levels; we know more about what a child can manage at a specific age, and we are better able to make the demands not too difficult nor too easy for each developmental stage.

Secondly, we are much more certain in interpreting behaviour than earlier generations. We know more about behaviour as symptomatic to certain age levels, as signs of satisfied or unsatisfied needs, as reaction to other people, as indicator of certain inner conflicts and of possible past experiences. We know very much more about the importance of unconscious drives, motives and conflicts. And we know a little more about the impact of cultures and subcultures in the life of the child. When a child withdraws from social situations, or refuses to eat, or clings to the mother, or destroys the game for other children, we don’t judge these actions as naughty or “impossible” any longer; we have means to make a sensibly reliable diagnosis of what such behaviour may mean.

Thirdly, we know more about how to treat children and how to teach them than was common before. We know more about what a child will be mature enough to learn, and what teaching method will best suit his developmental stage. We know more about the effect of our own actions on the child, what punishment or rejection or praise or love may mean to a child. We know more about the relationship of a child to his mother and to his teacher as it actually appears in his own mind. Because we understand somewhat better the reasons for a child’s withdrawal or clinging, of food refusal or destructiveness, we also may handle these cases better.

Last, but not least, we know that the child is a totality where past and present go together, where home, school and culture melt into one, a unit where inner drives and pressure from without, memories, perceptions and imagination all work simultaneously in the same or in opposite directions.

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Still, there is much that we don't know and where research is needed and where acquiring new knowledge is useful. It is true that research scholars in psychology frequently cannot find satisfactory methods and often don't reach reliable results. It is true that educators frequently cannot find in psychological literature the directions and explanations they most need, and often are irritated by the divergent viewpoints prevailing among psychologists and their occasional contradictory opinions and results. Yet research has given us the basis on which to build our treatment of children. And it is important to keep up with the research as it develops, not only for results which may be of practical help to us in our attitude towards children and our treatment of them, but first of all for the general stimulation it may give us towards objective observation and a deeper understanding of the life in children's groups and their relationship to other people, of the stages of development that all children go through, and of the conditions and reactions in each individual child.

Education as an Art
By Mme S. Herbinière-Lébert

As the training of nursery school teachers is one of the working themes of our Congress, I thought it would be worth while considering what this particular work of education involves.

Like all other professions, it has its own technique and procedures and is inspired by various methods.

These methods and this technique are based on a theoretical knowledge and on the science of education which is linked together with many other sciences.

The training Commission will enumerate the acquirements that are indispensable to a good educator, all of which are closely associated with knowledge of the child and its environment, and with the practical performance of the work entailed with this profession - knowledge of physiology and hygiene, of the psychology of the child at various ages as well as the different types of children, of the education and psychological aspects of society (parents, grandparents, brothers and sisters) group psychology as well as knowledge of the laws and social work for the protection of the child and the home.

Indeed, the teacher must not forget that the life is the greater part of its life with its family, and that it is the task of the school to try and maintain some unity in the life of the child.

In this task of education the teacher and the parents collaborate. She gives them indispensable help and she should also be able to give them advice if needs be.

But even though these acquirements are a great asset to the Nursery School teacher in her work, even though it is expedient that she possesses a certain amount of technique, knows certain procedures and is trained in various methods of teaching, yet none of these remedies - indispensable though they be - is the essential quality in an educator.

Education is a science but, primarily, it is an art. Art is personal expression - inimitable and incommunicable - which gives, to this profession, its character of something unique.

It is our task to shape personalities - themselves unique - and to this end we must have the means of communication.

The educator of young children does not only appeal to their intellect, nor does she try to be understood by means of words - indeed a very poor instrument of communication - but she appeals to their vivid emotions. She offers them all the available means of self-expression within their reach: drawing, singing, games, marionettes, etc., in an endeavour to get to know each one of them. How, indeed, can she succeed in her task if she does not know each little child in her care?

She must, above all, be able to observe the children with sympathy - in the literal sense of the word, she must feel with them.

All the ingenuity of intuition is required to understand the little child.

The teacher should be able to interpret the child's reactions to her own behaviour as well as to that of the other children;

- she must be able to discern whether some anxiety or trouble lie behind a child's aggressive reaction;
- she must be able to feel the utter loneliness of a little child among its playmates, sense its feeling of desolation at leaving its mother.

She must know what to say and when to be silent, when to intervene, and when to refrain.

Her whole attitude towards the child is of the utmost importance - what she says and the way she speaks, a look, a movement or, even less, just an expression on her face; and the soft caressing touch of her hand may suffice to prevent or allay an outburst of anger in a child.

Her whole bearing should arouse confidence in the child and make it feel that it is a part of the community.

This double feeling of security and worth, of confidence in the teacher and confidence in himself, is indispensable to the child if he is to succeed in his ventures; children love to run risks when confident in their own strength and in the help they know they can rely upon from somebody stronger than themselves.

All this implies in the teacher a faculty for ready discernment and delicacy of tact.

She must have a rich personality if she is to understand all the various dispositions of the little ones in her care - the reserved, the shy, the enterprising, the weak and the strong, the slow and the quick, the timid and the brave.

She should be able to adapt herself to the different emotional types of children - the observant, the attentive, the practical, the talkative, the vivacious.

Her presence should convey to the children a sense of order, not only outwardly but also within themselves. For these little ones - newly arrived in a new world - everything must of necessity always be a call, an attraction, and their behaviour must perforce be anarchic.

We must help them to become organized, guide them and assist them in keeping their attention fixed on whatever has aroused their interest - prevent it from being diverted.

To some extent, then, the teacher may be compared to crystal that polarizes the light, turning the diffused light into the orderly rays of a wonderful rainbow.

Her imagination enables her to adapt herself to every situation, to follow the interests that she has aroused in the child and, without seeming to do so, lead these little children so as to enable them to observe things accurately and express what they see with right, precise words.

She should be able to discover that which is to be found, understand that which should be understood, evaluate the effort that might be demanded, arouse the initiative in the child, guide him when necessary, profiting by all the different manifestations of his behaviour for the benefit of his proper needs and true interests.
All this implies tactful discernment on the part of the teacher – a certain quality of judgment and a proper emotional equilibrium.

Ought she not also to possess the art of speaking, of gesture, of story-telling – that the story may have life – of miming – of organizing creative dramatics which are, indeed, a wonderful means of self-expression in a child.

She must know how to make marionettes and animate them, describe by means of drawings the life of people and of things, and arrange action games.

She must know and practice recitation – that the young listener may learn something of the sacred world of poetry and rhythm; she must be musical and able to employ singing and dancing as a means of education.

All this means, then, that the Nursery School teacher must be capable of finding all the paths that can lead her to a deeper understanding of the mysterious little being in her care, so that she may be able, with him, to find the ways best suited to his development. Furthermore, it is her task to make out of this little child, in whom is laid a wealth of possibilities, a moral being, making him early conscious of his power but also knowing its limitations, that he may not only appreciate his freedom but be aware of the conditions governing it: self-control and the freedom of others. He is a member of society, and should be educated as such.

By setting him a good example – thus creating in him good moral habits – it is necessary at an early age to make him realize that other people also have rights – just as he has;

- that everything living is entitled to his respect,
- that a wrong, an offence, should be atoned,
- that freedom is not given but is gained by constant self-control.

A sense of tolerance, of solidarity and even of generosity should be awakened in the child – “Riches come from giving” – train him to be straightforward, to be loyal in his dealings with others, and strengthen in him his innate sense of justice – not only towards himself but towards others too.

This sketch of what an educator ought to be may perhaps seem very ambitious. Yet it is well worth while.

Education is indeed an art, for it involves the whole personality of the teacher, giving her work its own particular character which is not to be found in another.

“The child is not taught what the teacher wishes to teach it, nor what she knows, but what she is,” said an eminent patron of mine.

Nothing could be more true.

That is why the work of the Nursery School teacher involves her whole life – not only her personal and family life, but also her favourite pursuits, her pleasures and her studies. Everything affecting her true nature, enriching or impoverishing it, has some influence on her work as an educator.

The knowledge she has gained and the technique she has acquired are indeed only the very smallest part of what really counts in this art of education.

In order to emphasize what I have just said, I will mention an experience of Dr. Will at the Educational Department of UNESCO. Studying a number of classes – by means which I will not elaborate here – in order to find out from the results obtained what could be referred to the method employed and what could be considered due to the personality of the teacher, Dr. Wall arrived at the conclusion that the value of the teacher is 6 or 7 times more than that of the method employed.

We are convinced that although education tends more and more to become a science, it will – like the science of medicine – still be an art, a very difficult art.

A great deal of knowledge as well as a certain amount of practical experience are essential in order to be a successful educator, but the primary factor for the attainment of this success lies in the quality of the teacher’s personality.

That is why the Headmistresses of the Training Schools insist upon their pupils thoroughly understanding that the training given them is only a beginning, that not only must they keep themselves acquainted with the progress of the science of psychological education, not only improve themselves professionally but also aim at intellectual and moral perfection as the means of enriching their personality – it is for the quality of the teacher’s personality that counts most of all.

Thus the most important asset in the teacher of young children is the quality of her personality.

That is why we feel it imperative that future teachers should, in the course of their training, be tested as to their aptitudes for this fine art, so that nobody shall take up the profession without having the necessary talent for it.

Such a talent cannot be discovered by means of tests, actually there is only one reliable test, the teacher’s contact with children.

And that is also why we require from the teachers that they should not be in a hurry to make a specialty of nursery school teaching – for a rather long spell of practice is essential before they can prove their aptness and then, if necessary, change their vocation.

Education is a difficult art indeed but the younger the child, the more difficult that art proves to be.

We want the best among teachers for our little ones, not those who have the greatest knowledge, but those who have the finest personality.

We are convinced that OMEP can play an important part with regard to this main aspect of the problem of training nursery school teachers.

Through international working relations that OMEP is endeavouring to establish, through International Days that are arranged every year to celebrate, with the teachers, a famous person whose work was devoted to childhood, through the cooperation that is asked of the teachers in the carrying out of working programmes set up at the World Assemblies, and by their active participation in these big international meetings, through their cooperation in the studies and investigations required by UNESCO or which the organization itself initiates, OMEP gives the teachers of every country the opportunity to broaden their outlook by offering them the means to know and understand themselves, to work together in a common cause.

In devoting my efforts to the development of OMEP and particularly of our French National Committee, I am convinced that I am working for the progress of Nursery School teachers and, through them, and through the happier and freer children that will be the outcome of their efforts, for a world to come, where peace and brotherhood will abide.

**Determination of the ability in the selection of nursery school-teachers**

*By Miss Bodil Farup*

Though I have been asked to read only a very short paper to-day, you must forgive my using a few seconds to tell you how miserable I feel because I am sure I shall not be able to say things about the subject that anybody in this learned assembly does not know already – and because I am not able to offer any solution
to the problem. It has been slightly confusing to remember that a Unesco- and WHO-Expert Committee and Study-Group (including Mme Herbinère-Lebert and myself) - that met in Paris Sept. 1951 to discuss Mental Hygiene in the nursery-school - also came to the conclusion that regarding this problem of selection "no hard and fast technique can be recommended in the present state of our knowledge - and that continuing fundamental research on the matter is essential." It is often necessary in order to reach a goal and a solution to a problem to have a long overture where you concentrate on things you know already, talking about facts in simple words until you suddenly realize that although many statements were repetitions there were slight variations and that new thought and ideas had gradually emerged, meaning small steps in the right direction. If my paper to-day may mean such a modest little step, I shall not have guilt feelings for having wasted your time completely.

Let us consider an ideal situation where many more applicants ask for admission to the training colleges than could possibly be taken in - otherwise there would be no such question as selection and choice. The ideal situation also implies a great interest in preschool-education - and authorities willing to pay the costs. Salaries must be high enough to attract young girls of sufficiently high maturation, intellectual and cultural standards to the profession. The financial aspect is not unimportant, not even in this context, regarding the selection. In places where the social, and economic status of nursery school teachers is relatively low or much too low, considering the responsibilities of the profession, it will be hard to find a heterogeneous group of students. You may get a few applicants that want the education because of a genuine interest in little children - but you will have many more that choose an underpaid profession because they fear that in better paid and more estimated jobs they will not be able to compete. Educating in nursery schools should be and must be made into a highly estimated occupation, estimated by parents and by other members of the community as well. Otherwise it cannot be estimated enough by the teachers themselves - and if they - the trained preschool-teachers - not highly respect their own abilities and personalities and human rights it will be difficult for them to respect highly enough the personalities and rights and dignities of the small children you give into their charge for so many hours during a most important phase of their lives. If we want to select the very best people for a task we consider of great responsibility we must work with what may be called "general opinion." We do not get the right students before it is generally agreed that preschool-education can only be given by qualified, married, adult women - and not by "good-for-nothing-better" young girls who happen to be fond of children but who do not consider themselves fit for really estimated jobs.

My next thoughts concern the rôle and function of the nursery-school and would probably give rise to discussion were we had time enough - which, as you know we haven't to day. Before we can answer the questions of determination of ability and selection of candidates. It must be clearly stated: ability for what? What will be the future rôle of your young candidate - what responsibilities and opportunities will she be given - what are the great things you are expecting from her in ideal situations? It seems to me there has been and still is a great deal of confusion regarding the purposes of nursery-schools. Are they to supplement the opportunities for development given at home - or are they to replace the homes? Are the teachers there to cooperate with the parents or to be substitute-parents? These great problems were also discussed at the Paris-meeting named before - and you can read about the conclusions in the report no. IX in the Series "Problems in Education", published by UNESCO.

The group decided that nursery-school at its best is not to replace the home but to supplement it - and that substitute-homes and substitute-families where these are needed should have places of their own and not be identical with normal nursery-schools, where the teachers are not supposed to take over the rôles of fathers and mothers. In nursery-school proper the teachers should be women and women only. Whereas in substitute-homes or institutions there should be men-teachers as well. The education and maturation to be offered in nursery-schools should be a supplementary one with the main emphasis still being in the homes and the most dynamic interplay of feelings, emotions, need, phantasies and wishes taking place at home between the children and their fathers and mothers. Nursery-schools proper aim to extend and supplement the education given at home - not by standardized training but by stimulating the individual development and by giving optimal condition for an unfolding of the healthy potentialities of each child in an environment that is different from home and constitute a bridge between home-world and the greater world outside the family. The impact of this for the social life and social understanding of the little child and for his later development into a grown-up human being has already been stated so beautifully at the opening-meeting of this congress as you all know.

The great things you expect from preschool-education can only be realized by highly qualified teachers in teamwork with parents, with schools for older children and with experts from various fields like sociology, medical science, psychology etc.

We certainly seem to expect a great deal of the nursery school teacher - and what kind of person should she be to fulfill our expectations? Let it be stated at once, that we are not looking for a specific type of personality.

Many different combinations of qualities exist.

Some basic and minimal qualifications must be looked for, however, physical, intellectual and emotional, namely: good physical health, a pleasing appearance, more than average intellectual abilities, a sense of humour, warmth and kindness and some degree of maturity that there is capacity for forming good personal and social relationships, for establishing contact easily - and which is still more important - for maintaining this contact in situations of stress instead of losing objectivity and balance where difficulties occur as they are bound to occur when you have to work permanently with dynamic material like human beings and not with machines, numbers and concepts.

When you try to find ways of valuing the ability of the individual applicant you must know the background of your candidate - you may find out about her conscious and unconscious motivation for wanting this career and about her personality-makeup, intellectual and emotional.

Trying to understand the past life experience of the young woman is a very delicate and intricate problem. We have to rely almost completely on the candidate's own statements from which we shall have to deduce how she has reacted to what happened in reality, knowing that what counts in the final result are the meanings of the experiences for the individual more than the experiences themselves.

You cannot consider the importance of her experiences as she remembers them without at the same time considering her personality and her motivation - you have to do with overlapping areas, and all the material from the different fields has to be integrated in the final conclusions.

You may obtain information through an inquiry with written answers to standard questions, but these have to be supplemented with a personal interview where the student meets a skilled and experienced member of the senior staff of a train-
ing college who gets information about the candidate's own childhood and family-life – her relation to siblings – to playmates – to younger children – to childhood-plays. What kind of plays were the favourite ones? Other things equal, I guess that the young woman who remembers with delight her doll-play, nursing-play and family-play should be better fitted for her job than the candidate who always competed with boys and held in contempt pronounced feminine interests during childhood.

Other questions of interest are: the education given at home – how was the homeatmosphere experienced – was there acceptance of parents or revolting against them?

What was school like? which were favourite subjects? how was relationship to peers? to later interests? leading up to the present situation and the present relationships with family members, relatives, friends and authorities.

What does the candidate know about children – how has she so far proven her interest? Has it mainly been academic? How has she met situations where children were happy, unhappy, naughty, sick, bored, demanding etc.? I do not mean, of course, that the "good" candidate should know answers and solutions to many of these intricate questions – but it is immensely interesting to know what kind of thoughts have been stirred in her – if any.

How has she solved her own problems of childhood and early adolescence – and why does she want to become a teacher?

Nursery school work is so near the natural vocation of woman, and in ideal cases you soon get the impression of healthy young creatures that are unquestionably suited for the job by just being nice, intelligent and absolutely feminine.

But, as you know, not all cases are ideal, and you know that behind the conscious motives, stated by your young girl, are a number of unconscious ones that may be even more important and that can only gradually be deducted from the total picture. Some candidates are struggling with unsolved problems from an unhappy childhood – they want to give little children the freedom that were denied to themselves – but the need behind the ideal wishes are often that of getting love and admiration from the children in exchange. If the children meet them with aggression they are not able to be objective and understanding and their own infantile needs and attitudes will rise to the surface. They will be difficult to work with in a team, and it will be impossible for many of them to cooperate with parents whom they – at least unconsciously – consider the greatest enemies of children. Instead of supporting the parents where support is needed they compete with them for the love of the child. Their own seemingly unlimited acceptance of children has narrow limitations in situations of stress and many turn into hatred when the individual child does not give them love and admiration.

I do not think that a too smooth and uneventful childhood without problems is the background to be looked for. Young women who know the hardships of life through own experience may have a deeper feeling with the various problems they are bound to meet in their work, provided they have come to a fairly happy or at least acceptable solution to their problems or provided there are the potentialities to have the problems solved under the right help and guidance. Too many and too pronounced infantile traits that persist in spite of training and guidance are incompatible with her future rôle as educator, and promotor of emotional integrity in little children.

I know of no standardized technique to be used for selection of the right student. Psychological tests may be a help in eliminating the more unsuitable candidates but the best information will probably be obtained through personal interviews and through observation of the students in direct contact with children.
Recommendations:

Commission A

SELECTION

1. The Committee deplores the present standard of methods of selection for nursery school teachers. It stresses the need for official organization in that field and, furthermore, support for research.
2. It asks that an international organization such as OMEP should facilitate the exchange of research work.
3. It asks that methods of research on selection should only be judged when professional ability after qualification has been assessed.
4. It considers that a certain standard of education and culture should be required and that selection should not take place before 18 years of age.
5. Responsibility for selection should not be confined to one person but should seek collaboration of doctors, psychologists and educationalists.
6. As we have not yet the means of detecting the ideal qualities of the teacher, selection should seek first essential disturbances – intellectual, physical, emotional and social – unacceptable in the teaching profession.
7. It considers selection should not be determined on entry only but should extend through a certain period of the training.
8. In some countries because of the organization of education selection first seeks fundamental aptitudes for the teaching profession and specialization for nursery work only takes place after proof of satisfactory contact with young children in their environment.
9. The committee wishes that students who have proved during training to be unsuitable for the profession should be helped in the choice of another career.

Commission B

TRAINING

1. The Commission wishes that the level of general culture of the educators of pre-school children should not be lower than that of those training to teach Primary School children.
2. The Commission considers that in order to assure to pre-school educators an adequate training such as will give them a sense of vocation, it is necessary that their sense of responsibility and self-reliance and independence be acquired through their undertaking some form of social work.
3. It is to be hoped that within each country there should be some common standard in the training of pre-school educators.
4. The psychological training of pre-school educators should be such as enables them to understand progressive ideas and how to apply them in their work with the children, but their training must always be related to close observation of children and developed through their being in constant touch with children.

Commission C

IMPROVEMENT OF NURSERY SCHOOL TEACHERS (CONSTANT TRAINING)

1. After having studied the different systems of education of nursery school teachers in various countries we deem it essential to organize further education for them in all countries during the whole duration of their careers.
2. It is desirable that the Headquarters of O. M. E. P. in cooperation with the National Committees should take the initiative for selection, translation and distribution of the most important works, that might improve the professional insight and knowledge for child care personnel.
3. From the same point of view every National Committee should as soon as possible create one or more centers of international documents (works in psychology, pedagogy, hygiene, surveys of the work in child care, monographs, products of children's work, photographs relating to such work). Such collections should circulate in the country.
4. As it seems most desirable, that child care workers should gain experience by studying and working in foreign countries, the National Committees should as soon as it seems feasible in cooperation with the proper authorities organize exchange of child care workers with other countries and provide similar opportunities for the personnel of child care training schools.
5. In the professional function of child care workers the continuous contact with the parents or other relatives of the children is essential. In this contact the parents may obtain information about children and their problems, and the child care workers on their side may obtain increased understanding of the children in their total life situation. The National Committees should see it as one of their tasks to encourage this cooperation of home and institution and if possible make available such means (pamphlets, films, books, lectures etc.) that may make this work more efficient.

Commission D

PLAN OF WORK FOR 1955-56

I. The Working Commission expressed the wish that the World Council of OMEP should contact UNESCO with a view to the establishment of one, or probably several, international institutes for the improvement of persons in charge of early childhood education.

The National Committees will have to look into the programme of the courses held, according to the needs of their respective countries.
II. During 1955 and 1956 the National Committees will be required to carry out the following:
   A. Study of the needs of the child from birth to the age of 3 years (from birth to 7 years if these Committees have not taken part in the previous investigations).
   B. Study of the ways to meet these needs.
      1. Training and improvement of the staff of children's homes, crèches, day nurseries, hospitals (nurses, nursery nurses, public health nurses, nursery school teachers).
      2. Preparation of young people for their future rôle as parents. Advice to the parents. Education of the general public (tracts, films, radio, bibliography).
      3. Installation of the premises receiving children under 3 years.
      4. Physical, intellectual, moral and social protection of the child in its home and in children's homes.

The National Committees are responsible for the carrying out of the above plans.

III. International Day will be dedicated in 1955 to Hans Christian Andersen, and in 1956 to Margaret MacMillan. The World Council will have to decide where the next World Assembly is to be held (taking due consideration of the proposals made by the National Committees), preferably in one of the following towns: Athens, London, Zagreb, Brussels.

Commission F

FINANCE

The General Secretary, Mme Saunier, informed the Committee of the financial position of OMEP.

The accounts have been kept under the supervision of the treasurer, Mr. Power, and have been controlled by an international expert recognized by UNESCO (Mr. Cupus).

The countries represented promised to pay their usual subscriptions according to statutes or agreement with the Headquarters. The subscription of India for 1954 should be valid for 1955.

It was recommended that the Council decide the contribution amounts of countries not represented after having consulted them and the minimum contribution of committees in economic difficulties.

Commission F

STATUTES ETC.

The Committee submitted to the Assembly the amended Statutes and By-Laws and the following Motion, which were unanimously passed.

Furthermore the following resolution was sanctioned by the Assembly:

The 5th General Assembly of OMEP delegates to the Council its power to recognize or not the qualifications of National Committees who applied for membership before the Assembly of Copenhagen, on the basis of the criteria laid down by the said Assembly.

Constitution

STATUTES

ARTICLE I. — Name.

1. The name of the Organisation shall be the World Organisation for Early Childhood Education (hereinafter referred to as the Organisation). The abbreviation OMEP will be used in all languages.

ARTICLE II. — Aims and Objects.

1. To promote the study and education of young children in all countries and so foster happy childhood and home life and thereby contribute to world peace.
2. To promote nursery school education (pre-school education).

ARTICLE III. — Activities.

1. To maintain a headquarters.
2. To collect and disseminate information and to facilitate the understanding of the needs of young children.
3. To promote the study and research on early childhood education.
4. To conduct surveys of nursery school education.
5. To encourage parent education in connection with early childhood education.
6. To help to establish and maintain an international library and to publish a bibliography on early childhood education.
7. To foster the training of nursery school teachers in their countries, and to sponsor international seminars and postgraduate training for teachers and other experienced persons.
8. To prepare international conventions embodying standards in early childhood education.
9. To arrange international and regional conferences.
10. To establish working relationship with appropriate world organisations.
11. To aid in achieving direct links and personal contacts between all members in different countries.
12. To encourage the establishment of National Committees based on functional interests to further the work of the Organisation and to strengthen the work within each nation.

ARTICLE IV. — Composition of the Organisation.

1. Members of the Organisation.
   a. Constituent Members.
   b. Any national organisation may be admitted as a Constituent Member, provided that early childhood education is one of its main objects; it accepts the aims and objects of the Organisation; it agrees to submit each year a report of its activities.
   b. Associate Members.
   Organisations and Agencies whose work is closely related to early childhood education, and which accept the aims of the Organisation, may be admitted as Associate Members.
C. Individual Members.
Persons subscribing to the aims and objects of the Organisation may be admitted as Individual Members.

Individual Members shall undertake to pay an annual subscription.

2. In countries where there is a National Committee, qualification for membership of the Organisation can only be obtained by joining the National Committee. There shall be only one National Committee in each country. The National Committees which have not foreseen the three kinds of members may keep their national status on the condition that their delegates attending the World Assemblies answer to the conditions which are asked of the Constituent Members in the Statutes.

3. In those countries where there is no National Committee, application for membership of the three types of members must be made direct to OMEP, registered by the International Headquarters, and approved by the Council.

II. Affiliation of International Organisations.
International Organisations may affiliate to OMEP if they subscribe to the aims of OMEP and pay an annual subscription.

III. No Member shall be excluded by reason of race, creed, nationality or political opinion.

ARTICLE V. — Organisation.
1. The Organisation shall carry out its purposes by the following means:

A. The Assembly.
The Assembly shall be the highest authority of the Organisation. Its function shall be to draw up the programme and to take all statutory decisions.

B. The Council.
The Council shall be responsible for the execution of the Assembly's decisions and policies, and shall generally develop the work of the Organisation between sessions of the Assembly.

C. Every National Committee will follow the plan of work established by the Assembly, and will continue its own national activities.

ARTICLE VI. — Revision of the Statutes.
1. Amendments to the Statutes or dissolution of the Organisation can only be decided by a vote of two-thirds of the accredited delegates to the Assembly.

Any proposals concerning the Statutes or By-Laws, or the dissolution of the Organisation shall be submitted to the Headquarters 4 months before the Assembly, to the Council 90 days before the Assembly, and be communicated to the National Committees 2 months before the Assembly.

ARTICLE VII. — By-Laws.
1. The Assembly shall establish the By-Laws of the Organisation.
2. By-Laws may be amended by the Council subject to the approval of the Assembly.

ARTICLE VIII. — Working Languages.
1. The working languages of the Organisation shall be English and French and Spanish. This last language will be used when the financial position permits.

ARTICLE IX. — Breach of Statutes and By-Laws.
1. The Council shall be empowered to examine any alleged breach of the Statutes or By-Laws.

ARTICLE X. — Headquarters of the Organisation.
1. The Headquarters of the Organisation shall be in Paris.

BY-LAWS

ARTICLE I. — The Assembly.
1. All Members are entitled to attend the Assembly.
2. Each National Committee shall be entitled to seven votes. Each delegate must carry written credentials from his National Committee.

Any National Committee can delegate, in writing, its voting rights to another National Committee or Constituent Member.

3. In those countries where there is no National Committee, each Constituent Member shall be entitled to one vote, with a maximum of three votes to any one country.

Each delegate must carry written credentials from the organisation he represents. Every Constituent Member can delegate, in writing, his voting right to a National Committee or a Constituent Member.

4. Each vote may be personal and need not necessarily be representative of the opinion of a government or of an organisation.

5. The Organisation shall hold an Assembly at least every two years, the dates and place to be decided by the Assembly. If the decision of the Assembly becomes impossible to carry out, the Council will decide the place and date of the next Assembly.

6. The place, dates and provisional agenda of the Assembly shall be sent to all National Committees, and to all Members in countries with no National Committee, 180 days in advance.

7. The Assembly may be called into extraordinary session by the Council or if required by two-thirds of the National Committees.

8. The decision of the Assembly shall be taken by simple majority vote, except concerning the Statutes or dissolution of the Organisation.

9. The Assembly shall:
   a) examine the situation regarding the National and Preparatory Committees on the basis of the criteria established by the Assembly.
   b) decide, according to these criteria, whether the Preparatory Committees can be granted the status of National Committees.
   c) decide as to the cancellation of membership of any National Committee which has not fulfilled its obligations according to the Statutes.

ARTICLE II. — The Council.
1. The Council shall consist of as many National Committees that are recognized members.

a) Each recognized National Committee shall elect its own delegate to the International Council with one voting right.

b) The National Committee shall designate a deputy in the event of the delegate being prevented from attending. The deputies will have the right to vote.

2. Each Preparatory Committee shall be represented by an observer without voting right.

3. The Council shall have the power to seek the assistance of any experts that may be deemed necessary (without voting right).

4. The Council shall appoint a General Secretary to be the Chief Executive Officer of the Organisation.
5. The General Secretary will give to the Council an Annual Report which will be submitted to the Assembly for discussion and action.
6. The Council will appoint a Treasurer.
7. One-fourth of the Members and at least five including one officer shall constitute a quorum.
8. The Council shall meet at least twice a year at the discretion of the President.
9. If the President is unable to act or fails to call the Council within a period of twelve months, the senior Vice-Chairman shall summon the Council.
10. The decisions of the Council shall be taken by simple majority vote of delegates and deputies present.
11. The Council shall be empowered to appoint all necessary salaried personnel in consultation with the General Secretary.
12. The Council may appoint Committees to carry out the work between the meetings of the Council.

ARTICLE III. — The Officers.
1. The President, Vice-Presidents and General Secretary and Treasurer shall be designated Officers of the Organisation.
2. The President of the Organisation shall be Chairman of the Assembly and of the Council.
3. The President and Vice-Presidents shall be elected by the Council from amongst its members during or immediately after each Assembly.

ARTICLE IV. — National Committees.
1. National Committees shall:
   a) accept the Statutes of OMEP.
   b) be a national organisation with 3 kinds of members.
   c) present an annual report of their activities.
   d) pay an annual subscription to the Headquarters.
   e) nominate a delegate to the Council and his deputy.
2. Preparatory Committees shall be recognized as National Committees after application to the Headquarters and agreement of the Council and approval of the Assembly.
3. The procedure of recognition or withdrawal of qualification of National Committees will be found in an Addendum voted by the Assembly.

ARTICLE V. — Finance and Programme.
1. Each National Committee shall set its own annual subscription for all kinds of Members, having regard to Paragraph 2 below.
2. Each National Committee shall undertake to contribute to the Headquarters of the Organisation a yearly sum based on the assessment used for national contributions to the United Nations, but which can be altered by the Assembly.
3. The Council shall be empowered to determine the subscription of Members belonging to countries having no National Committee.
4. The Council shall administer the funds of the Organisation and shall endeavour to secure a permanent financial basis for the Organisation.
5. An annual financial report and budget shall be submitted by the Council and be approved by the Assembly.
6. The annual financial statement shall be examined by an auditor appointed by the Council.

Motion
Faced by the allegations of the Italian Committee, the 5th General Assembly of OMEP in Copenhagen declares these allegations to be unfounded.

Anxious to devote themselves to the welfare of children and thus to remain faithful to the aims of the Organisation, OMEP refuses to enter into legal discussions that are not related to these aims.

The Assembly is anxious to state, however, that it is in a position to refute the accusations that have been made against the decisions taken by its Officers and its Founding President and assumes responsibility for the actions they have taken. In particular, it agrees with statements made in the letter of May 2, 1954, that was addressed to Members of the Council and to all National Committees. The Assembly does not wish to remain silent regarding some points of importance.

1. Attitude of the National Committees.

The Italian Committee claims to have the support of a number of National and Preparatory Committees which it lists, but which are not supported by the name of any person speaking with authority for these committees.

The facts are these:
Among those committees whose validity has not been questioned, nine have approved the Scandinavian modification of the Statutes agreed upon in Copenhagen. These written approvals have been signed on behalf of the National Committees by Mr. Tesarek for Austria, by Mlle Claret for Belgium, by Pastor Flensmark for Denmark, by Mrs. Goodykoontz for U.S.A., by Mme Herbinnière-Lebert for France, by Lady Allen for Great Britain, by Madame Fayans-Gluck for Israel, by Miss Schill for Sweden, and by Madame Jelic for Yugoslavia. Five Preparatory Committees, have also approved them: they are South Africa, Australia, Finland, India and Norway.

The committees that are opposed to the Scandinavian proposals are: Italy, Lebanon, Luxembourg, Mexico.

On the other hand, several other committees have felt that their qualifications as National Committees have been contested, and this has been the real cause of the dispute. The opinion of these committees cannot, however, be recognized as, by simple law, one cannot be both judge and judged.

Finally, the Italian committee states that Greece, Holland, Germany, Canada and Chili support them.

In fact:
Greece states in a letter of 15 August 1954 that Mr. Zombanakis (Secretary to the Greek Committee) and Mrs. Choudounis were sorry a Greek delegation could not attend the Copenhagen Assembly but this was only because of lack of money and they send their best wishes for the success of our work.

In a letter from Mme Duchateau Pastoors, General Secretary of Holland, we have been informed in 1953 that she challenged the right of M. de Haas, elected at Mexico, to represent the Dutch Committee as he was not a member of OMEP. On the other hand, M. de Haas himself has expressed in letters that we have in our possession that the National Committee of Holland did not exist.

In Germany, also, the situation is by no means clear.
From Chile, the Ministry of Education has informed us in a letter dated August 9, 1954 that there is no representative committee of OMEP in that country.

Finally, according to several letters from M. Lussier, (Canada), elected in Mexico to the Council, he formally admits that no Committee exists in Canada.
To summarize: of the 14 undisputed committees, 10 have approved the Copenhagen resolutions and 4 have voted against them. 5 preparatory committees have also voted for these resolutions.

II. Violation of the Statutes.

A. “The Assembly shall be the highest authority of the Organisation” (Statutes, Art. V, (1a)).

It is for this reason that the Assembly has to judge the serious irregularities made at the Mexican Assembly. These irregularities make invalid all decisions taken in Mexico, and so the Council was not empowered to act, as it was itself an issue of these decisions.

B. Statutory Meeting of the Council.

“The Council will meet at least twice a year at the discretion of the President” (By-Laws, Art. II).

The Council met on November 7th and 8th, 1953 and on January 16th and 17th, 1954, summoned by the President. Consequently, it is incorrect to say that a “statutory” meeting should have been held in May.

III. Criteria of the National Committees.

The necessity of establishing criteria for National Committees, as a complement to the By-Laws, was unanimously recognized. A working sub-committee for the draft of the project was formed on the 24th, 25th and 26th January, 1953.

Its members were: Mme. Herbinière-Lebert, Mlle. Ferrari, M. Normand, M. Larnaud and Mme. Saunier.

The Italian Committee maintains that this sub-committee has never met, and that the texts were drafted solely by the President and the Secretary General.

This declaration is without any foundation, as is proved by the following extract from the Minutes of the Council, dated November 7th, 8th and 9th, 1953:—

“The text was unanimously adopted by the members present:—

Mme. Herbinière-Lebert, M. Normand, M. Larnaud and Mme. Saunier. Since Mlle. Ferrari was not able to participate in the meetings, the text which was drafted was sent to her on June 5th, 1953 with a request for her observations in writing (additions or modifications). Mlle. Ferrari has not sent any.”

Further on, in the same Minutes:—

“M. Normand informs the Council that he has personally, and as a member of the Committee in which he has participated, entirely approved the draft.”

The General Assembly at Copenhagen confirms the statutory principles of OMEP, which remains open to all those who, irrespective of race, creed, nationality or political opinion, wish to work in good faith for the happiness of children.

List of delegates and observers

AUSTRIA:
Mr. Ernst Kothbauer
Mr. Anton Tesarek

BELGIUM:
Mlle Alice Claret
Mlle Louise-Lea Van Den Bergh

Mme Libotte
Mlle H. Loir
Mme Jeanne Pierquin-Thonus
Mlle Emma Poncin
Mme Jeanne-Marie Roelants
Mme Rorive
M. Korive

DENMARK:
Miss Karen Bjørnsby
Mrs. Gerda Andersen
Miss Ruth Andersen
Mrs. Birte Bang
Mr. Asger Barfoed
Miss Margrethe Christiansen
Mr. Sigfred Dohn
Miss Bodil Farup
Mr. Harald Flensmark
Mr. Einar Gjørtup
Miss Marie Benedicte Gregersen
Mrs. Elisabeth Guldager Petersen
Mr. Axel Guldager
Mrs. Åse Hauch
Miss Edith Holm
Miss Karen Holm
Miss Estor Holm
Mrs. Kirsten Holst-Hansen
Mr. Holger Horsten
Mr. A. Jacobsen
Mr. Olav Jakobsen
Miss Asta Jensen
Mrs. Inger Kelding
Miss Gudrun Larsen
Miss Rit Lemaitre
Miss Gerda Mølller
Miss Helga Nielsen
Miss Anna Nilsen
Miss Inge Oldenburg
Mrs. Esther Torned Fallesen
Miss Mimi Pehrson
Mr. Poul W. Perch
Miss Gerda Petersen
Miss Kirsten Riemke
Mr. Jens Sigsgaard
Mrs. Kirsten Sigsgaard
Miss Ebba Sørensen
Mr. Olof Skjernebæk
Miss Sjøbye

GREAT BRITAIN:
Lady Allen of Hurtwood
Miss Ethel Davies
Miss Mary Davies
Miss Iris May Humphrey
Miss Mabel L. Jackson
Mrs. Alma Kliigaard
Miss Mary E. Miller
Miss Catharine Symonds
Mr. I. Evans
Mrs. Q. M. Evans

FINLAND:
Miss Arno-Laino Sirelius

FRANCE:
Mme Herbinière-Lebert
Mlle Abbadié
M. Alloÿ
Mme Alloÿ
Mlle Andouze
Mlle Carayon
Mme Caron
M. Daum
Mme Daum
Mlle Marguerite Desclaux
Mme Fournier
Mlle Garnier
Mlle Gudin
Mlle Kohlhofer
Mme Laurent Filliatre
Mlle Martin
Mme Bellet-Melies
M. G. Mialaret
Mlle Minne
Mme Pannetier
Mlle Postiaux
Mme Claire Saunier
Mme Vité Sella
Mlle Truillet
M. Vorbe
Mme Vorbe
Mme Tanon

INTERNATIONAL FEDERATION
OF MENTAL HEALTH:
Dr. Fallesen

YUGOSLAVIA:
Mlle Metikoc Draginjka
Mme Tatjana Marinitch
Mme Jelich
Mme Lunc
Composition of the World Council on August 22nd 1954

Founder Presidents: Lady Allen of Hurtwood, Madame Herbinière-Lebert, Mrs. Alva Myrdal

World-President: Mr. Harald Flensmark, Denmark

Vice-Presidents: Mme Herbinière-Lebert, France, charged with the relations to UNESCO and international organizations, 134, Bd. Berthier, Paris XVIIe, France elected by the Council among its members

Mme Alice Clarét, Belgium

Members: Mr. Tesarck, Austria
Lady Allen of Hurtwood, Great Britain
Miss Ella Esp, Norway
Miss Britta Schill, Sweden
Mme Marinitch, Yugoslavia, appointed by their committees before the assembly.

Supplied with one delegate elected by each National Committee (recognized according to the Statutes) and an observer (without voting powers) for each Preparatory Committee. The committees are requested to communicate with the Secretariat as to their delegates (or observers) as soon as possible.

Presidency and Secretariat OMEP, Randersgade 10, Copenhagen Ø, Denmark.

General-Secretary: Mr. Jens Sigsgaard
Treasurer: Mr. Svend Kiltgaard.

Privatbank, Vestre afdeling, Nygade 7, Copenhagen, Denmark appointed by the Council

A French edition of the report, slightly abbreviated (Price 150 frs.), can be obtained on application to the Secretariat of the French Committee (C. F. E. P.), Ecole Maternelle, av. du Général-Leclerc, Pantin (Seine), France.

Summary of the Criteria established by the Assembly

The Assembly shall decide whether Preparatory Committees can be granted the status of National Committees (By-Laws I, 9 b).

In order to fulfill statutory obligations National Committees must have

a. signed an acceptance of the OMEP Statutes (a formula and detailed simplifying instruction can be obtained on application to the General-Secretary),
b. sent a translation of their National Statutes in English or French,
c. maintained contacts with the Headquarters, at least presented one annual report of activity in February for the previous year,
d. given the list of members of their board, organizations represented, Constituent Members etc. and
e. paid their annual contribution.

The qualification of a recognized National Committee can be withdrawn (By-Laws 1, 9 c).

Every year, at its first meeting, the Council will study the position of all National Committees, their reports of activity, alterations of National Statutes, composition of the board etc., and the state of payment of contributions.

The Council will send a first letter of reminder to all failing Committees. At the Autumn meeting, the Council will proceed with a second examination and, if necessary, send a second advice. At its first meeting at the beginning of the following year, the Council will – by special authority, see Commission F page 28 – pronounce the cancellation of membership of National Committees which have not without valid excuse after the second notice fulfilled their obligations.

1 see pages 3, 28, 31 and 34.