placing him in the bed or even in the room with his mother. His needs were cared for by specially trained nurses, except that at certain intervals he was taken to his mother for feeding and then returned to his bassinet in the nursery.

Under these conditions many children developed nutritional difficulties and, in some, a special illness, called marasmus, which means wasting away, was identified. This was described by Bakwin in 1942. Subsequently, Dr. Margaret Ribble of New York published several books and articles about this phenomenon. Indeed, as early as 1937, Dr. David Levy, a psychiatrist published an article in the American Journal of Psychiatry, called “Primary Affect Hunger.” In this he made it clear that infants and young children cannot thrive on food and physical hygiene alone but must have the added nurturance of love, fondling and contact with their mother’s bodies if they are to grow physically healthy and emotionally adjusted. In this connection, also, Bevan Brown has written extensively on the importance of breast feeding for later physical and mental health. The absence of love and of the nurturance patterns which are the natural expressions of love seems to be an important factor in the causation of nutritional illnesses in infants.

There is a second line of evidence pointing to the important role of love in the development of children. War and its aftermath disturbed the homelife of millions of children and orphaned countless thousands. Institutions have had to be developed in many countries to care for these children separated from their parents. The physical, mental and emotional development of these institutionalized children has been the object of much study by scientists because, under institutional conditions, they did not flourish as well as children at home.

Dorothy Burlingham and Anna Freud in their book, “Infants Without Families,” in a series of articles in the American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, John Bowlby in a World Health Organization Monograph in 1951 and an article in the Journal of Mental Science in 1953, Rene Spitz in a very telling series of research studies as well as Beres and Obers—all have shown that young children separated from the love of their parents languish and fail to achieve their best growth both physically and intellectually. They also develop unhealthy emotional reactions under usual institutional conditions. But happily, this has not been true in those institutions where they have had regular, extensive, intimate and continuing person-to-person contacts through time with one particular adult who valued them highly. Again the accumulated evidence is very powerful that a child must have more than adequate nourishment, good physical care and systematic instruction if he is to achieve the full development of his potentials. A person-to-person relationship which can only be called love, together with the day-to-day interactions implied by this love relationship, is necessary to provide the emotional climate essential to wholesome development.

Anthropologists who have studied the family and child-rearing customs of many cultures supply a third line of evidence of the vital role of love in the development of the pre-school child. Wayne Dennis in “The Hopi Child,” Margaret Mead in “From the South Seas” and Ashley Montagu in “The Direction of Human Development,” to mention only among many, have supplied detailed descriptions of child-rearing practices in different cultures and of the psychological aftermaths of these customs in the human personalities produced by them. Ashley Montagu, (op. cit. p. 245) has generalized on these findings of cultural anthropologists as follows:

“We know from the observation and study of many peoples that the well-integrated, cooperative, adult personality is largely the product of a childhood which has enjoyed a maximum of satisfaction and a minimum of frustration. We also know the obverse to be true, that the disintegrated, non-cooperative adult personality is largely a product of a childhood which has suffered a maximum of frustration and a minimum of satisfaction.”

Montagu goes on to indicate that it is primarily love which can insure a maximum of satisfactions to young children and that the absence of love nearly always builds up a distaste for a number of frustrations. Thus, we have three lines of evidence from scientific research, all of which show that love is vital to optimum growth and to wholesome personality development in infants and young children.

But what is the nature of this person-to-person relationship which infants and young children must experience to achieve a healthy becoming and which I have chosen to call love? The validity of the term “love” also must be tested against the available scientific evidence and its essential qualities must be defined most carefully. Accordingly the remainder of this paper will address itself to three questions:

(1) Is love a reality or only a delusive romantic construct of our culture?
(2) If love is a reality, what are its essential qualities?
(3) If love is a reality, what is its role in human development?

In preparing this paper I examined dozens of books on human development, educational psychology, cultural anthropology, sociology, psychiatry, and biography. In the majority of the books on human development and educational psychology the words “love” did not occur. When it did occur it was used without definition for the most part. I feel that if love is a reality, we need seriously and scientifically to study its influence on human lives and to learn what conditions are favorable to its enhancement and fulfillment. If it is not a reality, we shall need to study the reasons for the emergence of such a myth, so frustrating an aspiration, so delusive a pretention. There is a remarkably small amount of scientific material now available about the nature of love.

A very brief review of the ideas found in some of the books examined comes first. Breckenridge and Vincent, Strang, and Barker, Kounin, and Wright, all mention love as a reality. The general idea expressed is that love markedly influences behavior, development, and adjustment. One notes a vagueness about the nature of love as a positive force and finds much more specificity about the negative effects of lack of love and of inappropriate use of love relationships. Knappho and Murray give a great amount of material about love as a force and about family processes but no discussion of love as such.

J. H. Flinton clearly regards love as a reality but does not define it. In his view, love affords children a basic security, a sure feeling of belonging. Insecure, unloved children show anxious, panicky symptoms that contrast with the aggressive over-compensation of inadequate children. Confusion about their security often arises in children as they try to meet the learning and behavioral demands set for them by the authority of their parents and of society, and, again, as they struggle for independence.

Harry Stack Sullivan defines love in these terms: “When the satisfaction or the security of another person becomes as significant to one as one’s own security, then the state of love exists.” He goes on to say that when one loves “one begins to feel human in a sense in which one has not previously felt human . . . one begins to appreciate the common humanity of people.”

Overstreet says: “The love of a person implies not the possession of that person but the affirmation of that person. It means granting him gladly the full right to his unique humankind. One does not truly love a person and yet seek to enslave him—by law, or by bonds of dependence and possessiveness. Whenever we ex-
WORLD ORGANISATION
FOR EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

O.M.E.P.
(Organisation Mondiale pour l'Education Préscolaire)

Report of the 6th World Conference
held at Parnassos, Athens
10th to 16th of September 1956
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Price 3/-
IN SENDING OUT this report I want to express my gratitude to the Greek Government and to the Greek National Committee of OMEP, to the staff who worked so well and to everyone who participated in the VIth World Assembly in Athens.

Particularly we owe thanks to the professors Khoremis, Zazzo and Prescott for having put their manuscripts at our disposal and to the interpreters responsible for the translations.

On behalf of the officers of the Organization I thank the National Committee for their confidence, and personally for having entrusted me with the task of General President for a second period.

I hope this report will inspire all those who, irrespective of race, creed, nationality or political opinion, wish to do positive and constructive work for the happiness of children all over the world. It is thus that we can also support UNESCO, the organization to which OMEP is so highly indebted.

It goes without saying that neither the World Council nor the National Committees are committed by the resolutions of the Working Commissions in Athens. Perhaps they may urge friends of Early Childhood Education to take further strides forward at the coming World Assembly in Brussels 1958.

Harald Flensmark

Welcome by Madame Lina Tsaldaris, Minister of Social Affairs and Chairman of the Greek Committee of O.M.E.P.

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen.

It is a great privilege for me, in my dual capacity as Minister, Member of the Cabinet, and Chairman of the Hellenic Committee of the O.M.E.P., to welcome you in this historic city of Pallas Athena with my warmest greetings.

In inviting the O.M.E.P. for the 6th World Assembly, the Hellenic Government wishes to acknowledge the developing efforts of your Organization concerning the problems of pre-school education on the one hand, and on the other to put at your disposal the experience of the educators and the specialists of a country, whose children have been cruelly treated during these last years, years so hard for the whole of humanity.

The Greek philosophers, more than twenty centuries ago, in treating the problems of social structure, gave a special place to the questions of education of the young. I have only to mention here Plutarque.

Greece is very glad to greet on its soil the eminent members of such a distinguished group, devoted to so noble a study.

The studies and research you have given yourselves to, the exchange of experience and documentation between specialists of different countries, the subjects under investigation during the World Assemblies, the adoption of resolutions, constitute important steps, for the benefit of pre-school education in all countries.

And before I end this speech, may I for a few moments discuss the subject of the 6th Assembly. "The importance of the first years of the life of the child in the family and outside the family".

How many problems in this simple phrase. How many complicated problems, not limited to the educators' task, but which are their concern as well as the psychologists', the doctors', who in cooperation with the parents and the family are trying to bring a solution inspired by clear thinking and complete harmony.

It is to this clear thinking, to this complete harmony in your resolutions that the tradition of Greece and the Hellenic spirit will unite to contribute to your studies your research and your experience.

I wish to you that this clarity of mind and harmony will inspire your work and its results during the Congress.

A French version of this report can be obtained on application to the Secretariat of OMEP or to the Secretariat of the French National Committee of OMEP Ecole Maternelle, Avenue du Général-Leclerc, Pontin, (Seine) France.
Address by the Minister of Education M. Levantis

Gentlemen of the Congress.

The City of Pallas Athena and the whole of Greece welcome you today in the person of the Minister of National Education at the foot of the Sacred Rock of the Acropolis. They give to this welcome these same feelings of hospitality coined with the warmth of happiness with which the Greeks used to welcome their guests since the time of Xenios Zeus.

In my capacity as Minister of National Education I am particularly thankful to the Bureau of the O.M.E.P. to have given to Greece its preference as the place of the Reunion of the 6th World Assembly for pre-school education. The central theme which will be the object of discussions in the present Congress: "THE IMPORTANCE OF THE FIRST YEARS IN THE LIFE OF THE CHILD IN THE FAMILY AND OUTSIDE THE FAMILY" has the moving power to touch the hearts of the Greeks. The importance of family life of the child is particularly more perceptible to the Greek father than to a father of any other country. The Greek father has felt the responsibilities of the "pater familias", together with the Greek mother who is the vestale of the home.

This small God-sent homunculus is the subject of infinite care from the family and unlimited love. He is the heir of the name and the depository of the sacred traditions of the race and the Nation. Any attempt to break up this close relationship is felt by the Greek parents as a profound wound that can hardly be healed.

If to this fact of the tight family links, you will add the hundred and twenty six years since the Liberation of incessant struggle (the wars, the rehabilitation of one million and a half refugees from Asia Minor, the damages in the national economy caused by seisms and other natural elements) you will find justifications for our weaknesses, the slow pace in progress and specially in the domain of pre-school education.

We shall do our best to respond in every point to the imperative requests of today. The power of things is such that reaction to new economic and social conditions have materialized in the post-war period. This irresistible power takes the mother away from the family to the office, the factory, the shops, and to all sorts of occupations.

To face this inevitable necessity, we endeavor to increase every year our institutions for the assistance and the education of pre-school years on the basis of the economic possibilities of the country in conformity with the modern trends that science gives us in this domain. And we have the ambition to increase the number of the one thousand Nursery Schools and bring them up to the standard of our nine thousand elementary schools.

This ambition is stimulated by this Meeting which takes place in the Sacred City of Pallas Athena of so many eminent scientists, whose mission and aim of existence is to study with love the problems concerning the assistance, health and education of early childhood.

I hope that thanks to the contribution of the Professors of international reputation, Prescott, Zazzo, and Khoremis and also thanks to the works of the different committees, the suitable atmosphere will be created to promote the question of pre-school education among the general public in Greece.

It is with this hope and this conviction that your discussions will bring results. I can assure you that in spirit and with all my heart I shall be with you and you will find in me constant goodwill and full cooperation.

I wish you success in your task.

Response of the President General Harald Flensmark

Madam Chairman, Excellencies, Ladies and Gentlemen.

For two years, under rather difficult circumstances due to the world situation but prompted by the greatest hopes, we have been looking forward to the day when we would meet in this beautiful city of Athens, the cradle of culture and the home of science, both in olden and present times and which, I am sure, will also in future contribute to the achievement of the noblest ideas of humanity in the same way as it has done in the past.

To-day at last I have the honour and privilege, in my capacity as President of OMEP, to thank you wholeheartedly for your warm words of welcome and to pay tribute to your country, your Government, and more particularly to you, Madam Chairman, for the care and attention you have devoted not only to the children of your own country but also to the children of the whole world.

I also wish to thank you for your kind attention toward OMEP, for having become attached to this good cause of ours, and for having proved to us your affection by organizing here the Vth World Assembly of our Organization.

There are organizations which are much larger than ours, which are endowed with better means and hence can produce gigantic results. Let us rejoice at it. For never in the past men have felt so responsible for the poor, the hungry, the sick, the undernourished and those that are badly housed, yes even badly taught, as they do in our time.

The world is not so wicked that it has lost a feeling for charity. People are ready to organize emergency actions and to soothe the sufferings of others.

But although everyone agrees that prevention is better than cure, the necessity for an organization like ours does not strike everyone immediately. Our work differs from that of social workers in this respect. People say: "What are the wants and projected plans of these idealists who speak about the importance of climate, of environment during early childhood? Isn't it merely a beautiful dream which cannot be taken seriously? Isn't it an objective so difficult to attain that one is tempted to shrug one's shoulders and attempt no more?"

Such is, indeed, the attitude of responsible circles, of legislators and of high officials in the various administrations, in many countries. Such is often the attitude even of educators and consequently of parents, of public opinion, in short, of everyone.

This is why we are but a very small group. The results at which we have arrived so far are very modest, but I dare say, they justify our objectives; I am convinced that OMEP has proved its worth and its right to exist, both on the national and international level, by hoisting its banner among the nations, by rendering services to UNESCO, by providing in its national committees a forum for cooperation and mutual understanding, and by inspiring the teachers of very small children.

The aims of OMEP may seem almost superhuman. We wish to promote in all countries the happiness of children and happy family life, thus contributing to world peace. An objective which may seem hardly possible to most and even slightly ridiculous.

However, let us never forget that the progress of humanity always depends on the extent to which one has the courage to aim at achieving the impossible, to put into existence that which is incredible; just to believe in that which to those who are too wise and too learned is unreasonable. All of you know the saying
that the heart has reasons which reason does not understand! We must believe in spite of the short-sighted and sceptical.

Very often in the past only one person at first stood quite alone, true to his vision. But the fire of his heart enflamed others. And such is the story of OMEP and its Founders. This is why I congratulate OMEP on having accepted the kind invitation of the Greek Government, and why I pay tribute to you, Madame Chairman.

You thus inscribe your name as well as that of your beautiful city next to the names of the pioneers of one of the noblest causes of the world.

May the fire of enthusiasms from the first days of OMEP burn in us, once more here in Athens. Let us seize the torch as the athletes, on the famous stadium of Ancient Athens, seized the sacred Olympic fire, and let us press toward the mark so as to win the prize, for the benefit of children in your country and in the whole world.

The Principle of the Nursery School from the Angle of Evolution in our Time

Talk by professor Khoreinis
Professor of Pediatrics at The University of Athens

To begin I want to express my warm welcome and thanks to my distinguished colleagues and to the eminent educators who came to the city of Athens for this Congress, to discuss the important and delicate problems of pre-school education, which become more and more difficult and complicated by the social developments.

Your contribution, based on your knowledge and experience, will be most helpful for the development and protection of childhood.

I do not deny that I am intimidated, in the middle of so many specialists, representatives of education concerned with the problems of the baby, and no doubt much better informed than myself. That is why I appeal to your leniency.

As a subject of this talk I have chosen: The principle of the Nursery School from the angle of the evolution in our time. In my opinion the question simply put is not only to know that early childhood needs a preparatory education before entering the school, but that the question should be considered on a wider scale because of its complexity.

The necessity of filling the gap in the period between family and school life, has been mentioned by Plato who writes in his Laws:

"Συνάνησε δὲ εἰς τὰ καθ' ἑαυτόν λαβὼν δεδεμένα· ἦλθεν ταῦτα ἔγραψεν ἐν τούτοις κύριος ἔκθεσις. Τὰ δὲ τοιούτα τῆς τῆς τῆς τραυμάτων κομμάτων καὶ ἡ διαλογία τοῦ τοῦ τοῦ τούτου τοῦν ἐπικεφαλέας τοῦ τοῦ τοῦ τούτου τοῦν τοῦν νομοθέτης τοῦν τοῦ τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦ τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦν τοῦ

At the reception at hotel King George:

Madame Lina Tsaldiri, Mr. Montessori, Shri Shewak, M. Levantia, M. Mantoudes, Shri Inamdar, M. Zambasakis.
to give the most satisfying results. I am not, myself, concerned with the system but with the principle itself of the Nursery School, from the purely medical and biological angle. We should not underestimate the fact that the success of any new educational system is to your advantage, while its failure falls on the physician. What I want to discuss is this: the necessity of the institution from the biological point of view. This point of view may interest the educator as well.

The analysis of the psycho-biological period of childhood shows that in that age the development of the psychical manifestations of the baby progresses quickly. Desires, instincts, are powerful here, and the influence of the environment on their evolution has an important value.

But between the normal psychical development and the pathological deviations, there are but slight variations among young children.

The greater part, if not the entire range of infantile neurosis, appears and develops at that period, the least serious being anorexia, stubbornness, insomnia, anxiety, but we know a most annoying one: enuresis; and the worst one being aggressiveness.

It is a problem which today preoccupies the pediatrician in the countries with a high standard of living.

Our pathology is still limited to the ailments of the body, but sooner or later, we shall widen our field.

In the course of my last visit in one of the biggest hospitals in a great European capital, I asked what were the principal diseases treated there, and they answered: the enuresis.

In the critical period of the child's life, when the psychical and physical development is getting organized, the separation of the child from his family environment has often very disastrous results, more and more noted by modern psychiatry concerned with children.

The answer may be that the child separated from his mother goes to the Nursery School, where he is looked after by a competently trained personnel. My opinion is that this is quite sufficient, and that the question should be examined from another point of view.

We do not exactly know when the tie of the child to his mother is created and when it comes to its maximum. I am not myself, of those who pretend that it begins after the confinement. On the contrary, I think, that it begins in infancy, and increases during the 2nd and 3rd years.

But the capacity of the child for action is expressed by play which becomes, part of his emotional wealth and consequently lessens his dependence on his mother.

The beginning of this independence of the child, coincides in general with its third or fourth year of life. It is not identical in all children, however.

It is this transitory period till school age that is covered by the Nursery School. The principle of the Nursery School, in its actual aspect, is not static. It has been created under the pressure of necessity, imposed by the conformation of modern society. Its development is a function of the development of urbanism and of industrialization. Consequently it reflects its advantages and its disadvantages. It is difficult to admit that social life has not changed, and with it the habits and the routine of life which existed before. These important changes can be resumed first in the monotechnie (one child for every family) and the rationalization of birth in general.

The importance of this fact is known to all the pediatricians. In the families with one child, the possibilities of the social feelings of the child in a physical and biological environment are considerably reduced.

In the past, even today, in the villages, the big families, the child of the neighbor, the cousin, etc. facilitate the education of the child. In a way the Nursery School exists already in every village district.

This is not possible in the big cities. One of the biggest dangers of the early separation of the child sent from his mother to the Nursery School, is not only an emotional loneliness, aggravated by the absence of a brother in the home, but also the upbringing from his house and his being sent into an environment biologically foreign, the artificial character of which is subject to certain social laws.

The Nursery School, under its actual aspect, constitutes a small society of strangers, and even if its functioning has improved due to new methods, it is always based on educational not biological methods.

It is also evident that it has all the advantages and disadvantages of attempts of the same nature, with the purpose to submit children of different psychologies and different habits to identical educational laws. Thus, to reach his aim, that is to say, to awake and cultivate the social feeling in the child, educators today aim at children who not only differ, but in leaving the Nursery School to return to the home find a different environment, which hinders their development and the consolidation of their knowledge.

From a biological point of view, there is a great distance between the Nursery School of today which is the result of the improvement of the initial kindergarten established by Froebel and the exclusive "local" imposed by the needs of contemporary society.

But should it be possible to face in a general and systematic way the education of the child at pre-school age? It is difficult to answer the question. On the contrary, certain existing facts are not in favour of an affirmative answer.

Today we face a change in the upbringing of babies and children of pre-school age. If it is not exactly in conformity with the theory of J. J. Rousseau it is not far from its principle. Education must not be of a positive character but of a negative.

The child must be left free to develop his character and his personality, and the teacher must follow the unperturbable rhythm of that auto-formation.

The return of this theory has brought about the difficult problems that the functioning of the Nursery School has not been able to solve. I mean that the educational systems, fruit of long experience, consider that the intervention of the environment is always very necessary, but not its supervision. These systems have been gradually abandoned, in favour of newer ones.

Imagine what impression a pediatrician of the last generation would have been, if he was present at this Congress, when he heard that the fixed hours for the baby's meals tend to be abandoned, and that feeding times are left to the will of the child.

Nevertheless, the regulation of the meals has not been instituted haphazardly, and not for the satisfaction of the environment; it is the result of a profound analysis of the nutritive needs of the baby and, generally, its physiological functioning.

As the physiological functions of the living being obeys to laws in the course of evolution, similarly the instincts and the needs of the child are submitted to regulations.

"Actually, as man is an organic being, his development is nothing else but the inner organization of human nature, having a beginning and an end", writes Rousseau in his Emile. But is there any organization without an inner discipline? This is not the only contradiction. It is the consequence of the instability of the existing various doctrines of the day.

Thus, while on one hand, we pretend that one hour's stay in the hospital, away from his mother could provoke in the child incurable psychical wounds,
The Role of Love in The Education of Pre-School Children

By Dr. Daniel A. Prescott, Director
Institute for Child Study, University of Maryland

Mr. President, delegates to the World Congress of OMEP, ladies and gentlemen:

It is a wonderful privilege to attend this World Congress which is so deeply concerned about the welfare, education, and full development of young children. And it is a moving experience to have the responsibility of addressing you, especially in Athens. For here there is a tradition, several thousand years old, of constant readiness to hear new truth, of incisive clarity in reasoning, and of seeking to distill from knowledge the necessary insights into how the human mind and self can be perfected.

This inspiring Athenian tradition of seeking the wisdom to understand human life in terms of its richest fulfillment made me feel that I must speak about one of the most significant and powerful of the several forces which, as an interactive constellation, shape the development of the human child. I felt that I must speak about love.

It often happens in human affairs that scientists gain their first insights by studying illnesses and mishaps. When things go wrong, the causes which produce the undesirable happenings are sought, and, as these negative factors are understood, an initial and partial vision is gained into the more important positive forces that govern phenomenon being investigated. It was so with love.

During the past three decades students of the health and growth of young children arduously have been tracing the physical, social, economic, and psychological factors which underlie disturbances in physical growth, which are responsible for emotional maladjustment, or for the malformation of character in the early years of life. Over and over again they have discovered a deficiency factor, the absence of something needed, to be primary in the causation of these undesirable happenings. Expressed most simply, the absence of love, or the inadequate expression of love, seems to have been indicated repeatedly as one of the major causes of these disturbances of development.

Only a few of these revelatory studies will be mentioned here, because I wish to go on rapidly to consider in more detail what love really is, and what its positive role in human development may be. For it is small use to say that maladjustments and limitations of development ensue from the absence of love unless one is able to describe positively the nature of the force which must be created to alleviate the maladjustment and to bring about the conditions necessary to the full realization of human potentialities.

In the United States during the past thirty years the custom has developed of having babies born in hospitals rather than in the home. This has come about in order that both the mother and the child could receive better medical attention and more hygienic care. And, in fact, both maternal and infant mortality rates have been reduced greatly by this practice. However, the procedure developed of taking the child from the mother in the delivery room and of keeping him most of the time for some days in a special nursery with other infants, rather than of
experience a genuine love we are moved by the transforming experience toward a capacity for good will."

Fromm coins the term "productive love" because the word love as popularly used is so ambiguous. The essence of love, he contends, is the same whether it is the mother's love for a child, our love for man, or the erotic love between two individuals. Certain basic elements are characteristic of all forms of productive love. They are care, responsibility, respect, and knowledge. He says "Care and responsibility denote that love is an activity, not a passion ... the essence of love is to labor for something, to make something grow... Without respect for and knowledge of the beloved person love deteriorates into domination and possessiveness. Respect ... denotes the ability to see a person as he is, to be aware of his individuality and uniqueness. Love is the expression of intimacy between two human beings under the condition of the preservation of each other's integrity. To love one person productively means to be related to his human core, to him as representing mankind." Fromm also contends that love of others and of ourselves is not alternatives, "the affirmation of one's own life, happiness, growth and freedom is rooted in one's capacity to love... If an individual is able to love productively, he loves himself too... Selfishness and self-love, from being identical are actually opposite... The selfish person does not love himself too much but too little, in fact he hates himself... He is necessarily unhappy and anxiously concerned to snatch from life the satisfactions which block himself from attaining..."

The recurring mention in the literature of the relatedness of love for self (self-respect), love for other individuals, and love for mankind led me to examine biographies and writings of men who have lived lives of great devotion to mankind: Kagawa, Gandhi and Albert Schweitzer.

Kagawa says: "Love awakens all that it touches ... creation is the art of life pursued for love... Love is the true nature of God... In social life human beings meet and love one another through a material medium... Love spins garments for itself out of matter... through love economic life appears as the content of the spiritual... Real construction of society can be accomplished only through the operation of education and love..." Schweitzer, in his struggle with love and mankind, states: "If we speak of love, and it is not for oneself, it is quite possible to talk to this person as you have never talked to anyone before. The freedom which comes... permits nuances of meaning, permits investigation without fear of rebuff which greatly augments the consensual validation of all sorts of things."

2. One who loves is deeply concerned for the welfare, happiness, and development of the loved one. This concern is so deep as to become one of the major values in the organized personality of love. "Love is identical with activity..." It means creating existence where there has been none... If we view economics so, the study of it changes into a science of love... Art must create externally beautiful objects and internally it is itself love.

The practical social and political application of love has worked several miracles in India during our times. Gandhi said: "To be truly non-violent I must love my adversary and pray for him even when he hits me... We may attack measures and systems. We may not, we must not attack men. Imperfect ourselves, we must be tender toward others... forgiveness is more manly than punishment." Gandhi told landowners, "Landlords should cease to be mere rent collectors. They should become trustees and trusted friends of their tenants. They should give peasants freedom of tenure, take a lively interest in their welfare, provide well-managed schools for their children, night school for adults, hospitals and dispensaries for the sick, look after the sanitation and in a variety of ways make them feel that they, the landlords, are their friends." Gandhi contended that God is love and can be known only through action. "Faith does not permit of telling. It has to be lived and then it is self-propagating."

Albert Schweitzer is another extraordinary international figure who has accomplished the apparently impossible during the past fifty years. He has tremendous reverence for life and respect for the dignity of all human beings, and he believes that love is the great force of the universe. He says: "By the spirit of the age the man of today is forced into skepticism about his own thinking in order to make him receptive to truth which comes to him from authority... (but) it is only by confidence in our ability to reach truth by our own individual thinking that we are capable of accepting truth from outside... Man must bring himself into a spiritual relation to the world and become one with it... Beginning to think about life and the world leads a man directly and almost irresistibly to reverence for life... the idea of love is the spiritual beam of light which reaches us from the Infinite... in God, the great first cause, the will-to-create and the will-to-love are one... In knowledge of spiritual existence in God through Love he (man) possesses the one thing needful..."

Each of the three men whose biographies were studied was a man of action who accomplished the seemingly impossible during his lifetime in the first half of this, our twentieth century. Each affirmed that love was a central dynamic in his accomplishment - love of other individuals, love of mankind, and love of God. Theirs certainly was "productive love." We may therefore regard our first question as answered in the affirmative. Love does exist. It is a potent reality. It has been validated by men of science as well as by those three extraordinary men of action. Now what about the nature of love? On the basis of my research I have developed a number of theses about love. They will be presented with brief mention of the degree to which they seem to be supported by the ideas found in the material already cited.

1. Love involves more or less empathy with the loved one. A person who loves actually feels with and so shares intimately the experiences of the loved one and the effects of experiences upon the loved one. Sullivan indicates something of this in his concept of "empathy": "If men who have matters of great importance for themselves, it is quite possible to talk to this person as you have never talked to anyone before. The freedom which comes... permits nuances of meaning, permits investigation without fear of rebuff which greatly augments the consensual validation of all sorts of things."

2. One who loves is deeply concerned for the welfare, happiness, and development of the loved one. This concern is so deep as to become one of the major values in the organized personality of love. "Love is identical with activity..." It means creating existence where there has been none... If we view economics so, the study of it changes into a science of love... Art must create externally beautiful objects and internally it is itself love.

3. One who loves finds pleasure in making his resources available to the loved one. This can be used by the latter to enhance his welfare, happiness, and development. Strength, time, money, mind - indeed all resources - are happily proffered for the use of the loved one. This implies that a loving person acts with and on behalf of the loved one whenever his resources permit and the action is desired by the loved one. The loving person is not merely deeply concerned about the welfare, happiness, and development of the beloved, he does something to enhance them whenever possible. All sources seem to agree on this proposition, too.

4. On the one hand the loving person seeks a maximum of participation in the activities that contribute to the welfare, happiness, and development of the loved one; on the other hand the loving one accepts fully the uniqueness and individuality of the loved one and accords him freedom to experience, to act, and to become what he desires. This thesis is agreed to by nearly all of the sources consulted.

Love is most readily and usually achieved within the family circle, but can be extended to include many other individuals, or categories of people, or all of
humanity. In the case of Schweitzer it also includes all living things and the Creative Force of the universe – God. In the same way a person can advantageously experience love from a limitless number of other human beings and living things. Of course, genuine full love is hard to achieve even with a few persons, as several of our sources pointed out. But this is not proof that with greater scientific understanding of its processes we cannot create conditions that will favor its broadening.

6. The good effects of love are not limited to the loved one but promote the happiness and further development of the loving one as well. Love is not altruistic, self-sacrificing, and limiting for the one who loves. On the contrary, it is a reciprocal dynamic which greatly enriches the lives of both. This idea is not too clearly stated in a number of our sources but seems implied where not stated, in nearly all.

7. Love is not rooted primarily in sexual dynamics or hormonal drives, although it may well have large erotic components whether between parents and children, between children, or between adults. Fromm seems to support this position when he says that the essence of productive love is the same no matter who is concerned.

8. Love affords many individuals fundamental insights into and basic relationships to humanity and to the forces that organize and guide the universe. It gives many persons a basic orientation in the universe and among mankind. It can become the basis for faith in God. I was surprised to find support for this thesis from all sources. For example, Plant affirms that “from early adolescence on the Church gives a great many children a sense of belongingness which has greater continuity and certainty for the individual than anything provided by his parents.” Each of the other sources also intimates that love is a great aid in the developmental tasks of orienting the self toward the rest of mankind and within the universe toward God.

These eight theses, I hope, may be of some aid in analysing the nature of love and the processes by which it develops. Admittedly they represent only a first and faltering attempt. But if they are sufficient to focus more scientific attention and research on love, the purpose of this paper will have been accomplished.

Next we address ourselves to the third question. Since love does exist, it potentially can become a reality in the life of every human being. Then, if our theses regarding the nature of love are true, what roles can love play in human development? This question will be answered during the next decade, I hope, by a whole series of researches. The findings should fill many monographs and some books. In the meantime I should like to propose a series of hypotheses as to the probable findings of these researches, in the hope of suggesting profitable research leads.

The first hypothesis is that being loved can afford any human being a much needed basic security. To feel that one is deeply valued because one is, rather than because of the way one behaves or looks, is to feel fundamentally at home whenever one can be with the person who loves one so. From earliest infancy to most advanced age this feeling of being deeply valued is an important precondition to meeting life’s challenges and expectations, to doing one’s best without unhealthy stress.

The second hypothesis is that being loved makes it possible to learn to love oneself and others. The capacity of infants for empathy, before language development makes more explicit communication possible, permits the feeling of the nature of love very early in life. The closeness of mutual understanding among pre-adolescent peers makes its joyous expansion natural. The hormonal creation of unrest in the presence of peers of the opposite sex pushes its further development until it is stilled by intimate sexual sharing of vivid life in marriage. The mystery and the creative fulfillment that comes with the first baby begins a cycle of nurturance and guidance of a rapidly developing new personality that brings tremendous fulfillment through the years. But this wonderful growth and enrichment of life by love seems possible only to those who first were loved by others. Indeed we suspect that a person who has never been loved cannot fully respect and love himself but must always restlessly be reassuring himself as to his fundamental worth.

Our third hypothesis is that being loved and loving others facilitates the winning of belonging in groups. Of course, winning roles in group activities requires that the individual have knowledge and skills that are valuable in carrying on the activities of the group, for example, being able to act in conformity to group codes. Being loved contributes so none of these skills, but being secure through love and being able to give love favors personality characteristics that are easy and attractive in group situations. Such a child or youth has no reason to lord it over others, to be aggressive and hostile, or to be sly and withdrawing. Such children do not need constantly to climb in status by calling attention to the failures and inadequacies of others.

A fourth hypothesis is that being loved and loving in return facilitates identifications with parents, relatives, teachers, and peers by which the culture is internalized more readily and organizing attitudes and values are established easily. When one feels loved and loves in return it is easy to learn that which is expected, it is easy to believe that which one’s objects of love believe, and it is easy to aspire in the directions encouraged by one’s objects of identification. The unloved child feels so much insecurity that he scarcely dares to try his wings in learning. Or he is so full of hostility that he tends to reject what he is told and to refuse to meet the expectations that face him as a way of demonstrating his power to himself. Obviously the readiness of loving persons to provide meaningful experiences and to aid him in the learning process are further facilitations that give great advantages to loved children.

Our fifth hypothesis is that being loved and loving facilitates adjustment to situations that involve strong unpleasant emotions. When a loved child fails at something, the failure does not cut so deep as to make him doubt his basic worth because he is still secure in that love relationship. Consequently he is more easily reassured and encouraged to try again and again. In contrast the unloved child who fails is in double jeopardy. To his insecurity is added the feeling of inadequacy and the world looks blacker and blacker. When a loved child is frightened, he can literally or figuratively take the hand of the person who loves him, approach and examine the terrifying situation, learn its true dimensions, and more readily find the courage to face it. But terror to the unloved child is unbearable and overwhelming. Fearful things must be avoided at all costs, and if they enter and remain in the child’s field they may result in physical illness or emotional breakdown. Punishments, penalties, and the demands of authority are bearable for loved children because they do not imply rejection or fundamental lack of worth. Consequently they are analyzable by the loved child, who more easily can perceive their meaning and take them in stride. But to the unloved child these things may be taken as indicators of personal rejection or of unfavorable status. Resentment, rebellion against authority, hostility against peers who seem more favored, or fundamental doubts of one’s own worth ensue.

The implications of this paper for the education of pre-school children I think must be quite clear. But it may not be out of place to state a few of them briefly.
6. Children from homes where love is absent or ill-expressed do need to find a personal relationship based on love in the nursery school and in the kindergarten. In fact the finding of such a relationship is their main hope of avoiding later maladjustment and failure to achieve satisfactory love relationships as adults.

3. It is necessary that teachers in the nursery school and kindergarten have a full knowledge of the quality of the interpersonal relationships which exist in the homes of each of their pupils because this information is necessary to a real understanding of the behavior of each child and of his needs. In turn, this understanding is prerequisite to the making of wise decisions when interacting with the child and guiding his actions.

4. The gathering of this information about the emotional climate in which each child lives must be done very carefully, and requires considerable training. It must be recorded objectively and the records must be safeguarded with the greatest care. This implies that a strong code of professional ethics must govern all who have access to this information.

5. Only persons who have achieved the security of knowing that they are loved should be employed as nursery school teachers because persons who lack this security will be unable to build the kinds of relationships needed by certain children.

6. The nursery school and kindergarten must be administered in such a way that relationships between the director and the teachers, between supervisors and the teachers and among the teachers themselves will be warm, mutually-valuing and mutually assisting each other in all daily matters. The spirit in which the school is administered does much to create the climate in which the pupils live.

It is my firm hope that more and more children will be nurtured in a climate of warm love and deep respect for them as human beings. For I am sure that love gives the feeling of security to the human individual, that security gives rise to respect and acceptance of other people, and that this permits action in cooperative endeavors for the common good. And as we learn to work together for the common good peace will be established among nations as the only sane and reasonable basis of human relationship because we mutually love and value each the others self-realization as much as our own.

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The Development of the First Three Years of Life

Lecture by Professor R. Zazzo
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I

In choosing the subject, "The development of the first three years of life," for its Congress, the World Organisation for Early Childhood Education expresses and confirms one of the fundamental assertions of contemporary psychology: the basic importance of the first years of childhood.

I am not quite sure that many people will not be astonished to see educators being interested in a domain traditionally reserved to nurses.

For the prejudice that confuses the hierarchy of results with the reverse order of causes is tenacious, when it attributes to the spire of the church an eminence and a dignity which belong to the whole building.

Thus the professor of rhetoric receives higher honors, in the full meaning of the word, than the teacher who gives his young pupils the rudiments of reading, and the latter enjoys more prestige than the teacher in the nursery. The principle for this hierarchy does not lie in the difficulty of the educator's tasks, but on the appreciation of their dignity according to their degree of intellectualism.

But then what is there to be said about the first years of life?

In the perspective in which man evaluates all things according to his adult criteria, they are deprived of all value. At that stage they speak about upbringing, not about education.

This is because the growth of the young child appears to be accomplished under the sole pressure of natural forces, provided that he is fed.

There is no question of forming a person, of educating a spirit, but only of feeding a body.

In its swaddling clothes of old, the baby appears to be like a chrysalis, which one can predict and watch the metamorphosis.

The upbringing of a baby is then a humble task, which appears wholly as such, when free from the prestige attached to motherhood. The ridicule that traditionally accompanies the function of paid nurses is but the reflection of the comical and parasitic state of the baby. The upbringing of the young child is evidently the preparation for the future but in a stage where all progress seems to be essentially physiological, where the conditions of this progress are considered strictly material, where the social values have no relevance.

From that point of view, babyhood is not even the prehistory of the individual. But it is rather a kind of biological prelude. Moreover, the moving feeling of strangeness which the adult experiences in watching the baby in his cradle finds a sort of confirmation when he looks into his own past. He identifies his oldest memory around his fourth year. But beyond that there is a total obscurity deeper than oblivion.

But when the child ceases to be a small important animal, and when he begins to assert his independent self, the adult recognizes himself in this reduced and imperfect image of all his qualities. The nurse gives way to the educator. There is

no question of gorging the child's body with food, but of submitting his spirit to all the rules of the perfect adult, to reduce as soon as possible and as radically as possible the shocking and unrestricted behavior caused by his primitive impulses.

In this traditional perspective in which the adult is himself his own criterion of value and truth, there is no other alternative but "to be or not to be".

After the third year, the child is already seen as the outline of the adult. Before the second or third year he is a mere nothing. Or rather he belongs to the kingdom of promises, of projects, of phantasms where, away from any social law, his mother's love is the ruler.

The evaluation of early childhood in contemporary psychology.

This conception which evaluates the child in relation to his resemblance of the adult, which attributes the utmost of dignity to the years of infancy as they are nearer to mature life, will remain, there is no doubt, for a long time still in the depths of our beliefs. Nevertheless we know today that this conception does not conform with reality.

A more accurate conception was developed the day when the rights of the individual were asserted against the authoritativeness of society, when the originality of the child was asserted in contrast to the didactism of the adult. That was the time of Jean-Jacques Rousseau.

Finally, a truly scientific conception established itself the very day the notion of evolution founded psychology three quarters of a century ago. As the observations gradually accumulated, the importance of the first years of life was revealed with greater power. This was not only because the logic of genes, that the first years of life are important because of the mere fact that they are the first and the basis of all that will follow, was being established, but also because it appeared that these early years have a wealth unsuspected till then.

The distance travelled from 0 to 3 is enormous. It seems that the infant has realized by this time the essentials of his inheritance, that he has recapitulated the long history which in the darkness of time has led the animal to the man.

The new-born is wrapped-up, blind, incapable of any purposeful movement, lost in a foetal sleep, and poorer and humbler than the most primitive of animals. His sole ties with the external world are the air that he breathes, the milk that he drinks. When he emerges from his sleep in confusion, this is for crying and for sucking only. He is essentially a wailing and greedy mouth.

On the contrary, the child of three has already gone a long distance further than the most developed of the anthropoids. Not only has he acquired the upright position, but his walk is already steady and supple. Not only has he acquired the language, but already he begins to use in dialogue the difficult play of the personal pronouns. He not only has known for a long time to love and to fear, but with the strength of the weak, with anger, temperaments, and opposition, he already exercises himself in freeing himself, in testing his limitations.

The distance travelled is striking to the less informed of the observers. An exercise developed by Florence Goodenough contributes surprising results regarding this fact. The following direction is given to adults who are not child-specialists: "Try to picture as purely as possible a new-born baby... his appetites and his inappetites... Now think of the adults... Consider in detail the things they are capable of doing, mainly those that usually are considered as signs of intelligence... Now return to our starting-point, the new-born... Go slowly through the scale of the years and ask yourselves at each stage: does the child-type of this age resemble more the adult or the new-born, in everything he is able to do?" Continue this examination until you have reached an age at which, according
to your opinion, the likeness and the differences are so fairly balanced that one can hardly express an opinion”.

I have given this exercise many times at the beginning of the University year, with students whose spontaneity was not yet blunted by the illusion of the exactness of the mental tests. And I have found again and again the figures Florence Goodenough has obtained: the point of equilibrium between birth and adult years is the age of three.

This appreciation, to which the common mind comes in complete simplicity, is, moreover, confirmed by the learned speculations of the psychologists: Thordike and his collaborators come to the same conclusions by calculations, the details of which evidently I am not going to enter: At the age of three the human being has already travelled half the way of his mental development.

Moreover, I myself hesitate with regard to the significance of this astonishing statement. Is it possible to establish such a simple measurement for an evolution essentially quantitative? Is it a question of an objective fact? Is it only a question of a subjective estimate. The fact is, objectively, that the human brain reaches, also at three, half of its final weight. The fact is, of an entirely different order, that from Preyer to Wallon a “pleaide” of psychologists have considered the age of three as a memorable date: That of the first crisis, of the first decisive assertion of self.

But following Freud many authors have evaluated early childhood more strongly still. It is for them the period in which the essential complexes are knotted, the final structures of the personality are forged in such a way that at the age of three “the die is cast. And if there is a misplay, if there is an error of construction in these early years of life, the only resource is to go back into this early childhood, if possible, to renew the attempt. That means to go by way of the unconscious in quest of lost time; to recover the unhappy experience, or better still to detect an absence of experience, a frustration, a failure; and “to return to a childish behavior in order to start afresh the development of the fundamental relationships”.

I think especially here of the example cited by two American psychiatrists, Bettleheim and Sylvestre. It is the case of a boy of ten seriously maladjusted, who had attempted suicide. This boy had been abandoned by his mother at an early age, and had been transferred from institution to institution. His recovery began the day he was allowed to behave like a baby toward the woman who was taking care of him at the children’s home. He asked her to help him to dress and to feed him with a spoon, the regression went even as far as using the feeding bottle. Then suddenly the childish behavior was spontaneously abandoned. The needs of early childhood had been satisfied. The boy was practically cured.

I do not mention this extraordinary story to put in doubt the authenticity of a recovery, but to illustrate the explanatory theory of this recovery, to point out the extreme degree to which the revaluation and the rehabilitation of the early childhood have been effected in the minds of the psychologists. It was a mere nothing. To say it is everything.

**The biological significance of childhood.**

My purpose, however, is not to discuss the theories, but to expose the facts, to draw in a panoramic manner the characteristics of early childhood as they arise from the most recent works of psychology.

But it will be agreed that in psychology even more than in any other field the objectivity requires that one should be aware of the subjectivity of the authors, of the partiality of doctrines.

The ideas, surely, ought to be submitted to the facts, but the facts would never appear if they were not provoked by the systematic play of ideas.

It is then for me a duty to be frank and to tell you briefly the way I face early childhood, its significance, its role in the general scheme of life, and also the quite ordinary ideas to which I do not adhere.

From the point of view of quantitative appreciations, I think that we ought to be aware of the analogy between psychological and physical growth. To say, for instance, that the mental development of the child of three is half-way to the adult limit is no doubt applying a principle of an arithmetical order to a reality of a different order. It is running the risk, in the domain of scientific research of abandoning the prey for its shadow.

In my opinion the too hasty application of notions which suit the different psychisms of later years to the phenomena of early childhood is still more dangerous. To speak about anxiety at birth, for example, seems to me hazardous and completely unnecessary. A certain school of metaphysic consists in finding in the first stage of infancy the prototypes of the feelings and actions of adult life. Certainly this is a great advance in contemporary psychology, to have discovered forms of mentality prior or in abeyance to logic, to have described the experiences that have not been lived consciously by the individual himself.

But that does not authorize us absolutely to postulate an experience lived psychologically during the most primitive stages of life.

In reasoning that way, it is supposed that the conscience has existed always. It is denying the difficult but crucial problem: How does the conscience emerge into life? I doubt, however, that any serious psychologist would recognize as his own the mystical and lazy attitude which I denounced here. Nevertheless this attitude still remains in many writings with the excuse of metaphysical licence.

Finally, what I would not admit is the idea connected to the preceding one, that destiny is virtually accomplished at the exit of early childhood. This idea which is a revenge on the traditional intellectualism, comes in fact to the point of denying the importance as well as the originality of all the later acquisitions. The genesis of the human being ought certainly to be explained by the biological conditions of his growth, but also by his final expression; this is to say by the adult model which he must achieve one day in a given society.

The genesis is essentially a progressive conquest of the personal autonomy, and on every stage: motor, effective, intellectual, economic and social. Certainly a solid and balanced base, this is to say, a happy childhood, is the primary requirement of this autonomy. But the struggle is continuing far beyond the early childhood under varied and changing conditions. It is never perfectly won, never entirely finished. And all the powers in man concur in it, the strongest weapons of his mind as well as the resources of his effectiveness.

These considerations and reserves of theoretical order do not affect essentially, the picture of early childhood as it is drawn by contemporary psychology. One can realize that this attitude which now belongs to the past of evaluating early childhood had the merit of stimulating research into a field up to then unknown. At the end of the last century Baldwin drew on himself the mocking of his colleagues when he began to deal with what was called then ironically “nursery psychology”. A fundamental fact is acquired: in the ontogenesis of the human being, early infancy is of primary importance not only from the physiological point of view, but also psychologically.

Let us consider first the significance of childhood from the wider angle of biology. The evolutionist hypothesis, common to most research workers, included
us in the past to believe that the infant effected in the early years of his life a kind of recapitulation of the history of the animal species. The reality is much more complex. Infancy, a period in which the racial heredity of the child is effected, is also, as A. Gesell insists, a product of the evolution. What does that mean? First that childhood practically does not exist in the most humble of the living species; that the higher the position on the scale of evolution the longer is the infancy. But Gesell’s remark means also something else. The lengthening of the period of infancy is explained by the new acquisitions which lead to a structural reorganization, towards a qualitative transformation of the whole course of infancy. Thus compared with the childhood of apes, the childhood of humans is not only characterized purely and simply by the addition of a supplementary stage where the apprenticeship of speech and symbolic thinking is being achieved. This addition of the new stage is enjoined to a deep revision in the inferior stages. Or, if you prefer, the existence of a superior functional stage supposes a change of the substructures, the role of which ought to attune from now on to a formula more finely differentiated and, therefore, more complex, of biological adaptation.

Thus one understands the very discreet and temporary inferiorities and superiorities that one observes in the human child when he is compared with such apes as the orang-outan or the chimpanzee.

The child ape is more precocious in his walk, observation, and in fulfilling his needs, than the human child. But before the line of demarcation of speech interferes, the human child is capable of a very extensive range of imitations, while the ape is not.

Mme Kohls, a Russian psychologist, after having compared the development of her own son to that of a young chimpanzee during the first four years of their life, arrived at this conclusion: “It is impossible to say that the chimpanzee is almost human; we must even assert very clearly that in no way is he human.” This is to say, that man, in no stage of his development is identical with the other primates, in spite of the close resemblance of archeal reflexes and motor attitudes, which witness directly in favor of the evolutionist hypothesis.

The fundamental nervous structures common to all sub-human species, are subordinate in the evolution of the human individual to what will be later his superior nervous activity. These fundamental structures borrow their functional significance not only from the past of animal species, but from the new role which they have acquired in the nervous organization of man. Their lack of achievement, a condition of future integration, is interpreted by a lesser effectiveness, a greater plasticity.

This is the reason why the early childhood of humans is poorer, and more disarranged than the childhood of all other animals, but also the wealthiest in potentialities.

This helplessness being on the whole the genetic condition of that richness.

The plasticity of the sense-motor reaction allows for the formative influence of the environment through the precocious and subtle play of conditioning.

The lack of effectiveness (connected with the plasticity) of the prime reactions requires the constant care of the adult for the survival of the child. It is in such a way that conditioning is originally an essentially human characteristic. No doubt, there could be made a remark that the assistance of the adult is not a need exclusive to the human child; that this need can even exist under a psychological aspect in numerous species. Lidell’s recent experiments have shown how the kid separated from his mother could, under certain conditions, present nervous troubles and let himself die from hunger. But in the human species this vital need for the mother is much more imperative, much more complex. And under its double aspect, material and psychological, it persists much longer – for years.

Henri Wallon and A. Gesell, then, are right in saying that the social character of man is not a late acquisition due to external contingents or like a last installment to an initial inferior stage. The social character is engraved on his heredity, on the exigencies of his life. The human being is genetically social.

In this perspective, then, one can better grasp the considerable importance of early childhood, from the educative point of view as well as from the psychological, without the necessity of appealing to the myth of the Unconscious.

Early childhood is the period of life in which the biological heritage in its deepest stronghold realizes itself under the forms given to it by the constant action of human conditioning.

II

I now would like to review the essential facts of the development of the child from birth to the third year of his life under the three headings of motor activity, intelligence and personality.

The custom is to give excuses when we break up for didactic purposes, the unity of a living being. Personally, I shall not give any excuses. This break up is not a simple show piece. In my opinion it really corresponds to a series of true causes and effects, to particular ways of organization. And it is the proceedings of science, not only in the field of teaching, to analyse the different factors or sectors of development, of primitive causes of growth or of the slow effects of a differentiation.

Nature itself, from another view, reveals a few essential mechanisms of biological synthesis and analysis in operating the progressive differentiations of growth and the dissociations of illness or old-age.

We ought not to forget, however, that no sector or factor of growth has any significance outside the organic solidarity, outside the structure of the whole individual, and that this structure is a system of equilibriums which develop and change in the march of time.

The motor development.

Any development of the child is underlined by the development of his nervous system. And by nervous system we should not only understand an anatomical tissue but a system of activity. In the course of the development there is a reciprocal determination between anatomy and activity. In the actual state of our knowledge the progressive results of this evolution – that is to say the study of movement — are much more advanced than the description of the nervous mechanisms in the real meaning. On the other hand, the movement is the place where the junction of physiology and psychology appears.

It is the German psychologist, William Preyer, at the end of the last century, and the American psychologist, G. E. Coghil, at the beginning of this century, who, through detailed studies of the embryo of the vertebrates, have created the basis of a real ontogenesis of the behavior.

The psychologists of early childhood who followed these men have been able to verify in the human child a fundamental law of the morphologic and neuromotor development of the vertebrates: the law of the cephalo-caudal development.

In a memorable article in 1929 Coghil, in studying the salamander amblystom, had shown that in the larvae of this animal all the movements begin in the region of the head, progressing toward the tail. Progressively, the action of
the members becomes independent of the movement of the trunk, and it is the anterior members which become independent prior to the posterior.

The same process is observed in the human species.

The law of the cephalo-caudal development is already evident from the morphological point of view: the head of the 2 months old foetus represents half of the total length of his body, it is but one fourth of this length in the new-born, and one seventh of the size of the adult.

From the neuro-motor point of view and leaving aside the embryonic period, we find that maturation begins to secure the muscular control of the oculomotor muscles in the first quarter of the first year (4-16 weeks according to the estimations of Gesell). Then there follows the establishment of the control of muscles securing the balance of the head (18-28 weeks) and the control of the muscles of the trunk (28-40 weeks).

The cephalo-caudal development is combined with the morphological and functional development of the members; the direction of which goes from the elbow to the hand, from the pelvic region to the feet.

It is the law of the "proximo-distal" development. This development which goes from the central to the peripheral segments is explained, Gesell says, by a regular progression going from the control of the bigger muscles, or foundation muscles, to the smaller ones which serve the smaller movements.

Cephalo-caudal and proximo-distal developments are accompanied by transformations in the muscular tone which seems antagonistic in appearance. At birth it is the hypertonic reflex of the members, so characteristic of the foetal attitude of the newborn which is in contrast to the pytotonic inconsistence of the axis of the body: unstable head and bent trunk (global cyphosis). But slowly the members relax to reach the maximum of flexiblity and expanding capacity at about the age of 10 months. Then the axis of the body becomes firm: the head is balanced, the trunk and the lobar region are erect (lobar lordosis).

In fact, there is no antagonism. The general formula at birth is a hypotony of the extensor muscles, a hypertony of the reflectors. It is a formula of tonicity appropriate to the foetal conditions. It is a tonicity of a sub-cortical origin.

But as the control of the cerebral cortex progresses on the older sections of the brain and on the successive segments of the body, a surer equilibrium and a more flexible coodination are being established between the groups of antagonistic muscles. And this coordination, this synergy of the movements and muscular tensions, allows the newborn to better respond to the new exigencies of post-natal life, to acquire the human characteristics.

The hand is one of the finest examples of the maturation of coordination.

By virtue of the law of the proximo-distal development the arm tends, at first, to react globally by impulses from the shoulder. Then, progressively, the joints of the elbow and the wrist become flexible. The forearm becomes active. Finally, the hand and the fingers loosen.

You know that at birth the child closes his hand so strongly on any object that touches that hand it is difficult to slacken it. This is an archaic reflex, absolutely independent of the cortex, which Darwin has interpreted as an ancestral memory: the clutch of the ape rocking in the trees.

Moreover, this reaction reflex must totally disappear to allow the hand to become capable of true grasping. It is at four months that the full automatic action of this reflex disappears, but not until the end of the first year does the hand seem to have reached its complete independence in relation to the object. No doubt from the age of 4-5 months the object is grasped intentionally, but the slackening

is not yet voluntary: the object seems to adhere to the hand, or, on the contrary it escapes because of a brisk decontraction of the hand.

It is at the seventh month (according to the norms of Gesell) that the hand really seizes and handles. The action of the fingers becomes individualized. So at one year of age, the child is capable of taking delicately between the thumb and the index finger a small pill. The hand has become an organ of the brain.

As Cyril Koupnik, following André Thomas, says, this fact is a considerable event involving not only the motivity but also the sensibility and the capacities of analysis. Until then the child brings everything to his mouth and explores things with it. "From now on it is with the tips of the fingers that he will be able to explore the consistency, the form, the surface, the temperature of things and of his own body" (Thomas) and thus he is prepared for the more abstract analyses of the language.

This progress of grasping is closely related in the normal child with the progress of vision.

In other words, the progress of the proximo-distal series utilizes the progress of the cephalo-caudal series.

The eyes follow the hand, then later direct it. This is a rule that is continually found on all levels of evolution and which I have shown, for example, at the moment the child begins to draw.

But to establish this liaison between grasping and seeing for the first time in early childhood, not only the oculomotor muscles (3-4 months) should be controlled, but also the balance of the head (6 months) and the coordination of the movements of the eyes and of the head, and finally the coordination of the head, the eyes and the hand (10 months).

Let us return briefly to the cephalo-caudal development. Every advance of this development converges toward the acquisition of the vertical posture and the ability to walk. But the combination of the two laws of development is here still modified: the coordination of the body axis is completed by the maturation of the posterior members and is combined with it.¹

I ought not to have spoken, however, in such an absolute and schematic way, of the two laws of motor development. In fact, these laws of development are much more numerous, and each of the two principal ones which I have stated is much more complex. Thus, as Gesell indicates, the cephalo-caudal development is without doubt a condition of the vertical posture, but this law too depends in turn upon another: the coordination of the oculomotor of the cerebellum. In the neural evolution of the baby, as in the history of the animal species, there is no stratification of this progress, but rather a continual process of integration, of reorganization, of consolidation; in such a way that the equilibrium of the organism is always preserved.

Never has simple linear development been observed. But I have wanted to remind you one of the main lines of direction of the neuro-motor development.

Surely the motor evolution of the child is not achieved when the hand knows how to grasp, when the legs know how to walk. It will continue all through childhood by means of a more and more fine differentiation of the movements, which will allow a more and more precise adaptation to the world of things, to the world of beings, and to oneself.²

¹ In a work to be published in the coming number of Enfance my colleague, Mira Stambak, seems to have shown, according to the techniques defined by A. Thomas, a direct relation between the speed of evolution of the muscle tone of the posterior members and the precocious appearance of the walk.

² Among those who have contributed to the progress of this science of the motor
The stages of intelligence.

We can actually speak about intelligence from the moment when the movements coordinate with a purpose in view, provided this is not a release of an unconscious reflex. The nursing of a baby from his mother’s breast is not intelligence. It is intelligence to see the breast and seize it to bring it to his mouth.

Motivity and perception, in the degree in which they constitute unities of action or schemes, can be considered to be like the profound web of intelligence. These unities of action become complicated progressively to meet more and more numerous situations, to adapt not only to the present and actual but to purposes more and more distant in space and time.

No author has explained more systematically than Jean Piaget the genesis of the intelligence by this progressive coordination of sensory-motor schemes.

He has come to define three primary periods of intellectual development, each one subdivided into a certain number of stages. The precise identity of every stage is not a juxtaposition of independent acquisitions, it is really the structure of the whole.

The three primary periods of the intellectual development are the sensory-motor intelligence period (the genesis of which is achieved at the appearance of language, that is to say, approximately the age of 18 months), then the period which Piaget calls concrete operations, meaning that they aim at manipulable objects (manipulations real or directly imaginary) in opposition to the operations aiming at hypothesis or statements purely oral, which constitute the third period called the formal intelligence.

The second period is achieved at about the age of 12, the third is prolonged till the end of adolescence.

The first three years of childhood are encompassed by the first period and the beginning of the second.

I cannot enter here into a detailed analysis of the six stages which according to Piaget constitute the first period. I shall limit myself to a few words about each one and underline the principle of their integration.

The second stage (succeeding the stage of purely reflex reactions) is that of development of the baby first notice should be given to A. Gesell, M. MacGraw, André Thomas and Sainte-Anne Dargassies. The first two have given an excellent resume of their work in the manual of Carmichael (French text P. U. F. 1952). The basic work of A. Thomas and Sainte-Anne Dargassies dates from 1952: Études neurologiques sur le nouveau-né et le nourrisson (Paris, Masson, éd.). In this excellent little book, – intelligent though partial to the ideas of C. Kounéraz, – a general view is given of the different works on the psycho-motor development of early childhood (P. U. F., Paris 1934).

4. I have been able to show a type of imitation we can observe in the first month of life (about 15-20 days). The baby, comfortably held, his head immobilized, and his face near the face of the observing person, can imitate the rhythmic sticking out of the tongue. Here the child is placed in unnormally favourable circumstances. But this fact of imitation reveals in the one month old child unexpected neuro-motor possibilities.

the first habits. The child begins to suck his thumb. It is the first appearance of steady conditionings. The child establishes the first circular reactions between his movements and the sensations of his own body. This is what characterizes the behavior of the child between the first and fourth months.

In the following stage, the “secondary” circular reactions appear, that means these reactions which encircle other objects than himself. This is the age where coordination of vision and grasping operates. But when the object has disappeared, is gone from the visual field, it is not sought. This stage extends approximately to the 9th month.

Then (this is the fourth stage) the coordination of the secondary schemes begins in such a way that the possibilities multiply and becomes flexible in relation to the purposes to be reached. The child begins to look for the lost object. But he fails very often, because he does not know how to coordinate the successive changes of place of the object. For example, says Piaget, I put a doll under a cushion on the right of the child: he seeks it and when he has found it, I take it from his hands and slide it very slowly under the left cushion: he follows everything with his eyes. At the precise moment when he does not see the doll anymore, he returns to the right to look for it. It is in the following stage, from 11-12 months, that the child becomes aware of a change of place.

This example illustrates perfectly the fact that motivity limited to the sole description of a muscular displacement would not be sufficient to explain the conduct of the child.

The child follows the object very well with his head and eyes. This is a necessary condition.

But it is still necessary that the movement of the child assimilates the movement of the things, and that having done so, it is able to prolong and predict this movement. Thus, this is the establishment of the first affiliation of the act with the thought.

Actually, at this fifth stage which goes from 12 to 18 months approximately, the child reaches the essential of the sensory-motor intelligence. He is capable of inventing new means, of using instruments as means to an end. For example, he knows how to pull a cloth to bring him an object placed on it. With all the reserves we have made, the behavior of the child resembles at that time the behavior of the chimpanzee.

But the speech which will radically distinguish the human being from the ape appears. In fact, the sensory-motor intelligence hardly reaches its perfection (6th stage) when a new style of conduct is announced. This is the signal for the beginning of symbolic function, probably the dawn of the mental representations.

The signs of speech begin to double the perception and the concrete distinguishing of things and prepare the ascension of the imagination and of the intangible.

In the first stage of this second period of the intelligence, the child becomes capable of suspending his action as if thinking. The symbolic or imaginative plays make their appearance. Until now the child has only played with his body, his sensation, his movements and the objects which he handles. The novel forms of imitation seem to reveal the existence of mental pictures.

In all this, what becomes of motivity? It subsists, to all evidence, in the outer activities of the child. But the radius of action has lengthened into inactional time as well as into space. And the enlargement brings forward new difficulties for the child, new problems to be solved.

More subtly, the movement interprets itself as mental pictures. The process is easy to follow, if it is understood that the perceptive picture itself is a motor-activity. The sounds which hit the ear of the child only acquire significance and
become speech because he can imitate and reproduce the movements himself with his larynx and his lips. The visual stimulations only become forms and objects through the movements of the eyes which follow the movements of things and explore their contours in a kind of reflex imitation.

This motor imitation which has given form to the perception can give a form to the picture too and to the mental representation as well. There comes an age when it can be reproduced without any sensorial model and under the form of motor-schemes more and more discreet. It is for the schoolboy, for instance, the passage from reading aloud to silent reading. The two year old child does not know the words without saying them. Then he thinks in a low voice. The movements of the mouth and the larynx become less important. The speech becomes thought. And it is probably the same for the movements initially conditioned by visual perception and also perceptions of an entirely different order.

Thus, the movements linked originally to the direct perception of things, combined with the movements of speech, the bearer of the symbolic meaning, progressively form themselves within the mind.

The science of the future will teach us some day what is, psychologically, the final end of this inner formation: if the peripheral movements completely disappear in order to allow only the subsistence (as a basis of the mental representation) of the profound dynamics of the brain cells of which they are, at the same time, both the reflection and the cause.5

No matter what the final end will be, we shall find still the laws of integration and of differentiation in the passage of the perception to the mental image, in the passage of the sensory-motor to the symbolic intelligence.

The acquisitions of one stage are incorporated into the acquisitions of the next. But this embodiment is complex, and it is accomplished in very many ways. With the apparition of speech, the sensory-motor intelligence is transformed into symbolic intelligence, constituting a kind of invisible web, but it subsists also as the sensory motor-intelligence.

The thought integrates the movement and seems to deny it, but at the same time it affirms it, reinforces the power of it, and it can compensate the uncertainties and clumsiness.

There is affiliation and, at the same time, coexistence of the old and of the new, with links of collaboration which become more and more tight. The general orientation of the personality and the conditions of the environment could bring about a divorce of the two subsidiary traits of the intelligence which symbolize the two ends, manual and intellectual.

5. At the University of Geneva the psychologist, Barbel Inhelder, and the physiologist, Piéron, are combining their efforts to seek the relations which may exist between the mental development and the concomitant evolution of the waves of the brain. From another side the English physiologist, Grey Walter, the famous father of the cybernetic tortoises, has studied for years the maturation of the brain waves in relation to the evolution of the effective attitudes and the social behavior of the child. It has been pointed out on this occasion that the only methods of observation of the brain which do not require the sacrifice of the observed objects, those applicable to the human being, are actually the indirect method of analysis of behavior (psychology) and the examination of the brain waves (electroencephalography). Except for spontaneous phenomena, one could observe the phenomena provoked by experiment, by the action of drugs on the brain (bio-chemical technique) or by the action of stimulations on the behavior (technique of conditioning according to Pavlov). All these different points of view and techniques can evidently be combined.

Development of the personality.

The total development of the child and even his purely intellectual development might remain incomprehensible, if we disregarded his sources of energy, his needs, his interests. The simplest of conditionings is not possible in an indifferent situation, and the vision of an object would never have emerged from a combination of sensory-motor schemes if the child was not capable of investing in this object, his desire.

Then the satisfaction of his needs and his desires depends, entirely, at the beginning and for a long time after upon his environment. It is also through his environment that he will be in contact with the physical environment, with the world of things. His affectivity will have, originally, the form of human relations.

There is an idea common to all the specialists in child psychology, at least to all those who, as clinicians, have to understand and treat the troubles of behavior, the diseases of personality.

Nevertheless, it will be a long time before an agreement is reached on the successive steps of the personality. Nothing is comparable to the stages of development of the intelligence, at least as they are shown by Piaget. Maybe it is because the personality develops according to a dialectic much more complex, under multiple and much more diversified influences of environment, and that the incontestable functional unity (considered as the total integration of the individual) develops from age to age without interpreting itself, by structural units, as is the case of the intelligence.

The so-called stages or steps of the personality are defined, in general, by a dominant trait around which a style of conduct is organized. But the list of dominant traits varies from one author to the other, according to the explicative point of view of the author.

For Freud and his disciples, the explanation is the libido, the development of the sexual instinct. And the stages are characterized by localizations, by successive fixations of this instinct. Everyone knows Freud's famous outline: the human being passes successively from a buccal stage (first year), to an anal stage (between 1 and 3 years), and to a phallic stage (between 3 and 5 years) — the three periods constituting the narcissistic period of early childhood — before attaining the beginning of the genital stage (from 5-6 years).

This outline has been constructed to explain what is going on in the hypothetical unconscious of the disturbed adults. When the psychoanalyst undertook the examination of children, the direct observation of real development, the outline, the dates indicated in it, and its content, were strongly shaken.

Melanie Klein, for instance, situates the appearance of the anal and phallic stages earlier in the first year, and the oedipus complex, which has been linked to the genital stage, should be announced at the age of one by various sadistic manifestations.

For other psychoanalysts, the buccal sensuality is not sufficient to characterize the first month of life. The coordination, the synergy of the hand and the mouth, is for Hoffer the dominant fact which, from the age of 3 months, will become the model of the whole narcissistic behavior. For René Spitz, studying the birth of the smile in the child, the dominant trait from the age of 8 months is no longer a buccal fixation of the desired object but a fixation of the eye: a look illuminated by a smile for the mother, or a look full of anxiety for unknown faces. Raymond de Saussure, the most orthodox of the psychoanalysts I know, accepts more or less the new findings and often uses a language deprived of all freudian mythologies.

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Finally, John Bowlby, the eminent psychoanalyst of the Tavistock Clinic of London, categorically declares that he has never found the notion of the libidinal stages useful. It seems certain, moreover, that Freud in formulating his hypothesis of the libido aimed only at the development of a particular function; the sexual function, and that "Any tentative widening of these stages in order to characterize the whole psychological development of the child would be a complete error" (J. B., 1956, text not published).

An attempt to define the general stages of the personality is found in Henri Wallon, which is so close to the psychoanalysts in noticing the importance of human relations in early childhood, and so violently opposed when they seem to build, on the "exaltations" of the libido, the philosophy of an eternal destiny.

In adopting as an essential principle of description the idea of human relations, Wallon defined first, a stage of impulsiveness (a kind of psychologic non-existence) in which the new-born, with broken movements of purely organic origin, "is incapable of doing anything by himself" - not even of modifying his dangerous or uncomfortable position. His movements before becoming directly useful to him, bring someone else's intervention. By and by connections are established between the gestures of the child and the reactions of his environment. This is the stage of pure emotionality, free from any intellectuality. The emotional expression is the primitive language of the child, his first form of sociability. He is about halfway in his first year. But then he develops the activity Pavlov has designated by the term reflex of orientation or investigation. The hand is stretched toward the objects, catches them, explores them. This activity, turned toward the outer world, characterizes the sensory-motor stage. Walking and speech appear afterwards. Active changes of place due to walking and designation of the objects by words lead the child to the objective-motor stage. Meanwhile another stage is preparing itself: this is a return to the emotional dominant but with new characteristics. While, at the age of six months, the person of the child was mingled with his surrounding, at the age of two he seems willing to take a to be born in relation to and often against someone else's person. This is the period of games of alternation: of hide and seek, of giving and taking, of lending his voice to a dialogue with a different intonation for each person." Then attitudes, more and more numerous, of opposition and inhibition are manifested. This is the stage of personalism. It is the crisis of the personality which may be situated, according to Wallon, at about the third year.

If the Wallonian stages are, as all the others, subject to discussion and revision, at least they have the merit of coordinating the descriptions of having no explicative pretension in themselves, as those of Freud do.

Nevertheless, the decisive contribution of Wallon does not lie there, in my opinion, but it lies in the analysis of the human condition in its beginnings which he has performed, in his effort to understand how the psyche emerges from biology though distinct from it, and how the conscience frees itself from the initial confusion.

Having departed also from the study of movement, he has first shown that motor activity had two orientations. The one, turned toward the other world, seeking its effect in the modifications there, and needing the second for its preciseness. This is the real movement, the cinaetic activity. The second has its source in the domain of the attitudes, the postures, the mimicry. It is the tonic activity. "The libido," says Wallon, "is the stuff of which the attitudes are made, and the attitudes are in relation, on one hand, to the adaptation or the perceptive expectation, and on the other, to the effective life." And it is from the movements of others that the first attitudes of the child take their form. It is in the face of others that his laughs and his cries become a language. The emotion, we have already said, is, in a global and confused form, a first way of social communication. But it also prepares the mental representation "by the attitudes and the mimics that this mental representation involves". It is through a play of inter-individual exchanges, of loves and hates, of fluctuations, of rivalries and attachment that the personality is going to disengage itself from the primitive nobility, and that conscience of self and conscience of the world are going to be developed.

No doubt nothing illustrates better the progress of this conscience of self in the first years of life than the behavior of the child in front of his mirror, in front of the reflection of his own body. It is an observation I have made in the past of one of my sons.6

At the age of one the child approaches the mirror, licks it, kisses it, speaks to his image, thrush his body against the mirror as if he wants to pass through it, and from time to time goes to see what is behind it.

I think that it is a kind of game preceding a clear distinction of self and others, preceding also the distinction of the subject from his image.

But at the age of two I observe in the child a kind of confusion. The child seems astonished, embarrassed, he turns the head away. One can suppose that he has lost the innocence of primitive confusion.

For many months, nevertheless, he designates his image only by the words "a boy". It is only at the age of three (exactly 2 years and 10 months) that he calls the image by his own name, and the embarrassment disappears. At about the same time appears in his speech the correct use of the personal pronouns the Me and the You, the mine and the yours, and finally the "climax" of all the virtues of the I.

No doubt many more conquests are still to be accomplished before conscience becomes absolutely clear and personality completely autonomous. But the child of three is already far, very far, from his point of departure, from the vegetative condition of the newborn.

III

The influences of the environment

If my words have not been traitors to my thoughts and if my thoughts have not deformed the facts, the whole picture that has been drawn shows, at the same time, the enormous importance of heredity and the enormous importance of environment in the psychological development of the human being.

Importance of heredity: Mme Kohls and the two Kellogs have proved in a crucial way by bringing up, under identical material and emotional conditions, a baby chimpanzee and a human baby. The human baby has outclassed immediately his fellow ape, when the cerebral maturation has caused the appearance of speech.1

Importance of environment: Here the crucial demonstration was made by

6. Plus the two fundamental works of H. Wallon (Les origines du caractère chez l'enfant, et les origines de la pensée chez l'enfant) he has two articles containing the essentials of his thoughts. They are "Importance du mouvement dans le développement psychologique de l'enfant" (Enfance, No 2, 1956, pp 1-4) and "Niveaux et fluctuations du moi" (L'évolution psychiatrique, No 1, 1956, pp 389-401).


Kamala, the small Indian girl brought up by wolves. In spite of her human structure, Kamala was walking, eating and howling like a wolf.

Nothing can be understood of the complex play between hereditary conditions and conditions of environment if, in the first place, it is not clearly understood that heredity is a term which opposes itself to environment. The cases of pathological heredity support this false idea of opposition, and of supplementary percentages of both heredity and environment in the determining of a character or behavior. But cretinism, for example, almost nullifies the influence of the environment. This is because the normal working of the brain is nonexistent. We should not here infer the pathological to the normal condition.

The heritage of the normal brain implies plasticity, and educability. The aptitude to benefit by the influences of the environment, to break the fatality of heredity, is itself inscribed on the heredity of man. It is in relation to his heredity that man creates his environment, and it is the environment which gives expression, orientation, and form to heredity. They have no reality independent from one another.

There is no paradox in saying that the human species is that one which possesses the richer heredity and the greater educative plasticity. And it is in the small child that the maximum determinations of heredity and those of environment work. These determinations are not expressed in supplementary proportion by growth. They are integrated into one another.

This is the first basic idea.

The second idea is to distinguish between this problem of heredity and of environment, as they have been defined on the scale of the human species, and the problem of individual differences. It is here that the debate becomes passionate and prejudices darken the interpretation of facts.

The individuals, and even the human groups, differ from the point of view of intelligence, of character, and other psychological traits. What is the part of heredity and the part of the environment in these differences?

We forget very often that the margin of these differences is infinitely small in relation to our heredity and environment (and that each one of us is always far from taking advantage of the optimus conditions for the fulfillment of our possibilities).

Nevertheless, we must admit that these small differences have a tremendous importance from a psychological, methodological, and practical point of view.

From the psychological point of view they are important because they make each of us a unique person, from the methodological because it is through them that we can understand and analyse the action of general sub-jacent causes, and from the practical because in knowing these causes we can act upon them: educate and heal.

But there still, we must be suspicious of a too simple conception of the relationship between heredity and environment. In his essay entitled Heredity and Politics, the great biologist, Haldane, says: “If in England illiteracy is most of the time due to mental deficiency, or to blindness, illiteracy in India must be attributed in the first place to a lack of educational facilities.”

The relative importance of the environment varies, evidently, from one psychological trait to another. But also, according to the example of Haldane, it varies in the same trait according to the total situation of the individual or the considered human group.

Briefly, in the problem Heredity-Environment there is no answer which could be interpreted by a universal and fixed formula, for the simple reason that the reciprocal action of the factors at work varies infinitely.

The third idea is the one of diversity of environmental hierarchy which interferes with the psychological determination of each individual.

When we speak of environment we think at first of a general frame (social, economic, cultural conditions) in which the individual develops — and often stop at that conclusion. We do not ask enough about the “close environment” of the child, the family environment through which he acts, the extremely different forms of education, and the social environment. Finally we almost always neglect the fine network of individual relationships which the individual, from early childhood, weaves around himself. And it is at this level that the child assimilates the environment, acts upon it to model it in his own way. It is at this level that the environment becomes the active nurturer, the stuff of the person.

The picture of the three levels on which the formative influences are practiced is still much more schematic. But it will be useful to better understand the examples which I want to give you presently.

**Social, economic, and cultural environments.**

Before 1940 the greater amount of research was concentrated on the effects of the environment in its wider meaning, and especially on the effects of the environment on the intellectual development. This was to attack the problem under its apparently simpler aspect. But it will be easily understood that at this level (social categories) and for this criterion (intelligence), the interpretation of facts has been the cause of passionate debates.

To testify to a parallelism between the hierarchy of the social categories and the hierarchies of intelligences, then to prove that the intelligence is hereditary, would be to justify by the nature of things the hierarchy of classes, of nations and races.

A brutal fact is brought out from most research: In 3 year old children there is already shown a certain link between the level of intelligence and the social level of parents. But it is also testified that there is no difference in the first year of life. It is at about the second year that the link between the intelligence and the social level appears or, on another plane, a positive correlation between the intelligence of the children and the intelligence of the parents.

The interpretation seems clear enough: it is the growing and cumulative influence of the environment which accelerates, more or less, the rhythm of the mental development. But there comes an immediate objection from the partisans of heredity: the progressive differentiation of the kinds of intelligence can be explained, they say, by a progressive revelation of hereditary potentialities. The social differentiation of the intelligence is already established at the age of three and is no more accentuated in preceding years. This is held as proof that the influence of the environment which, moreover, persists, does not play an essential role.

Then more research can be undertaken: the intelligence of adopted children can be compared to the intelligence of their adoptive parents, with whom they

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3. It is here the methods of tests are placed: a technique for the description of individual variations around a norm.

4. The analysis of the variability of a given psychological trait does not establish a fixed relationship for the parts related to heredity and to environment: They depend evidently (but in a quite complex manner) on the degree, variable in itself, of the factors. For instance in the example of illiteracy they depend to a more or less great degree on the teaching.
have no parental link. A correlation exists without any doubt. Burks has found, for instance, a correlation of 0.20 between the adopted children, before the age of 12 months, and the intelligence of their adoptive mother. The weaker correlation of 0.07 with the intelligence of the adoptive father reinforces the idea in favor of the mother than the father in early years.5

But the partisans of heredity interfere by bringing up the hypothesis of selective placement. The adopting parents, they say, very often choose the baby according to his family antecedents, and when the adoption is made in later years, according to the intelligence of the child. The explanation of this paradox is, that an average correlation is stronger when the adoption takes place late. If Burks finds a correlation of 0.20 (at the age of 5) for children adopted in the cradle, Freeman and his colleagues find a correlation of 0.48, equal to that of true children (at the age of 11), for adopted children at the age of 4. The intellectual relation here would be established by a deliberate choice, by seeking a resemblance with the child to be adopted.

Nevertheless, Freeman, Holzinger, and Mitchell, among others, have brought to light less disputable facts. Of 156 children spread through well to-do, middle, and poor families indiscriminately they find a mean I.Q. of 111, 103, and 91 respectively. Finally, the same authors have compared the correlations among 130 pairs of brothers and sisters living separately for 4 years in different boarding schools, with the obtained correlation among 112 pairs of children unrelated to each other but living in the same boarding school. The correlations for these two groups were exactly the same: 0.25. This is to say, it is half-way between the nil correlation that can be expected from non-related children and the figure 0.50 which is the normal correlation for brothers and sisters living together.

I would not terminate this brief outline without recalling the case of the little girl, Marie-Yvonne, brought by the de Villard expedition from the Central American jungle. The baby who belonged to the most primitive tribes of the globe became a very bright student in Paris.

Do we need to conclude in favor of the primary importance of the environment? It is easy for the author to give himself the last word in his own exposé. I should like to be impartial. I am, at least, be careful. Surely the organic conditions and probably hereditary conditions of intelligence exist. It is even because of that, in a way, that certain intellectual possibilities can resist the often unfavorable conditions of the environment.

But let us remember that these possibilities of resistance, of compensation, are very weak in early childhood. And that it is up to us, the adults, to safeguard the mental potentialities of the new-born. Let us remember that a margin always exists, even in the most disinherited children, in which the environment has the most beneficial influence.

Conditions of maternal upbringing.

The most elaborated statistical facts of this great research will never bring us very far in the field of explanation, whatever we do. They can fix the nature of the social cause of certain psychological miseries. They are not going to reveal very much of the mechanisms which work with these causes. Poverty, for instance, has not only direct action on the child because of insufficient food and material comfort, it works in much more insidious ways, much more efficient ones. The

5. A quite complete revue of facts before 1940 can be found in the chapter written by Harold E. Jones for the Manual of Carmichael. But this revue presented in a one-sided way is in favor of the primary importance of heredity.
published, and proposes the same explanation, the close contact of the young African with his mother.

"She feeds him whenever he asks," says Mlle Geber, "giving him the breast at the slightest cry, she carries him on her back, sometimes in contact with her own skin, always tightly united to her, holding a flap of her dress, she sleeps with him ... The child lives in a warm world, perpetually protected by his mother, and this extreme comfort gives him security."

Certainly one can invoke racial factors to explain the rapidity of the neuro-motor development of the young African: holding up the head at the age of 6 months; precocious erection of the lumbar region (lumbar lordosis); attaining a standing position with both support at the age of 7 months; walking at 10 months; astonishing mobility of the wrist and the fingers, which gives flexibility, dexterity, and freedom of gestures; and at 12 months delicately holding the pill between the thumb and the index finger.

But the phrase of Wellon, "the movements of the child take shape from the movements of the adult," comes to our memory in reading the detailed reports of Marcelle Geber.

"The child is constantly carried on his mother's back, and in following the different movements he learns to hold his head ... It is perhaps because the child is held in a sitting position, the trunk erect, lying against his mother, and the posterior members are bent and around her waist, that the lumbar muscles have a tone which allows him to attain a sitting position, to walk very early, and to acquire an excellent balance which he is going to keep all his life."

But how to explain the slow-down after the age of 2? Marcelle Geber thinks that this is due to the emotionally brutal weaning. This is a true break-up: the mother refuses him her breast, she does not sleep with him any more. Very often there is material separation too: the child is taken to a relation, at so great a distance that the mother seldom sees him goes to see him. There is an attitude of the African mother which seems to correspond to a whole educational conception. "Many African mothers think," one of them was saying the other day, "that it is a sad thing to play with the children and that this can do them harm."

Here are observations which illustrate in an unusual way the importance of the mother-child relationship. There is no need to prove the importance of it. We must only underline on a practical plane every consequence, recommend adoptions in the first weeks of life before the child is already fixed to his mother, open wide the children's wards to the mothers, include psychology in the training of the personal concerned with children, and take social measures in favor of the women who go to work and the unmarried mothers to enable them to keep their children.

But I would, however, oppose vigorously the exaggerations, the almost too quick generalizations of certain psychiatrists. All children do not suffer in the same degree from a separation, and a certain number of them seem to escape the deteriorating effects which have been described. As an expert, I have followed, for many years, the English and French work, which the International Center of Childhood has devoted to the study of this separation. I have always regretted that a study has not been made on the children who resist the effect of this separation or who know how to readapt quickly. Bowlby and Spitz have a clear answer to this. First, they believe that any child victim of a separation is psychologically affected, even if this is not apparent. Then they say that if there is such a serious danger, it is much better to take measures safeguarding all children.

The problem is much more complicated, and Bowlby knows it very well, having set aside a whole section of his book to show the measures which should protect the children who have to be separated from their mothers.

The clumsy vulgarisation of ideas concerning maternal care can have disastrous results. Recently the women working in a big metal factory in the Parisian region, hesitated to leave their babies at the nurseries for the whole day, for fear of their becoming idiots.

We ought to find out the practical solutions to the unavoidable and more or less prolonged separation. To do that we ought impartially to study the resources of resistance and compensation in the children as well as the causes of their vulnerability.

The fine structures of the environment.

I should like to finish by observations concerning twins.

The first observations related to their rhythm of development are connected with what has been said about the environment which is considered as the immediate surroundings. In general, identical twins grow a little less quickly intellectually than ordinary children. This is not imputable to questions of social level: I have observed this fact on social levels. It is not imputable either to negligence of the part of the mother: twins enjoy, in general, very attentive care. Finally, this is not imputable to non-hereditary inferiority. There is no reason for that, and so their neuro-motor development is absolutely normal. I have been able to show with my colleague, Irène Lezine, that the slow pace of the first years is due essentially to an insufficiency of speech, to poor social relationship and poor games.

The twins operate like screens to one another, in relation to the influences of the adult. The deficiency in their relation with the adult in the stage of comparative sociability can harm the ulterior evolution of their personality, if care is not taken to make the twins independent of one another as soon as possible.

The second observation which gives us still more to think about, is the existence of two clearly distinct personalities in beings perfectly identical from the point of view of heredity.

The whole educational concept also seems identical, since they live in the same era, in the same family, with the same care, and the same clothes. But the environment is not this alone in the scale of individual experience. It is the web of all the relationships which each one of us weaves with his fellowmen. The relationships of rivalry, of complementary relationships.

The repertoire of our roles varies according to our partners. There is not a special law here for twins. But they themselves illustrate such a law in keen relief since they succeed in creating a unique personality though they live under the same conditions of heredity and environment.

CONCLUSION

My exposé has been very long. My conclusion is short.

To all evidence the child of 3 is no longer a baby: he accepts separation from his mother, he is less yielding because he is capable of defending himself, and he is less vulnerable. But the age of reason is still far away. The independence is still very frail. We should not believe, like the African mother of Kampala, that it is a bad thing to play with the children and that they do not need the mother's affection.

The affective weaning must not be brutal. The great advantage of your Nurseries, of your Nursery Schools, is to provide a slow transition between the family environment and the school environment. But there is no question of simply liquidating the strike of the preceding period. Growth continues with its new
wealth, its new acquisitions which can eventually compensate the poverty of the first years. The action of the adult can always benefit, but an account of the duration ought to be kept in the depth of the organic maturity and the existence of certain sensitive periods.

No dice are cast conclusively for ever, but education ought to take into consideration the irreversible laws of maturation, the weight of past experiences, and the astonishing plasticity of the human spirit in order that the game be favourable and that finally the child may win.

Summary of the Deliberations of Commissions I-IV

COMMISSION I:
Maternity, A Social Function

Introduction.

Normal life in the family – the human group whose natural composition comprises father, mother and children – should ensure in a stable and permanent fashion the child’s health, physical and mental harmony, and material and emotional security.

I. – The right of mother and child to obtain health supervision.

a) Women must have the right to health supervision, not only before and during actual pregnancy, but continuously throughout the whole child bearing period of their life.
b) All medical advice and treatment should be coordinated and, where possible, provided by central comprehensive institutions which are concerned with prevention as well as with cure.
c) So that she may have the feeling of security, it is to be recommended that the mother should be able to choose for herself a medico-social team enjoying her confidence.

II. – The right of mother and child to social assistance.

Maternity being a social function, guarantees must be given:

a) to all mothers
   - that all the health safeguards necessary during pregnancy and confinement are made available;
   - that decent living conditions are assured, either through a just balance between wages and prices, or through various allowances, so that mothers of young children are not compelled to work outside the home because of overriding economic needs;
   - that, in case of need, they will be able to obtain the help of qualified persons (family aids) or be replaced by them in the home;
   - that institutions for children of preschool age exist and are adapted to the various needs of family life, which will be able to assist the mother in her educational task without replacing her, except in cases of absolute necessity.

Such institutions are: –
Residential Nurseries – institutions in which babies are kept permanently. Access to such establishments should be facilitated for the family or its remaining members, and an adoption bureau should be attached.
Creches, nursery schools, kindergartens – institutions at which the child does not stay permanently. It is to be recommended that these remain
open at times coinciding with the working hours of mothers — including the period of night shifts in the case of creches — and that all should care for children for short periods, if necessary. It is desirable for the children to be supervised by staff qualified in the fields both of health and of education.

_Hospitals and clinics_ — When, even with the aid of a trained nurse, a child cannot be taken care of at home, and has to be sent to hospital, steps should be taken to ensure that it does not lose contact with its parents. In such cases, the provision of educational activities for the children is to be recommended.

b) _To working mothers:_
- that they shall be entitled to three or four months of maternity leave to be taken when desired. At the termination of such leave, they should have a free choice from among the following alternatives:
  - a return to full-time work with facilities for baby-feeding provided at the place of work;
  - facilities for obtaining an additional period of unpaid leave, without losing the privileges connected with their work or the rights attached thereto;
  - half-time work with a fixed proportion of wages and social benefits.

c) These same advantages should be granted to unmarried mothers.

III. _The education of parents._

All efforts to promote the right of maternity should be aimed at making the family aware of its responsibilities and not at assuming such responsibilities in its place unless it is unavoidable. All education should be designed to prepare parents for shouldering their responsibilities.

It is recommended that family education and preparation for family responsibilities should be given to youths and adults of each sex, in accordance with their social environment and the awakening of interests, i.e. at adolescence, engagement, marriage, expectation of a child, meeting with educational problems.

IV. _Legislation._

The O.M.E.P. draws the attention of all governments to the importance of maternity as a social function, of the recommendations made at the Vth Conference from three aspects, viz. health, social and educational.

We recommend governments to take the necessary legislative measures and to ensure their widest possible diffusion and application.

V. _Diffusion._

O.M.E.P. national committees are advised to diffuse these resolutions among interested circles, viz. workers, women’s organisations, industrial management.

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**COMMISSION II**

The main object of the Commission’s activity was to answer the following question: “Can institutions meet the needs of the child under the age of three? If so, what are the essential minimum requirements?”

Accepting the fact that the child under three will not find fully the emotional warmth it needs elsewhere than in a natural family, the Commission examined only the problem of how the institutions could best answer the needs of the children entrusted to them.

It particularly recommends that every possible effort be made to get the authorities in every country to establish and encourage — in so far as their means permit — the foundation of a sufficient number of institutions to fill the needs of children.

It stresses that it must be possible to satisfy to the maximum the child’s basic needs of security, affection, activity and society in those establishments in which the twentieth century economic situation compels parents to place their children.

It urges that such institutions be capable of supplying the child with the additional or substitute maternal care essential for its normal development and fulfilling the following minimum standards:

1. _Maternity:_ As far as possible, the child should not leave its mother’s room and should be fed by the mother.

During maternity, the mother should be given advice and the elementary conceptions of her new role, and possibly some idea of the emotional precautions to be taken with regard to her other children.

From the very beginning of the confinement, the father should be actively associated with the circumstances of the child’s birth.

2. _Creches:_ The creche should only take children whose mothers cannot possibly supply the necessary care, and it should be provided with:
- adequate premises in sufficient number, rationally equipped, and with an extensive variety of material adapted to its needs;
- sufficient staff (at least one children’s nurse for 5 children of less than one year old, and for 8 children of between 1 and 3).
- personnel that at all levels, from doctor to maintenance staff, have received sufficient training in both child psychology and in hygiene.
- the children should be divided into small groups, as far as possible of varying ages. In admitting them, account must be taken of the critical periods through which they may be passing, e.g. weaning, teething, walking, another birth at home, etc.
- children should be encouraged to perform the actions of their everyday life themselves and to help one another mutually.

The numerous opportunities of speaking to every child individually should be used from the first few months of life.

3. _Nurseries, Children’s Homes — Boarding Schools:_ Children’s homes should accept only those children who are abandoned, orphans, or marked by delicate and those whose mothers are seriously ill. In some countries, the needs are at present temporarily more extensive, e.g. displaced persons, refugees, emigrants.

In all cases, it is important to maintain close and frequent contact with the family or, if there is no family, with a substitute or guardian.

While the creche is auxiliary to the family, the residential nursery must provide a substitute for the mother of which the child is deprived. Therefore, while all the
conditions required for the creche must be fulfilled, the residential nursery must further fill the following requirements:
- be informed on the child's living habits in its family and the reasons for its being placed in the nursery;
- the child should be entrusted to a group of staff as permanently as possible with adequate provision for a staff rotation;
Wherever possible, preference should be given to adoption rather than to placement in a residential nursery.

4. - Nursery Schools - Kindergartens.
The institutions accepting children of 2 and 3 years old should offer them:
- specially adapted and equipped premises;
- appropriate health care and nourishment;
- very flexible timetables, favouring the individual and progressive adaptations of each child;
- activities corresponding to their psychomotor development;
- trained educators in sufficient number to allow small groups of children, and well educated service personnel.

These standards of filling the needs of the child of 2 to 3 represent a model formula and it must be left to every country to solve its specific problems by degrees.
- possibility of contact with parents during the day.

5. - Hospitals:
- It is essential that the child be prepared by its parents for any entry into a hospital.
- The first moment of its stay should be spent in the company of its mother and of the person who will be specially responsible for it in the establishment.
- The working hours of the nursing staff should be so arranged that all important nursing care is performed by the same person.
- The child whose stay will be long should enjoy the same advantages as it would in a nursery, e.g. family visits, equipment and toys suitable for its age or state of health.
- Doctors and nurses and assistants should have the additional psychological training essential to their specialised task. Parallel to those responsible for the strictly medical care, there should be an educational staff (nursery school teacher, nursery nurse) able to devote themselves to every child and encourage the games and activities suitable to its emotional development.

Before the admission of children into residential nurseries, hospitals and clinics, it is necessary that a preliminary contact be made within the family circle between the child and a member of the staff of the institution to which it is to be sent, and that familiar face be the first to smile at the child on its entry into the nursery or hospital.

The Commission stressed the fact that the training and qualifications of staff at every level are important. The restricted time at its disposal did not allow it to examine the question sufficiently.

It recommends that in the near future O. M. E. P. attack the question of the choice, training and further training of staff in establishments accepting children of under three years of age.

COMMISSION III

The importance of diagnosis of handicaps at the earliest possible time.

Having heard the four introductory reports on bodily, sensory, intellectual, and emotional handicaps Commission III has reached for the establishment of the following facts incident to the importance of handicaps and the diagnosis of these in early childhood:

1. The importance of these handicaps is manifest in the frequency of their occurrence and the serious influence they have, partly with a view to the later development of the individual, partly with a view to the interests of society.

As regards their frequency the examinations undertaken in the various countries show 10% of handicapped children, but probably the actual percentage rate when taking into account very considerable numbers of cases which escape these investigations, is much higher.

Regarding their influence on the further development any handicap, even if it is very slight at first, will restrict and limit the sum and nature of experience made by the child so that it runs the risk of being still more handicapped.

2. The interest offered by an early diagnosis quite naturally lies in a so much better effectiveness of the curative measures: improvements, compensations by stimulation of the intact faculties, indeed, even complete cure in several instances.

The commission unanimously established, on the basis of its present knowledge and technical means at command, that:

1. The majority of handicaps reveal themselves in the very early childhood - certain cases already at birth.

2. The effectivity of interference of educational and medical nature is manifest already in the early childhood, and may even be most pronounced in this period.

It follows that the commission unanimously attaches weight to mention of the conditions that are necessary for the tracing of handicaps as early as possible:
1. Introduction and regular function of medical examination of children from infancy up to at least the third year.

In order to make such institutions fully effective the examination must be obligatory; and it must not be restricted to towns only but should be extended to the rural districts too, e.g. by establishment and extension of ambulatory sanitary teams.

These obligatory examinations should be made at regular, periodic intervals. In short the examinations should be obligatory, periodic and free.

2. Establishment and extension of educational institutions (nurseries, kindergartens, preschools) for children from 2-7 years of age.

Such institutions must pay due regard to the quick changes in the child during this period of its life, and thus also to the varying needs characterizing the child from say, its second till its third year and from its sixth to its seventh year.

3. Development of measures for vocational education and for the propagation of this central idea of the importance of the early childhood and its handicaps.

a) Especially an education of preschool teachers enabling these to contribute to an early tracing of the various handicaps, it being, however, not necessarily a question of making these teachers able to put themselves in the place of the physician or the psychologist, but enabling them to make a tracing prior to their coming into the picture and thus cooperate with the other specialists of the welfare of the children;

b) to provide means for the children's welfare practitioners (preschool teachers, nursery nurses, pediatricists etc.) to give personal information and guidance to the parents; in other words see that the examinations and preschool institutions, by
direct contact with the families, become centers of propagation of the basic knowledge of psycho-pedagogy; 
c) that the pre-schooling for the future role as parents if possible be performed already in the school-days; 
d) that the basic knowledge concerning the needs of the child and the parents' role be revived to the future spouses.
e) that a continuous propaganda be carried toward the general public (parents-school, pamphlets, lectures, films, broadcasts).

The commission has been of the opinion that its task was to emphasize the importance of the handicaps and their diagnosis at a very early time as well as to indicate such measures that should be adopted in every country for the tracing of such handicaps.

It did not come under its authority to make a precise analysis of the therapeutic means. But it is obvious that, from all that has been said, it follows that it is imperative that the specialized institutions, the educational, psychological, and medical means that should make it possible to remedy all the handicaps now revealed must be established in great numbers.

COMMISSION IV

The 4th Commission began by drawing up the following working agenda:
1. Place of the 7th Assembly.
2. Means to be used for promoting contacts among the national committees.
4. Topics for examination by the 7th Assembly.
5. Finance.

Our Commission's method of procedure was as follows:
1. An outline of the various proposals contained in the report of the national committees with reference to every item on the program listed above was distributed to delegates at the beginning of the Assembly.
2. The friendly and animated discussion that followed made it possible for us to adopt unanimously the following proposals for submission to the Assembly.


The 4th Commission recommends that the 7th General Assembly of O. M. E. P. in 1958 be held in Brussels where a Universal Exhibition will be taking place at the time, and that the 8th be held in Zagreb in 1960, that city having already extended an invitation.

2. The promotion of contacts among national committees.

A. - The 4th Commission recommends the continuation and improvement of the publication "O. M. E. P. News", the first number of which was issued to you at the beginning of this Assembly, through the adoption of the following measures:
- publication at least twice yearly, and if possible more often;
- inclusion of news on:
  - O. M. E. P. activities;
  - important activities and interesting efforts made by the national committees;
  - certain questions put to all national committees simultaneously, e.g. the questionnaire on holiday dates in the first issue;

3. c) preparation of a summary of replies to the following questions asked of all national committees, in one of the forthcoming issues:
   a) How influential is O. M. E. P. in your country?
   b) What help does O. M. E. P. give you in your country?
   The results of this investigation should be extremely helpful in leading Unesco to continue its cooperation with O. M. E. P.
   The responsibility for this O. M. E. P. news will be entrusted to a member of the council.

B. - In addition, the 4th Commission recommends the development of exchanges of educationalists and others interested in preschool education:
1. by recommending each national committee to take the necessary steps to promote such exchanges;
2. by requesting the O. M. E. P. Bureau -
   a) to address a letter to UNO and Unesco asking them to allocate a greater number of travel fellowships to preschool teachers, psychologists and all those active in preschool education;
   b) to write also to the Technical Assistance Board in Geneva (for Europe) and in New York in order to obtain information on the fellowships available, and to put this information at the disposal of the national committees;
3. by establishing direct exchanges of documentation among the national committees, such as the O. M. E. P. News brochures published by some national committees, notices on equipment, the best films and books for children, the best films and books for educators.

3. International Days.

a. The 4th Commission, in choosing famous figures whose life and work are to be celebrated at international O. M. E. P. days, has remained faithful to the principles affirmed at previous congresses:
   - to honour those internationally famous figures who have contributed to the advancement of the science of childhood and children's education, or to give wider prominence to those who have been pioneers of preschool education on the national level.

   The 4th Commission therefore proposes, as a token of O. M. E. P.'s gratitude to the Greek committee which has taken the responsibility for this splendid congress, to commemorate in 1957 Katherine LASCARIDOU, founder of the first nursery school in Greece.

   In 1958 the world famous Sigmund Freud is to be commemorated.

b. For the future, we recommend that national committees be invited in good time to submit the names of their nominees for this celebration, at the same time giving all the necessary information about them, in order to facilitate the choice of the 7th Assembly.

4. Working Topics for the 7th Assembly of O. M. E. P.

General topic: The challenge of the children: Unity and continuity of educational influences on the child of preschool age (for O. M. E. P. the preschool age extends from 0 to 7).

1st topic: Relationship between the family and the various environments in which the child's life is spent. What are the means for avoiding psychological disturbances caused by transition from one environment to another? Emphasis will be laid on the difficult transfer from the family to the preschool establishment and from the latter to the primary school.
Report of the President General

The President stated that the Assembly had been legally summoned 180 days in advance. He expressed his gratitude to the Greek Committee, host to the Congress, for their untiring work on behalf of arrangements for the meeting. He expressed his regret that this time there were no representatives neither from UNESCO nor from UNICEF, but he added that both Dr. Wall and Mrs. Grace Holmes Barney had sent good wishes. He presented furthermore greetings from Mrs. Alva Myrdal and Lady Allen of Hurtwood and others. He mentioned the visit of the President General, the Vice-President, Madame Herbinière-Lebert, and the President of the British National Committee, Miss Phyll. Pickard to the A.C.E.I. Congress in Washington.

The Headquarters had closely examined the status of Committees in accordance with the Criteria adopted by the World Council at its meeting in Paris, November 1953. The World Council unanimously proposed that:

- Austria, Belgium, Denmark, France, Great Britain, Norway, Sweden, U.S.A. and Yugoslavia maintain their status of National Committees.
- Moreover that Australia, Brazil, Greece, Israel and South Africa are recognized as such.

With regard to Italy, the Chairman mentioned negotiations that had been carried on during the last two years in a friendly spirit, and his visit to Rome immediately in advance of the Assembly. He welcomed Professor Franco Bonacina as an observer of the Italian Ministry of Education. He asked the Assembly, according to By-Laws Art. I. 9 c. to delegate its power to the Council with regard to the qualification of Italy as a National Committee.

This was unanimously adopted.

Status of Preparatory Committees was attributed to the following countries:
- Canada, Germany, India, Iran, Lebanon and Uruguay.
- OMEP has positive contacts in:
  - Chili, Holland, New Zealand, Pakistan and Spain, furthermore Egypt, Finland, Iceland, Jordan, Iraq, Nicaragua, Switzerland, Syria and Thailand.

The Chairman regretted to have to propose the cancellation of:
- Columbia, Honduras, Luxembourg, Mexico, Peru, El Salvador, and Venezuela.

Said the President: “I want to underline the importance of creating an economic basis held up by National Committees that undertake obligations that can be relied upon. Everyone must know how much more easy it is to raise claims and e.g. “submit recommendations to the Assembly” without the slightest idea of the actual financial situation of OMEP. Certain recommendations had been impossible to fulfill because of insufficient budget allotments for staff. The President made an ardent appeal stressing the necessity of procuring funds covering a proper salary and the necessary travelling expenses for a general secretary in the sense of the By-Laws. The work of OMEP requires a full time, fully qualified executive director”.

Problems to be examined:
1. Duration of period to be spent in a preschool establishment according to age.
2. The different sizes of groups to be entrusted to a single teacher, according to the age of the children concerned.
3. Inspection and supervision of teachers: the guidance and help to be given them.

The 4th Commission recommends:
1. that, on the occasion of the 7th Assembly, an exhibition be held for which every national committee be invited to send material (toys and other equipment, photographs, etc.) to illustrate the activities of children of preschool age – up to 7;
2. that the Council of O.M.E.P. request Unesco to finance under contract the study of those questions raised by our report which concern that Organization more particularly.

The Commission left the question of O.M.E.P.’s financial position for examination by the Bureau and Council.
He expressed the gratitude of the Council towards Mr. Jens Sigsgaard who had volunteered as a General Secretary during the past two years, but now had to retire as he could not afford time to act as such in the future.

**Report of Madame Herbinère-Lebert**

The Vice-President in charge of the relations with UNESCO, (except economics) after having given a short summary of the character of OMEP and its relation as a non-governmental organization (NGO) with consultative status to UNESCO, mentioned her activity during the past two years, participation in meetings, important negotiations, visits to Paris by outstanding personalities from abroad etc.

The Vice-President had elaborated a report about OMEP in advance of the UNESCO-Conference in Montevideo in October 1954 which was distributed to the National Delegations.

In February 1955 she organized an Expert's Committee in collaboration with UNESCO and prepared a questionnaire on the subject: “Education of Parents of Young Children by Means of Pre-School Institutions”. She was the leader of the said Expert's Committee at the UNESCO Institute in Hamburg and elaborated the final report (translated into English by Miss Caine, Great Britain).

Furthermore the Vice-President had answered a questionnaire from UNESCO concerning OMEP activities since 1952 and a similar questionnaire from the Union of International Associations. She also mentioned her activity in relation to other international organizations in the field of child-welfare and early childhood education.

**The General Secretary and the Treasurer**

The General Secretary gave details on the work at the HQ and mentioned particularly the importance of the News Letters. He expressed his satisfaction, as an old friend of OMEP, to be at hand in Copenhagen when needed, in spite of the fact that he was not able to continue any longer as a General Secretary because of lack of time.

The Treasurer presented the accounts for 1954 and 1955 and had them approved without objection.

The results of the election of members of the Bureau were announced and received by hand clapping. A telegram from the former General Secretary of OMEP, Madame Claire Sautier, was read and applauded.

The recommendation of the Council that the VII World Assembly be held in Brussels in 1958 and the VIII Assembly in Zagreb 1960 was unanimously adopted.

The General Assembly closed and a Plenary Session, with the newly elected Vice-President, Dr. Best Goodykoonz chairing, continued immediately the work with the final wording of the recommendations of the Commissions I-IV.

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**List of delegates and observers**

**AUSTRALIA:**  
Mrs. J. Cliffe  
Miss Postiaux

**AUSTRIA:**  
Dr. Ernst Koithauer  
Mrs. Rousseau

**BELGIUM:**  
Miss Alice Claret  
Mrs. Lachery

**BELGIUM:**  
Dr. Gogneaux-Bouny  
Mrs. Devin

**BELGIUM:**  
Miss Germaine Vanhemelryck  
Mrs. Morgoulis

**BELGIUM:**  
Mrs. Couvreur-Vermoot  
Miss Lorent

**BELGIUM:**  
Mrs. Yvonne de Wynder  
Miss Cécile Vorbe

**BELGIUM:**  
Miss Elizabeth Moritz  
Miss Andouze

**BELGIUM:**  
Mrs. Edouard Leblanc  
Mrs. Devine

**BELGIUM:**  
Miss Katie Bromham  
Mrs. Morgoulis

**BRASIL:**  
Miss Laura Lacome  
Miss Lorent

**DENMARK:**  
Mr. Harald Flemsmark  
Mr. G. Zombanakis

**DENMARK:**  
Mr. Jens Sigsgaard  
Mr. Mantoudis

**DENMARK:**  
Mr. Sv. Kjeldgaard  
Miss Elline Zambanakis

**DENMARK:**  
Miss Mona Brex  
Mr. Elie Xirotris

**DENMARK:**  
Mr. Jes Pedersen  
Mr. Tota Kyriazopoulo

**DENMARK:**  
Mrs. Carla Caspersen  
Mr. Th. Charalabidis

**DENMARK:**  
Miss Helga Nielsen  
Mrs. Maria Chourdakis

**DENMARK:**  
Miss Nete Nielsen  
Mr. Nic. Dimitrakallis

**DENMARK:**  
Mrs. Esther Torned Palsøen  
Miss G. Papacostoula

**FRANCE:**  
Mrs. Suzanne Herbinière-Lebert  
Mrs. Voila

**FRANCE:**  
Miss Marguerite Deschaux  
Mr. E Papaioannou

**FRANCE:**  
Professor René Zazzo  
A. Alexopoulus

**FRANCE:**  
Mrs. Zazzo  
Mr. A. Pavlouros

**FRANCE:**  
Mr. Daum  
Mr. B. Pavlouzas

**FRANCE:**  
Miss Madeleine Abbadie  
Miss N. Charvatis

**FRANCE:**  
Miss Suzanne Kleiber  
HOLLAND:

**FRANCE:**  
Miss Berthe Minne  
Mr. Montessori

**FRANCE:**  
Mrs. Suzanne Pannetier  
Mrs. Montessori

**GREAT BRITAIN:**  
Miss Lorent

**GREAT BRITAIN:**  
Mrs. Maria Millar

**GREECE:**  
Mrs. Lina Tsaldaris  
Mr. G. Zambanakis

**GREECE:**  
Mr. G. Zambanakis  
Mr. Mantoudis

**GREECE:**  
Professor Const. Khoremis  
Miss Elline Zambanakis

**GREECE:**  
Mr. Elie Xirotris  
Mr. Tota Kyriazopoulo

**GREECE:**  
Mrs. Tota Kyriazopoulo  
Mr. Th. Charalabidis

**ISRAEL:**  
Dr. Sara Fajans Gluck  
India:

**ISRAEL:**  
Miss Judith Livnat  
Shri Shewak Bhojraj

**ISRAEL:**  
Mr. Montessori  
Shri Inamdar

**ISRAEL:**  
Mr. Montessori  
Israel:

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ITALY:
Professor Franco Bonacina
Mrs. Lone Grete Lindahl-Holst

NORWAY:
Miss Lisa Smedberg
Mrs. Karin Lind

SWEDEN:
Miss Lisa Smedberg
Mrs. Karin Lind

U.S.A.:
Dr. Bess Goodykoontz
Dr. Daniel Prescott
Mrs. Annelise Prescott
Mr. Léon Ginsberg
Mrs. Sadie Ginsberg

YUGOSLAVIA:
Mrs. Tatjana Marinic
Dr. Slava Lunazee
Professor Ela Haidna
Mrs. Staca Jelic
Miss Bosa Glogorevic
Mr. Cupic Vukan
Mrs. Nusa Kolar
Miss Parkaceva Branka

PERSONAL SECRETARIES
to the President:
Mrs V. Tanon (France)
Mrs. Dagny Kjærgaard Hagopian
(Greece-Denmark)

The Exhibition of the Greek National Committee

The Exhibition included two parts one of a social, the other of an educational character and occupied two floors of the magnificent Parnassos building where all the Plenary Meetings as well as the meetings of working committees took place.

On the first floor, Mrs. Tsaldaris presented the Exhibition devoted to social work for the protection of childhood and more particularly to the action of PIKPA, the Foundation of which she was Chairman before becoming Greek Minister of Social Welfare.

That exhibition gave evidence of the great effort made by Greece in favour of mothers and children. It aroused considerable interest among the numerous visitors that saw it. The speech made by Mrs. Tsaldaris gave precise indications on the value and importance of that effort.

On the second floor was waiting Mr. Levantis, the Minister of Education who is also responsible for the Nursery Schools as far as their educational aspect is concerned – for these schools come under the Ministry of Social Welfare as regards the canteens which exist in almost all the Nursery Schools –. He showed and explained to the Members of the Congress the very beautiful exhibition which had been arranged on the subject of Nursery Schools. It contained children's drawings with gay colours, so very similar to those of children of all countries both by their inspiration and execution –, specimens of manual work of local interest to which had been added a very comprehensive exhibition of Greek books for children.

It was a pleasure for us to find among these books an edition of Andersen's Tales.

Both these very interesting exhibitions were well attended and greatly admired.

The Belgian and Yugoslav National Committees had brought along with them interesting photographic documents which were displayed in the Room reserved for Nursery Schools.

On behalf of the World Council, the Vice-President of OMEP, Mrs. Herbinière-Lebert replied to the Minister of Education and thanked him as well as his colleague Mrs. Tsaldaris. With warm and inspired words she expressed the gratitude of all the Delegates as well as their admiration for the effort made by a country the children of which had been so deeply affected and she also underlined the fact that the fruitful collaboration existing in Greece between the Minister of Education and that of Social Welfare set an admirable example which should be for us a source of inspiration.

Excursions and organized visits

Through the courtesy of the Greek Committee receptions were kindly arranged at the Town Hall by the Lord Mayor of Athens, General Catsotas and at the King George Hotel by his Excellency Mr. Levantis.

Visits were also organized to the Acropolis and Delphi and during an unforgettable evening we saw a performance of "Medea", the classical tragedy of Euripides.
At Voula, at about 25 kms. from Athens, are to be found very complete installations for the treatment of motor handicapped children as well as a school for the training of specialized nurses. In Summer a holiday camp is also held there which can include several hundred girls. The holiday camp has the use of special premises as well as of a beautiful beach, which, because of the country’s climate, is always very inviting.

The Voula institutions were shown and explained to us by Mrs. Volia, the President of the PIKPA Foundation which is actually responsible for the camp.

The President of the Belgian Committee and Vice-President of OMEP, Mlle Alice Claret, congratulated and thanked Mrs. Volia on behalf of all of us.

At Mitera the delegates visited the very modern building of an institution for forsaken mothers who can thus bring up their baby while waiting for their social readjustment.

Courses for nurses are held there and find on the spot practical application. This undertaking of so noble a social inspiration was the subject of great admiration.

The Elepap institution, devoted to the re-training of young handicapped children, were also found interesting because of the valuable services it can render thanks to is installations and the high competence and qualification of its staff.

Finally the Members of the Congress had the pleasure of visiting a very attractive Nursery School, recently inaugurated by Mrs. Tsaldaris.

That particular school which is so gay and pleasant is located in the near suburb of Athens called Aigaleo. A modern kitchen, pleasantly decorated class rooms, all sorts of material and toys offer to the children of that district the prospect of very happy days.

At the Closure of the Congress

Speech by Mr. Georges Zombanakis

General Secretary of the Greek National Committee of O. M. E. P.

Mr. President:

The President of the Greek National Committee had to leave Athens yesterday. She will be away for still a few more days and is very sorry indeed not to be able to attend the solemn closing meeting of our Assembly. She would like, however, together with all the Members of our Committee, to express to all of you and the countries you represent here her deepest thanks for the words of praise which you have kindly spoken about our country.

His Excellency, the Minister of Education of our country has explained to you, in an expressive and vivid manner, the reasons which have prevented Greece from devoting herself peacefully to reforming school teaching and developing more extensively Early Childhood Education. He firmly believes, as actually we all do in this country, that no moral reconstruction of mankind is possible unless education is modernized and based on everlasting values and on absolute human rights. Indeed, the crisis through which mankind is now living is above all a moral crisis and not a material one.

It is necessary for Man to be reinstated on the throne on which he was placed by his Allmightly Creator. He must become again the Master and Ruler of all things, for wars and the collapse of values, technical civilization, and the triumph of the machine age have enslaved him and transformed him from the master into a tool.

The fact that you have come here and this holding of the VIth Assembly of OMEP on our soil represent for us the beginning of a new era. Your enlightening knowledge and your rich experience have enabled you to show the way we must follow when studying the problems of Early Childhood Education. You have, in effect managed to create the right and appropriate atmosphere, and you have brought to light the capital problem of fundamental education.

You have sown on fertile ground, that of the land where beauty, measure and harmony once flourished.

We shall never forget our collaboration, our mutual understanding, and will remember more particularly the enlightening and instructive lectures delivered by Mr. Prescott and Mr. Zazzu.

We above all thank you for having officially acknowledged the services rendered by a Greek woman, Catherine Lascariou. She first created, in the midst of a thousand misunderstandings and despite the hostile reactions of her day, our Nursery schools and set up as well our first Teachers Training College.

I would like to thank and congratulate the President of this Congress, Mr. Flensmark, for the skillful, calm, and orderly way in which he has conducted our work. He has thus given us a proof of his considerable experience and thorough knowledge of the subjects dealt with at this Congress.

May I also express our thanks to the Vice-President of OMEP, Mrs. Herbinière Lebert, who is one of the Founder-Presidents of this body and who has been the
life and soul of this Congress and to the two Vice-Presidents of our Assembly, Miss Alice Claret and Mrs. Goodykoontz, who have contributed a great deal to the successful outcome of our work during this Congress.

We shall have to part very shortly. Alas, cannot be helped!

Nevertheless, we must never forget that every time a child is born in this world it means a rebirth of human nature as robust and as primitive as on the first day of creation. It is our duty to look after it, to provide it with health, joy, and happiness. Children are the coming generation through which we shall continue to live.

May I, to close this statement, express a hope. I do hope, indeed, that the results arrived at by this Assembly will serve as useful elements of inspiration to the Governments of the countries we represent, that our Governments will approve them and draw up their policy accordingly when aiming at reforming education and creating a new, better, more beautiful, and more humane Society.

On behalf of the Greek National Committee, I hereby declare closed the work of the VIth Assembly of OMEP.

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.
   1. The organisation will be composed of National Committees. There can be three different kinds of members:
      A. Constituent Members,
         a) Any government or government agency may designate a person to be admitted as a Constituent Member.
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 program 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 ordinary Assembly.

6. The place, date 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 O.M.E.P.
   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 Program.

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.

Composition of the World Council

Each recognized National Committee elects its own delegate (with one voting right) and designates a deputy in the event of the delegate being prevented. Deputies have voting rights.

Each Preparatory Committee is entitled to send an observer to the Council Meetings (without voting right).

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

Officers (Bureau)

President General: Mr. Harald Flensmark, Denmark.

Vice-President: Mme Herbinière-Lebert, France, charged with the relations to UNESCO (except economics).

Mlle Alice Claret, Belgium.

Dr. Bess Goodykoontz, Washington D.C. (USA).

General Secretary: vacant.

Treasurer: Mr. Svend Klitgaard,

Privatbanken, Vestre afdeling, Nygade 7, Copenhagen, Denmark.

Bank of London and South America, 34, Wall Street, New York 5, USA.

Presidency and Secretariat: O.M.E.P., Randersgade 10, Copenhagen O, Denmark.
National Committees

Australia: Mrs. M. Greenhalgh, Australian Pre-School Association, Room 86 Interior Building, Acton Offices, Canberra, A.C.T.
Austria: Dr. Ernst Kothbauer, Oesterreichische Gesellschaft für die Fürsorge und Erziehung des Kleinkindes, Wien 1, Schottenring 22.
Belgium: Mlle Alice Claret, 21 Avenue de Foestraets, Uccle, Bruxelles.
Brazil: Mrs. Laura Lacombe, OMEP Comité National Brasileiro, 117, rua Sao Clemente, Rio de Janeiro.
Denmark: Mr. H. Flensmark, 1, Blegiansgade, Copenhagen.
France: Mme S. Herbinière-Lebert, 134 Bd. Berthier, Paris XVII.
Great Britain: Miss P. M. Pickard, 11, the Avenue, London, N. W. 6.
Israel: Dr. S. Faizans-Ghuck, Kindergarten Dept. Ministry of Education & Culture, Tel-Aviv-Jaffa.
Norway: Professor Åse Skard, 2 Fjellevejen, Lysaker, Oslo.
South Africa: Professor J. C. Bosman, The Nursery School Assoc. of South Africa, P. O. Box 673, Pretoria.
Sweden: Miss Britta Schill, Socialpedagogiska Seminariet, Kungsholmgatan 11, Stockholm.
Yugoslavia: Mrs. Tatjana Marinčić, Visoka ulica 11/I, Zagreb.

Preparatory Committees

Canada: Miss Joyce Cornish-Bowden, Nursery Education Association of Ontario, 22, Prince Arthur Avenue, Toronto.
(Chili: Mme Matilde Huici, Universidad de Chile, Escuela de Educadores de Pervulos, A. Republica No. 217, Santiago.)
Germany: Dr. Manfred Müller, Preparatory German Committee of OMEP, Haus der Jugendarbeit, Haugerweg 44, Bonn-Venusberg.
India: Status of Preparatory Committee offered.
Iran: Mr. M. Yasdanfar, Ministry of Education, Teheran.
Lebanon: Mme Alice Naccache, Rue Sursak, Beyrouth.
Uruguay: Mme Anunciacion Mazzella de Bevilacqua, 1381 Cuareim, Montevideo.

* According to application of May 4th 1957.

Summary of the Criteria for obtention and withdrawal of the status of National Committee

The Assembly shall decide whether Preparatory Committees can be granted the status of National Committee. (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-Secretariat),
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 I. 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 have to propose the cancellation of membership of National Committees which have not without valid excuse after the second notice fulfilled their obligations.
CONTENTS

Welcome by Madame Lina Tsaldaris .................................................. 3
Address by the Minister of Education M. Levantis .......................... 4
Response of the President General Harald Flensmark ..................... 5
Professor Khoremis: The Principle of the Nursery School from the Angle of Evolution in our Time .................................................. 7
Daniel A. Prescott: The Role of Love in The Education of Pre-School Children .................................................. 11
R. Zazzo: The Development of the First Three Years of Life .......... 20
Summary of the Deliberations of Commissions I-IV ......................... 41
Report of the President General, the Vice-President etc. ................. 49
List of delegates and observers ..................................................... 51
The Exhibition of the Greek National Committee .......................... 53
Excursions and organized visits ................................................... 53
Georges Zompanakis: At the Closure of the Congress ..................... 55
Constitution .................................................................................. 57
Composition of the World Council ................................................ 61
National Committees etc. .............................................................. 62
Summary of Criteria ..................................................................... 63