WORLD ORGANISATION
FOR EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

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

Report of the 8th World Assembly
Zagreb, Yugoslavia
July 31 to August 6, 1960

Play - Vital to Childhood

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Origins of O.M.E.P.

The birth of the World Organization for Early Childhood Education, known as O.M.E.P. from the initials of the French title Organisation Mondiale pour l'Éducation Pré-Scolaire, could be said to have taken place during March 1946 when Lady Allen of Hurtwood (Great Britain) travelled in Scandinavia and met Mrs. Alva Myrdal and Miss Ella Esp (Norway) to discuss how to create a greater understanding throughout the world of the educational needs of young children and how to unite all those working in this field.

In July 1946, when the world was still sick and troubled, a group of interested people from different countries was gathered together in London to prepare plans for an international organization in the field of early childhood education.

Further informal meetings of this Preparatory Committee were held in UNESCO House, Paris (November 1946) and in Copenhagen (May 1947). In May 1948 at a meeting in Paris, the Preparatory Committee decided to send invitations to all Governments, many organizations and individuals to attend a World Conference on Early Childhood Education in Prague from attend 26th to August 28th, 1948. This place and date were chosen so as to follow immediately on a World Seminar on Childhood Education, organized in Prague by UNESCO. Eighteen countries, representing the five continents of the world, attended this first World Assembly of O.M.E.P. in Prague, with Mrs. Alva Myrdal as President. The main task of this Assembly was devoted to the possibilities of forming a systematic and international organization for mutual support and cooperation.

Representative National Committees were set up in many countries to work for a wider understanding of early childhood education.

At the second World Assembly held in UNESCO House, Paris (August 1949), with Lady Allen of Hurtwood as President, and thirty-three countries represented, the Constitution of O.M.E.P. was adopted.

World Assemblies have since been held every two years in the following cities:

1950 Vienna. The fundamental needs of the young child.
   President: Madame Herbinière Lebert.
1952 Mexico City. The social role of preschool establishments for young children.
   President: Madame Herbinière-Lebert.
1954 Copenhagen. The selection and training of teachers for early childhood education.
   President: Madame Herbinière-Lebert.
1956 Athens. The importance of the first years of life of a child living within and outside his family group.
   President: Mr. Harald Flensmark.
1958 Brussels. The importance of continuity and unity in the education of young children.
President: Mr. Harald Flensmark.
1960 Zagreb. Play - vital to childhood.
President: Dr. Bess Goodykoontz.

The World Organization, has been growing in strength and influence with eighteen active National Committees in: Australia, Austria, Belgium, Brazil, Canada, Chile, Denmark, France, Germany, Great Britain, Greece, Israel, Norway, South Africa, Sweden, United States of America, Uruguay and Yugoslavia.

No person or organization is excluded from membership of the Organization by reason of race, creed, nationality, or political opinion. O. M. E. P. is able to demonstrate to the world that adults with different religious, political and racial outlooks can work in harmony together to protect and advance the interests of young children and to strengthen the foundation of the family.

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Conference Greetings by Rodoljub Čolaković
Vice-President of the Federal People's Republic of Yugoslavia

It is a pleasant duty for me to give you greetings from the government of the Federal People's Republic of Yugoslavia and to wish you success in your generous and important work.

Although it has existed for only twelve years; your organization has already won reputation and acknowledgement in the world for showing that its work is of current importance to individuals and to the whole of humanity. In many countries it has influenced teachers, psychologists, physicians and other public workers to act, and helped them to grasp this action more widely and to define their tasks more precisely. It has successfully developed collaboration among people in this most important area - education of the youngest, trying to use experiences of all countries in the world in the study of this complex problem.

Therefore, our satisfaction lies in the opportunity to extend our hospitality to a Congress of so well-known an international organization as yours.

The problems of education of the young generation in general and the youngest in particular are delicate. It is a task full of responsibility for the people of all countries in these stirring times. Many aspects of life change more quickly than they ever have done. For example when both parents are engaged in production and/or public services, an extra effort is required not only from the parents, but also from the whole of society, to care for the education of the youngest children.

On the other hand, our knowledge of this period and of its importance for the whole later development of the young personality, based on scientific facts, calls for an approach to the solutions of the problems of children of the pre-school period from broader points of view, if not from quite different ones from those recently used.

And just because a fundamental setting of a problem itself on a new, wider and scientifically justified basis is in question, it is bound to seek experiences of all, so that they can help us, each from conditions in his own country, to find the best solutions for problems that are daily and actively put by life.

I do not want to give you a survey of the experiences of our country; you will be told about it with greater knowledge of the matter by your Yugoslav colleagues. I want only on this occasion to point out the following:

The total efforts of our community in the building of socialistic social relations are imbued with care for Man. Man himself is the initiator of this complex process.

In formulating these policies consideration is given to the everyday needs of the working man, whether employed in production or in public services, to the needs of his family, and to the future requirements of the community. Therefore in the field of care for children of the pre-school period, there are parallel efforts to help the employed mother to provide for care for her child during her work, with the efforts to base the work and the total care in institutions for children of the pre-school stage on clear concepts of the scope and priorities in educational work with the youngest children.
Allow me, finally, to point out one aspect more of your collaboration in this special task. We live in a troublesome and uncertain time. In spite of aspirations of all nations for peace and creative work, there are forces in the world that consider that war is a kind of alternative for humanity. But it is not so. Peace or destruction — that is the way they put the question. Therefore, the duty of all people who believe in man and his future on this planet is to strive for closer and better understanding among nations, to make and fortify the atmosphere of trust among them, in which such cooperation would be possible that it would be able to restrain and stop the forces of war. Let your Congress contribute in the greatest measure to this generous purpose — confidence among nations and peace.

Greetings by Branka Savić

President of the Council of the Societies for the Welfare of Children and Youth of Yugoslavia

Allow me to greet the delegates of the 8th Assembly of the World Organization for Early Childhood Education and to wish you every success in your work, on behalf of the Council of the Societies for the Welfare of Children and Youth of Yugoslavia, of which the Yugoslavia National Committee is a member.

In its development so far, your organization has always approached the problem of education of very young children in a complex way, taking into consideration all its aspects and engaging expert and public workers from various countries in the task of their solution. Taking into account the fact that the child cannot be considered isolated from the environment in which it lives, from the economic, social and sanitary conditions, from the family and its needs, each country approaches the organized education of very young children in its own way and in accordance with its particular needs and conditions. That is why the experience of each country is different, and that is why the activities of your organization are so important — it has to collect experiences of individual countries and put them at the disposal of all other countries to make use of them according to their own needs. At the same time, by getting acquainted with the needs, conditions and work in this field in any individual country, your organization contributes to the understanding of the life and needs of other nations, which is one of the imperative needs of any international organization in the present world.

In the variety of needs and conditions in the field of children’s welfare, our century, full of suffering, international restlessness and wars, but also of the promise of rapid progress and development of mankind, has given priority to the protection of children and to the need for the social care of children. The Declaration on the Rights of Children, adopted recently by the General Assembly of the United Nations asserts that all countries and mankind in general have accepted the obligations of society to take over the care of children and to help the family in rearing them.

In Yugoslavia, we are conscious of the fact that the family is indispensable as an environment for the development of the child, and at the same time we are conscious of the historic necessity of the family changes and of the fact that these changes are as much inevitable as they are positive. In addition to all internal conflicts that result from changes in these relations, the formation of a widely extensive line of different children’s institutions confronts us in Yugoslavia, especially in towns and industrial centers, which develop extremely quickly because of the industrialization of the country, as a necessary supplement to family care for children.

I will not dwell upon a subject concerned with the development of such institutions in Yugoslavia, because it will be put forth in another paper. I would only like to point out the fact, that the institutions for pre-school children were developed in conformity with the general development of the country, its economic strength and resources and above all with the development of the socialist
social relations. At this stage of our social development when management of
economic and social life in the country is being put in the hands of producers
and citizens themselves, it becomes clear and inevitable that all this work on
the protection and education of children ceases to be the task of the state and
its organs only, but the task of society in general, of all citizens, and especially
parents. Giving the right to citizens of a housing community, a village or a
local community to establish institutions for children according to their needs
and the resources of the community, and to manage them, we have given the
responsibility to parents that they themselves decide where and how their
children are going to be educated, and so a basis has been provided for the solu-
tion of differences between the family and state education. The Law on
schools includes the education of the pre-school child within the system of
education, but it does not precisely state in which institutions the education
will be carried out but only points out the numerous types of such institutions.
The communes and housing communities are left the freedom to decide upon
those questions themselves.

The development of self-government in local communities has made it
possible and necessary to form special social organizations for the care of
children. Since 1950, societies for the welfare of children have been established
under various names: "Our Children", "Children's Friends", etc., while in 1952
the Council of the Societies for the Welfare of Children and Youth of Yugoslavia
was formed. Today, there are some 3,000 societies with over 1,000,000 members
in Yugoslavia. Most of the members are parents, but other people and experts
are included as well. In addition to the Council for the whole of Yugoslavia,
there are also republican, district and communal councils.

The Federal Council, the Republican Councils, and many of the district
councils have become a forum where people from various branches of social
life and from various scientific fields, who deal with the problems of the family
and the child, discuss their opinions and share their experiences with represen-
tatives of the Societies and parents, who then spread their findings among the
members. There is probably no problem in the field of protection and education
of children that is not dealt with systematically by the Councils. The activities
of numerous commissions, committees, seminars, conferences and congresses,
dealing with the problems of family relations, early childhood education, film and
literature, music and figurative arts, children's organizations and children's self-
government, etc., have enabled thousands of people working in the societies or
in the self-governing bodies in communes and housing communities, to know the
theoretical and practical principles of particular problems, as well as the methods for the
carrying out of the required actions and for dealing with children. In this way,
the acquired concepts are distributed among hundreds of thousands of people
active in the self-governing bodies, as well as among the masses of parents, thus
engaging the whole community in the work for the protection and education of
children

On the other hand, the societies gathering together parents are well aware of
the conditions in their territories, of the needs and problems of the family,
and of the conditions of life for children. The societies are the most competent
to put those problems forward to the bodies concerned with self-government,
suggesting programs for the protection of children, engaging their members in the
realization of those programs. In the communes and housing communities, the
interests and needs of the family and the society are thus unified by means of the
common actions and the common resources.

From such activities of the societies, new concepts of the pre-school education
institutions have emerged. We have reached the conclusion that such institutions
should be brought nearer and adapted to the needs of the family. The societies
have initiated the foundation of small institutions for pre-school children, com-
bined with school-age children's clubs, and with common playgrounds. The
initiative of the societies has resulted in a number of such institutions; these are
gaining ground and becoming a broad movement, so that we hope that in a
few years time, we shall be able to satisfy all the needs of the children from
urban families. The necessary background for such developments was the founda-
tion of housing communities, which started to be formed in towns and industrial
centres in 1959 and of which there are now over 700. Housing communities
are members of the commune, in which citizens themselves, with the help of
the commune and of industrial organizations, solve the problems of their
everyday life, and particularly of the education and upbringing of children, and
of various forms of help to the family. In such communities, where the needs of
others become close to people, new relations between individuals and between
families are established, as they now solve all the problems of everyday life
with united common efforts and resources. Children from such communities
enter into the common collective from the very beginning, they know each other
grow together. The institutions in housing communities, therefore, become
different in quality. They are no longer kindergartens of the old type that used
to gather together children from all parts of the town who otherwise lived each
in its own family. The new institutions gather together children who know
each other, including brothers and sisters, close to their parents, who have
themselves established the institution and who manage it themselves. The first
experiences indicate that, even with very modest resources, such institutions
creating material conditions for the gathering together of children already living
together, accompanied by the appropriate educational activities, produce important
results in education, especially because of the relationships that are established in
and around them.

Educationalists and teachers are faced with the task of applying all their
knowledge and experience acquired so far in their work with children in new
conditions. We are convinced that education will be enriched in this way and
that we shall be able, in due time, to compensate fully what children lack in
their families, not by separating them from their families but rather by creating
a new community of children and of parents.

There are not yet too many institutions for children that we can show
you, our guests. We do not have enough of them. Our country is gradually
developing from economic backwardness and in this field we had a tradition
and a small number of professional people. But what you can see in our country
is a general tendency of all people to make the children's lives more comfortable;
you can see all people voluntarily engaged in any action concerned with children.
We make use of the experiences of other countries, adapting them to the
conditions of our work. We feel sure that your 8th Assembly will give us, as well
as all other participants, new and valuable ideas, and a new stimulus for the
promotion of our work.
Welcome to the City of Zagreb
Mr. Boris Bakrać
Vice-President of the Peoples Committee of the City of Zagreb

It is a special honour and a pleasant duty to welcome you in the name of the Peoples Committee of the City of Zagreb and to wish you full success in the work of your Assembly.

We are especially satisfied that this Assembly concerns children, small pre-school children, and that it chose children's play as the theme which gives children the pleasure of life and a happy childhood.

Besides the many problems which our town had to solve after the liberation of our country, and is still solving, when its population more than doubled since 1945, besides the building up of industry in our town, we have secured the eight-year school education by opening a whole network of different specialized schools of republican character, by founding children's and students' homes, a student town, hospitals for children, children's resorts, etc. Besides the solving of problems concerning the building up of dwelling-houses, there exist today a great many children's playgrounds and different possibilities for amusement and education of children, as there are pioneers' homes, children's theatres, puppet-theatres, etc. Especially for children of pre-school age there are forty-eight children's gardens which give them the possibility of playing with other children, a systematic education, directed by teachers, and protection for the children of working mothers.

Aiming at the increase of children's playgrounds and rooms for children, our town made the decision to develop an urbanistic plan for children's playgrounds to be realized during the five following years, and a decision that the investors in forty new buildings should be encouraged to secure rooms for children in the new buildings.

Concerning pre-school institutions, especially children's playgrounds, much has been done and is still being done by our social organizations which have a widespread field of committees for the care of children in the whole town. The adoption of the communal system and the housing organisation presented ample opportunity for building up such institutions as are most necessary to the citizens in the given situation, and those are just the institutions for children's playgrounds, children's gardens, children's libraries and reading halls, etc. The results of activity in this line to this day have resulted in building up children's playgrounds and the plans of the Community for their further building, as well as the children's centres which were built up by the Community which are planned on the highest scale for the next five years.

You will be able, during your stay in our town, to visit some of the children's centres and playgrounds by which we are trying to secure the right of the child to play in every way possible. Your work in this Assembly will contribute to your noble aims, that is to work for the progress of those things which are of prime importance.

Hoping that you will enjoy your short stay in our city I greet you heartily, wishing this Assembly full success in its work.

UNESCO and young children
Miss Ursula Gallusser (UNESCO)

It is a great pleasure to me personally and an honour to be here among you as the representative of the UNESCO Secretariat. The message which I bring from my colleagues is that we all hope that the same fruitful and close collaboration will continue as has been so stimulating and inspiring in the past. Much of this history will be unknown to many who are here in this hall and perhaps the best way of showing how important each organization has been to the other is to recall at least some of the details.

The World Organization itself came into being as one of the outcomes of a meeting on young children called by UNESCO in Podebrady in 1948, attended by many of those who founded your organization and gave it its early elan. In 1951, Madame Herminière-Lebert, then your president, was the UNESCO expert at an inter-agency meeting on the mental health of pre-school children which resulted in a study, published by UNESCO under the title Mental Hygiene in the Nursery School. This pamphlet has been translated into many languages – French, Dutch, Arabic among others – and has proved to be one of the formative books in your field in the developing countries.

In 1952, the World Organization undertook for UNESCO an important study of nursery school provisions in a considerable number of countries – in thirty-four to be precise – whose material was of immense value for an experts meeting in Paris that year to discuss Education and Mental Health; and the first three chapters of the book of that name owe much to the work of all those – and there were many in many different lands who provided the material. In some ways an even more interesting and important undertaking was the study made by members of the World Organization in a considerable number of countries of the drawings which children made of themselves and their families – an enterprise which points the way to effective technical collaboration between teachers in different countries concerned with children.

Apart from the importance of the various themes of successive congresses, your organization has continued to contribute in a very direct way to the work begun in UNESCO's conference on Education and Mental Health. In 1953 and 1955, for example, the Institute for Education in Hamburg, Germany, called together a group of experts to discuss the whole problem of the relation between schools and parents. To your organization was confided the task of bringing together a group especially to discuss the part which the nursery school and its teachers had to play in this, and particularly the ways in which the nursery school teacher with her experience with young children could act as a bridge between the mothers and all the specialists concerned with her child. This again resulted in an excellent little book, published by the Organization with the help of UNESCO, which is a real contribution to this most important matter.

Unfortunately, since 1956 at least, UNESCO has had little or no programme activities concerned with children of pre-school age. It is considered by successive General Assemblies of UNESCO that the scarce resources of the organization should be concentrated upon the extension and improvement of compulsory education.
schooling. In one sense this concentration could only be possible if someone else were looking after the interests of children of pre-school age. My colleagues and I are therefore deeply thankful that your Organization exists so effectively to carry out some at least of the urgent tasks which we are for the time obliged to neglect.

It should, however, be said that over the past years direct and personal collaboration between your Organization and my colleagues and myself has continued to grow. UNESCO is always aware of the voice of those concerned with young children and always knows where to turn for help and advice. Your Vice-President and representative to UNESCO in Paris, Madame Herbinière-Lebert – one of the busiest and most active friends of UNESCO and of children as well as a most devoted servant of The World Organization is always on hand to further our joint cause in a multitude of ways which have to be experienced to be appreciated. Her unfailing charm and devotion do more to advocate your cause than a dozen learned books.

May I finish by congratulating you, Madame Chairman, on your choice of theme. The child's need to play is indeed one of the vital needs of all healthy growth – even more in these days of rapid social change and increasing insecurity and tension – and it is still a need that the administrator, and even the teacher or parent, may overlook. It is perhaps one of the outstanding merits of our age that it has recognized that the play of children is important to the growth of personality and that this realization has led to continued research as to the nature of play. Montessori, that wise Frenchman and psychologist before his time, drew attention to the fact that play was not just a harmless activity of children but a necessity and an indispensable part of childhood itself; he pointed out that play was a means of developing the intelligence of the future adult as well as of aiding in the growth of an harmonious, well-balanced emotional life. One might add, too, that only in so far as it is undertaken in the spirit of play, the spirit in which heart, mind and body work together with a will, is work creative and worthy; without the spirit of play, there can be no creation; there is only brutish toil which in the long run debases the toiler into a slave. May I personally hope, therefore, that in discussing your theme in terms of young children, you will not forget the men and women they will become.

I have neither the time nor the competence to comment in detail on your programme though I hope to take a full part in the work which follows and to learn from you all. May I therefore end by once again congratulating all those devoted men and women who form your organization on the work they have accomplished together, hitherto, and by wishing you all an excellent and fruitful period of work together in this congress.

Our Task

Dr. Bess Goodykoontz
President of O.M.F.P.

For almost four years the World Organization for Early Childhood Education has been looking forward to meeting in this beautiful city. We are charmed by it, and by the warmth of the welcome you have given us. Yugoslavia is a country of beautiful hills and mountains and seashore; of wonderful cities, working toward their aim of a healthier, more comfortable, and more beautiful place to live; of high ideals for serving their children in education and social welfare; and of consecrated people to bring about this better life for their children. We expect to learn much from Yugoslavia in the week we are here, and afterward to go on about our business with a clearer understanding of the needs of young children, with better ways of working, and with a spirit refreshed and strengthened by meeting here. As our Vice-President, Miss Clarët of Belgium, said at the time of our last World Assembly, we hope here to open up an era of more genuine respect for the child, who is the craftsman of peace in a world made more brotherly by him.

And this is no small job. UNESCO's last World Survey on Education, published in 1958, shows us the very large numbers of children in countries around the world who are the potential customers of early childhood education. Some of these children are six or seven years old, and are enrolled in the regular primary grades. Some of them are three, four, or five, and in some countries they go to kindergartens, or pre-schools, or nursery schools. In other countries, where mothers work away from home, still younger children must have care, and for them nurseries, or day nurseries, or day care centres are established. Traditionally, however, the administration of these agencies is largely in the hands of those countries who are the benefit of other countries, about to establish services for young children, the World Organization for Early Childhood Education could begin to establish definitions which would make it easier to understand them, but at some point babies and young children call for something more than efficient, loving care. They need an extension of their world beyond the home, through an educational program appropriate to their interests and needs. Teachers and parents work together as partners to provide a wide range of learning experiences as a sound basis for more formal learning later on in the primary school.

Apparently all countries want something of this kind for their young children. UNESCO's recent book on Facts and Figures, published in 1960, lists 101 of the countries and territories of the world which have some form of pre-school education. It may be for only a few of the children; it may be in only the large cities; it may receive partial support of public funds; it may be frankly experimental, looking toward the best arrangement and program for them which can be devised; it may be only for some special group of children, such as the handicapped. Around the world, these partial services for the education of young children are growing fast. As such, they are of particular interest to the World Organization for Early Childhood Education, which hopes that we may all grow in these programs together. Let me summarize some of the ways in which the World Organization tries to help in the development and improvement of these services in countries all around the world.
One of the principal purposes of the World Organization is the holding of conferences for the discussion of special problems in the education of young children. This is stated in our Constitution. These conferences are not restricted to our members, but we hope by this means to share the experience and knowledge of many persons. At each of these conferences, so far held at the time of our National Assemblies, we have chosen one major problem for study. At the conference in Athens, four years ago, it was the effect of environment on young children and how to improve the growing climate for them. In Brussels, two years ago, the problem for emphasis was the importance of providing a unified program for young children, with due attention to securing continuity of learning. Now, in this beautiful city of Zagreb, we shall consider what Play contributes in the lives of young children.

Of course, in earlier conferences we have already heard much about the meaning and purpose of play. Miss Gardner of the University of London, in speaking of the psychological needs of children said, “The heart and soul of play is what we call research.” She explained that mental vigor and intensity of concentration are inherent in young children, that the determination adults sometimes attribute to stubbornness is in fact the quality out of which scholarship grows. “When a child insists on taking the plug out of the bath, even in opposition to his parents, he stays with the problem like a real scholar; and when he has solved it, again like a real scholar, he goes on to something else.”

Miss Gardner also said, at our Brussels meeting, that after that of love, the greatest need of the young child is for play. “Children who have opportunities for rich and vigorous play,” she said, “gain immeasurably in all aspects of their development.” “Physical health and bodily skill are furthered and these make for greater stability and control. It is in play that children find their most satisfactory sublimations for primitive drives; for example, in play with clay, sand, water and paint, they can handle wet and messy materials in constructive ways and learn a great deal of their nature and properties; in sewing and hammering little pieces of soft wood, tearing up paper for stuffing soft toys or making pictures they can use destructive impulses in constructive ways. They can legitimately exploit their love of power in mastery over things rather than tyrantizing over people. Anxieties also can be turned into make-believe play and so lose their terrors. Above all, play gives the child his first experiences of being creative, which leads to great resilience and happiness. Play also leads to the third in the list of important psychological needs, that of intellectual satisfaction."

This is a catalog of the values of play, which we shall hear more about as this week progresses.

Besides the study and discussion of major problems of childhood, another responsibility of the World Organization is to promote study and research of early childhood education. We have attempted to do this in several ways. There have been major studies of selected aspects, for example, the training of teachers for early childhood education, and the importance of children's drawings in the study of childhood. There have also been research conferences. One such, held at the Hamburg Institute for Research, under a grant made to us by UNESCO, centered on parent education—its possibilities and the best ways of facilitating it, in nursery schools and kindergartens. Still further, we have cooperated with UNESCO this past year in preparing an issue of the Abstracts, emphasizing research in early childhood education, listing for a number of countries their most significant publications and analyzing some of the most important contributions and problems world-wide.

Another service of the World Organization for Early Childhood Education, which we hope is now firmly established, is the publishing of a news letter about the affairs of the Organization. There will be news of the general field of early childhood education, of the principal organizations and their publications and research contributions, and generally, the good news about extension of services for young children world-wide. The News Letter has appeared four times this year; an editor is at work, and an editorial board has been appointed. We shall not be completely happy until, and maybe not even then, we have managed to reach all of our own members, as well as others interested in the field of childhood education at any rate, we are on the way.

Another obligation foreseen by our Constitution is that of establishing working relations with appropriate world organizations. We treasure our connection with the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, and are grateful for its continued support. We realize that this support is a mark of UNESCO's belief in our educational aims, and an indication that the World Organization should continue to serve a very important sector of the total educational profession.

Other international organizations with which we cooperate include the World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession, at whose meeting this week a member of our Organization represents us; the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund, with whom we hold consultative status; the Montessori Association, which is an affiliated international organization whose director is an associate of ours; the International Association of Child Welfare, whose work is related in certain aspects and with whom we have the friendliest of relations; and the International Association of Mental Health, which is interested as we are in the age-group of young children. There are so many international associations whose interests legitimately touch ours, that we need very much to gain strength so that our cooperation will be meaningful to them.

And last, but not least, our Organization encourages the establishment of National Committees and strengthens, so far as possible, the work within each of them. We now have National Committees or Preparatory Committees in every continent. Our beloved last president, Pastor Fliensmark, said, “I am convinced that the World Organization 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.” Tomorrow morning we have scheduled three workshops on the conduct of National Committees: how to organize one; some useful projects; and what the National Committees believe the World Organization should include in its program in the next year. I hope you will attend one of these workshops, and that you have many good ideas both for your own committee and for the World Organization. Further, there are people here from many countries, some of which do not have a National Committee working on the problems of early childhood education. If you are convinced during this week together that a National Committee could help you in your program at home, we shall count it a privilege to try.

And now I declare that the Eighth World Assembly of the World Organization for Early Childhood Education is open. We are grateful to the National Committee of Yugoslavia and to the organizations and agencies which helped them in making us so welcome. We now go on with our task of understanding better the tasks of children, and of learning how to help them successfully, and happily to meet them.
Early Childhood Education in Yugoslavia

Tatjana Marinčić
President of the Yugoslavian Committee for O.M.E.P.

The bringing up and education of young generations in Yugoslavia is a component part of the efforts made by our community to build up the socialist social relations, to enable the people to live a better and happier life, to provide for a universal development of a free human personality that will consciously and actively contribute towards the material, cultural and social development of the community and of his own life.

The conscious directing of our society towards the further overall progress of our country puts forth increasing demands before the younger generations, as well as the new and increasing requirements for their education and schooling, which all necessitated the reform of our system of education and schooling.

The Law on Schools (1958) represents the legal basis of the proposed reform of our system of education and schooling, which should be viewed as a continuous process. The Law determines the scope of education and schooling in our country, which should be considered as the pedagogic expression of the total movement of our society – of its objectives and its idea of the role and place of the working man in the realization of the objectives.

In our system of education and schooling, full credit is paid to pre-school education, because the importance of development and education in the pre-school age is fully realized, this being the period in which the basis is created upon which depends to a great extent the entire further development and formation of the human qualities of man. That is why pre-school education is a component and indivisible part of our integrated and undivided system of education and schooling. It is the aspiration of our community to create such conditions, according to the material resources available, as will ensure the all-round development, and systematic education for all children of pre-school age, as part of the process of achieving our general educational aims. A happy childhood within the family circle and among friends is the best preparation for regular schooling.

In view of the changes brought about by the new social relations in our country and their impact on family life, particularly in view of the new position and role of the woman in the economic, cultural and social life of the country and the changed conditions of life for children in the present-day world, there is now an expressed increasing responsibility of the society, not only in providing help to the family, but also in directly organizing the institutions and forms of social welfare, intended to ensure a happy childhood and sound education for the youngest generation. Even the best organized family circle cannot alone satisfy completely all the requirements resulting from the nature and needs of the child, and especially from its need to be included in the collective of its friends of the same age.

In order to ensure and expand systematic social care for the education of children of pre-school age, various special pre-school institutions and types of pre-school education are now established as a component part of the integrated new system of school and education.

Conditions of contemporary life with a well developed school system necessitate a wide network of establishments and institutions to deal with early childhood education of the school-going age. This network should widen the social system of education, bring about a more systematic development of early childhood education and raise it's pedagogical, health and social standard.

The pre-school institutions and other forms of pre-school education (such as playgrounds, etc.) are regulated by the Law on Schools, which defines their place in the system of school and educational institutions, their tasks, the way in which they can be established, maintained and managed, all of which provides a firm basis for a quicker and more secure advance in this field.

The Law provides for the establishment of kindergartens for children of national minorities in their own languages, as well as of special kindergartens for physically and mentally retarded children.

In addition to the many various forms of pre-school education, which now make up a uniform system of educational influences on a child of the pre-school age, there are now, in Yugoslavia, 1,200 kindergartens, which cater for 5.6 percent of the total population of the pre-school age in our country. They are attended by the children of three to seven years of age, which means before they start attending the primary school. They are the institutions in which the social care for the education and protection of children of pre-school age finds its fullest expression, since they are, in the true meaning of the word, a supplement to family education. Most of the kindergartens are located in towns and industrial centres, where they are most needed because of the great numbers of mothers employed, and where they originated, in our own as well as in other countries, resulting from just such social needs.

Kindergartens provide the child with systematic education, with an environment special to the age of these children and their needs, equipped for this purpose with toys and other material for children's various activities. There is usually a playground nearby for games and other open-air activities. The kindergarten enables the child to live among children of the same age as he is, and, what is essential, it provides for expert education. This means that the education of children is entrusted to professionally qualified nursery school teachers.

Education and schooling in our country are based on the principles of science and pedagogy, on the achievements of the history and culture of the peoples of Yugoslavia and other peoples, on the ideological foundations and the humanistic spirit of socialism.

The education of pre-school children is directed by the aims of pre-school education resulting from the objectives of education and schooling, adapted to the age of the child. They are realized through the contents, methods and means, in keeping with the child's psycho-physical capacities.

Kindergartens cater also for children whose mothers work in any professional field. For such children, nutrition and afternoon rest facilities are provided.

Kindergartens co-operate with parents to exert a uniform educational influence on the child; on a wider social scale they act as centres providing expert help and other forms of pre-school education.

They are established and maintained by the People's Committees of communities, by the housing communities, economic and social organizations and institutions.

A kindergarten is an independent social institution, organized on the principles of social self-government.

It is governed directly by the social bodies, without any limitations imposed
upon its initiative and the creative activities of the teachers. The bodies concerned are: the board of the kindergarten, the council of the teachers, and the director. Each of these bodies is independent in its own right, regulated by the law.

Social self-government has freed the kindergarten from exclusive dependence on state administration and has ensured the link of the community with the kindergarten, and the inclusion of the institution and the education of children within the life of the Commune and of the housing community in which the kindergarten is actively working.

Although the capacities of kindergartens are now still too restricted, so that the children, whose mothers are employed have the priority in such institutions, our efforts for the regular development and education of children of preschool age are directed towards including all children of that age. That is why numerous other names besides kindergartens, are now cultivated.

In order to give you a more clear idea of our practice and of the efforts being made in the field of pre-school education, allow me to review briefly the genesis and development of the pre-school institutions in our country.

It should be pointed out here that the beginnings and development of pre-school institutions in our country have varied greatly from one part to another, and no common denominator can be found that would define the situation in the whole of Yugoslavia with respect to this problem.

Till the end of World War I, our peoples had been living under different economic, social, cultural and political conditions, divided into separate states, and developing under different conditions, influences and tendencies. The early appearance of pre-school institutions was noted only in some parts of Serbia, Slovenia and Croatia, and there they have remained most numerous, while in other parts of those and in the other republics, they appeared later and in much smaller number.

The first institutions that were formed, crèches and asylas, appeared in our country parallel with the beginning of the industry employing women, so that the establishment of those institutions was conditioned by the social need to care for and protect the children of women-workers while they were on their jobs.

In 1855, one of the first crèches was established, developing soon into the asyla for children before they started attending school. Such institutions were organized only in some of the towns and industrial centres and their character was exclusively social. These institutions employed unskilled women-patronymesses whose job consisted only in physical protection of the children, who spent 10, 12 and even 14 hours a day in those institutions, according to the length of the working day at that time. They were founded and maintained by various charitable and humanitarian societies, and later by municipal councils.

Kindergartens were organized under the influence of Froebel's ideas. They were opened along the lines of general educational policies, mainly attached to primary schools, as part of them. They were attended exclusively by the children of the age groups of 5 to 6 or 6 to 7. They were included within the system of schools, and their status was regulated by the laws on elementary schools. The first government documents regarding that matter date back to 1878, 1890, and 1899. The laws provided for kindergartens to be opened and to operate also as private institutions. In these institutions, qualified nursery school teachers were employed, trained to work in kindergartens by special courses attached to the women's teachers' colleges and lasting for one to two years. In some parts (Slovenia) they only had to pass a short practical test and then they sat for the examination.

However, the tendencies that brought about the opening of the first kindergar-
as 1938 there were 550,000 children who could not attend any school at all because the network of four-year elementary schools was insufficient, the prospects for the development of kindergartens were, understandably, almost negligible. The Law, admittedly, stated that towns and industrial centers were obliged to open kindergartens for children of the age of four, and not five as it was before. But already in 1930 some colleges for nursery school teachers were closed down so that only two of them remained, which clearly indicates the tendency to close down and not to maintain and expand the network of pre-school institutions. The said Law also regulated the status of nursery school teachers, but their request to place them on the same level as elementary school teachers, which request was supported by elementary school teachers themselves, was not granted. On the contrary, their training was cut from two years to only one in 1940. In 1938, there were 400 kindergartens in Yugoslavia. 60 percent of them being the state institutions. Of the existing 516 nursery school teachers, 210 did not possess the necessary training qualifications. If we add here, that the requirements of the minimum 0.8 square meters of space per child and 60 children per teacher were not met either (in 1932, the average was 86 children per teacher), then we can also understand the fact that only two manuals on kindergarten work had been published by 1945, one of them in 1895 and the other in 1900.

Almost all the kindergartens before 1945 were equipped with benches and desks, a teacher's desk, a blackboard and large wall pictures, while the material used was almost exclusively "Froebel's gifts" and the methods of application were unchanged.

The lack of professional literature made the nursery school teacher's work difficult, the more so as there was no system of advanced training and improvement, while the exchange of experience through personal contacts among the teachers was difficult to achieve because of the very thin network of such institutions in the country, with the exception of Serbia. Besides, a number of kindergartens were attached to various nurseries which did not allow them to have contacts with the lay personnel (in Slovenia and Croatia). Finally, the system in the country as a whole was such that even schools had to struggle for their survival, and the policy in this field was directed towards closing down the state kindergartens whenever there was any opportunity and excuse for such an action. In 1928, in Zagreb, for instance, there was not a single state kindergarten, while the private ones were expanding. In 1932, there were 61 percent of private and only 39 percent of state kindergartens in Croatia. All this was leading unmistakably towards the stagnation of kindergartens and the checking of their growth into modern pre-school education institutions. In places where the nursery school teachers themselves, of their free initiative, made efforts to raise the standard, they were prevented by scarce or almost non-existent financial means allocated from the elementary school budgets.

However, the bare existence of kindergartens, in places where they were opened, influenced the people and made them conscious of the need for social education of children of pre-school age, so that the question of pre-school education was considered on a wider scale.

This proved so particularly in Serbia, where there were, as late as 1938, over 50 percent of the number of kindergartens existing in the whole country at that time. As the network was thick here, contacts among the institutions and nursery school teachers were possible. The institutions had access to the expert help provided by the teacher training colleges where the nursery school teachers sat for their professional examinations and where their professional level of knowledge and skills was assessed in view of the role of kindergartens in the advancement of pre-school education in the country as a whole. In Serbia, first articles were published in the field of child psychology and the importance of pre-school education was stressed, as well as of the high level of general and professional knowledge of nursery school teachers. The need for the same level of training for nursery school teachers as that for elementary school teachers was supported by theoretical arguments. All those efforts forced the educational authorities, in 1940, to open six new schools for nursery school teachers, but lasting only one year.

Asyla, later given the name of day-nurseries, were small in number till 1945, but their character was changed. Labour organizations, directly interested in them, were making efforts, under the influence of kindergartens, to introduce educational activities into asyla and to employ not only patrones but also nursery school teachers in them. This was realized in 1960. In this way, new pre-school institutions were formed that took over complete care for the education and protection of children of pre-school age.

In her book, "The Kindergarten Manual" (published by the Literary - Educational Association in Zagreb, 1895), Antonija Cvijic, an elementary school teacher and the founder of the first kindergarten (1872) and of the first training college for nursery school teachers (in Zagreb, 1880) describes the situation as follows:

"Many of the town kindergartens have lately been reshaped so that they have been assigned the role of asyla as well. This is, up to date, the most perfect institution for children of pre-school age, because, besides the conscientious and thorough education from all aspects, those children that lack care and supervision at home can enjoy this benefit in this institution. . . . Mother working during the day is thus rid of the care for her child. . . . The time will come when asyla will disappear completely and their place will be taken by such institutions."

But asyla remained in the system of social welfare as the public utility institutions.

Between the two World Wars, when industry was a little more developed, these institutions appeared in a new form, as combined institutions for pre-school and school age children of workers (age groups of 3 to 11). Most of these institutions were opened in Zagreb, the strongest industrial center. As they were independent public utility institutions, the demands for their organization were more easily put forward and realized.

Modern separate buildings were built in Zagreb for those institutions, and large playgrounds were provided as well. They were gradually equipped with modern equipment, adapted to the age of children. As the network of these institutions expanded, the number of children in classes was cut, which made it possible to work with a child individually.

Since the institutions included also the children of school age, elementary school teachers were employed, who started to work in the pre-school classes as well. Although they were not specialists for this type of work, they were delighted by it and sought answers to many questions of child psychology. On the other hand, in direct contacts with parents, they realized more fully the need for the protection and education of the pre-school children from the viewpoint of the requirements of those families where mother was employed; in this way, they understood the role and tasks of pre-school institutions as such.

During the permanent contacts with labour organizations and schools concerning the operation of these institutions, the teachers themselves also developed, working
actively in the progressive labour movement, to direct their activities in the education and protection of children along these lines.

With the purpose of the organized common work on their own professional improvement and on the reorganization of their institutions, they established the Association of the Town Day-Nursery Teachers in Zagreb that was active from 1934 to 1941.

The Association started a professional library, organized seminars, lectures, practical work; through the progressive teaching organization they established contacts, etc. It put forward demands for changes in the interior arrangements in the institutions on the basis of modern requirements, for better health conditions and health care for the children, etc. It succeeded in many of its demands. The request was granted, (made by the Association), that two groups of nursery school teachers be sent to Prague and Vienna to study the system of education and protection of children in the corresponding institutions there. The following groups were formed: for the elaboration of new bases for educational work with pre-school children, for the making of toys and other material used in work with children, making of puppets for puppet shows, etc. Free play was introduced in educational work with children, didactic play, the system of moving and musical play, free creative expression by children through drawing, painting, clay modelling, collage, movement, oral expression, etc. New forms of cooperation with the family were established. Nursery school teachers also acted as social welfare workers.

This Association, consisting of only 83 members, started to gather nursery school teachers outside Zagreb as well (Duga Resa, Borovo, Varazdin, Susak) and established contacts with nursery school teachers from Belgrade. The activities of the Association were brought to an end by the invasion of occupying forces in 1941.

Not only in Zagreb, but also in other towns, the need was felt for the opening of new day-nurseries, staffed with such personnel as would be able to fulfill the tasks of the education and protection of employed mothers. The Ministry of Education rejected the proposal, but then the Department of Social Welfare in Croatia opened, in the village of Rude near Zagreb (the mining settlement with a mixed working and farming population) the first training college for nursery school teachers, in 1939, training the personnel for those day-nurseries and children's homes in which there was no skilled staff. This new college assembled the following groups of people: the Association of Town Day-Nursery Teachers, psychologists, psychologists, pedagogists, doctors, social welfare workers, and experts in various fields such as rhythmic dancing, music, etc.; they all acted as lecturers and teachers in that college. The college was of the residential type with a daynursery – the "Small School" – attached as a practical training classroom. The foundation and development of this school was the result of the co-operative efforts of teachers, students and parents. Its basic characteristic was that its entire theoretical and practical activities started from the needs of the working and farming family and its economic, cultural and social problems.

The college lasted for two years with the planned system of additional advanced training within the college. Its activities were broken up by the war.

Its teachers and students took part in the People's Liberation Movement and were directly engaged in an action in Zagreb, involving the liberation of thousands of children from fascist concentration camps for children, and their placing into families willing to receive them. Later on, they went, with a group of their permanent teaching staff, to the liberated territory – to join the partisan detachments. There, in war conditions, they worked on the protection of children. They organized and operated homes for deprived children ran courses for women and girls working in those institutions. After Dalmatia was liberated in 1944, many homes for children and day-nurseries were opened, and they worked in them and in the bodies of the people's authority. After the liberation of the country, they started various courses and established the training school for nursery school teachers, in Zagreb.

The protection of children and care for their education was part of the programme of the People's Liberation War, a matter for the action of the whole people, of the Army and of all the other social organizations, since the protection of children, in the conditions of war, meant the struggle of the people for its new generations. However, even in the hard time of war, the protection of children was provided for. The People's Liberation Committees organized, as early as 1942, first homes for children, which later developed into a network of institutions (in 1944), in Croatia alone, there were 47 homes for children on the liberated territories. Children were put into families, their schooling was organized, the children's pioneer organization was established, also hospitals for children and special canteens for the nutrition of children. Teachers, nursery school teachers, doctors, nurses, etc. were demobilized from the army in order to ensure the total protection of children, their education and schooling. The educational, social welfare and medical authorities organized courses for teachers, nursery school teachers, medical personnel and others, which, continued till the end of the war in 1945. There were special homes for pre-school children, and after the complete liberation of certain territories, day-nurseries were opened as well.

Many nursery school teachers in pre-school institutions, from all parts of the country, in both occupied and liberated territories, worked on these jobs, which gave our country a number of new nursery school teachers who obtained their first training in such conditions and finished it after the Liberation. Their experience was enriched and their horizons were widened by their study of the child, its needs and education, during the war. After the war, they restored and founded new pre-school institutions and worked in them on new bases, on the achievements of the People's Liberation War, in the new Federal People's Republic of Yugoslavia.

In spite of all the difficulties facing our young state after the Liberation and the reconstruction of the country, the liquidation of economic and cultural backwardness and the construction of basic industries, the activities on the protection of children were continued with the same intensity as during the war. According to the data obtained by the census of 1945, which was most certainly incomplete, there were 283,000 children who were victims of the war, of whom 88,000 had lost both parents. For such children houses were organized, institutions for the disabled children, their parents were looked for, they were placed into families, etc. At the same time, care was provided for other children, school canteens were opened, medical protection for children organized, holiday resorts arranged, and the problems of schooling for children settled in the difficult situation when 50 per cent of the schools had been destroyed.

The sudden increase in the number of women employed brought to notice the problem of protection of the employed mothers and the need for institutions catering for the children of employed mothers.

Thanks to the efforts made by the Women's Organizations and the Trade
Unions, a number of day-nurseries and other institutions for pre-school children of employed mothers were opened. Such institutions were also opened in collective farms. In all the Republics, short seminars were organized for nursery school teachers in these institutions, and homes for children.

By the end of 1945, such pre-school institutions had already been opened.

In 1948, the Federal Regulations were issued on the establishment of day-nurseries and kindergartens which made it compulsory for People's Committees and enterprises to open such institutions, defining at the same time their duties and tasks. On the basis of this, first regulations were made on the organization and operation of such institutions, as well as special rules on the construction and adaptation of buildings for day-nurseries and kindergartens and their internal arrangements. In these Regulations, the term kindergarten was for the first time applied to such institutions, which pointed out and underlined their educational functions.

In the same year, 1948, the Ministries of Education in all the Republican centres opened training schools for nursery school teachers, lasting for four years, at the level of teacher training colleges. Departments for pre-school and extra-curricular education were established in the Ministries, setting up general regulation schemes for the educational work in kindergartens. At the same time, an abundant number of trade literature was published, dealing with pre-school education.

In this period, many kindergartens were reorganized and made into day-nurseries. Those of them that continued to be operated by schools were run on the principles of socialist education.

Although kindergartens remained under the department of education and day-nurseries under the department of social welfare, the responsibility for the educational performance of both types of institutions stayed with the educational authorities.

An intensive re-fashioning of pre-school institutions was started in this period. They were equipped with modern furniture, so that school desks and benches were abolished from all of them by 1954. New institutions were particularly well furnished.

At that time, social and political organizations, the People's Front, and specially the Women's Organizations, were the major factor in dealing with the problems of pre-school children, acting also as the strongest support to the bodies of the people's authority. They stimulated others towards solving those questions and solved them themselves. The Women's Organization was the social factor that was seeking the most suitable solutions for the growing problems appearing in this field. The forms of work were most varied: from the simplest gathering of children and their activities within the blocks of living houses, or mutual help among women, to complex action concerning the building of children's playgrounds and opening of kindergartens. The Women's organizations organized innumerable courses, published reference literature for those forms of work, as well as manuals, particularly intended for such institutions in villages. They took the lead in opening training schools for nursery school teachers, helped the institutions with toys, for example, and gave direct help to nursery school teachers. In journals and magazines for women, their members published a number of articles, then separate booklets, and organized talks and discussions on these questions.

Before the College for Nursery School Teachers was opened in 1948, the educational authorities had organized shorter, and then one-year courses for teachers in pre-school institutions. Nursery school teachers, pedagogists, psychologists, and even university professors worked in those courses. The topics treated were the following: the bases of educational work in kindergartens, curriculum and programme of courses, curriculum and programme of regular colleges for nursery school teachers, as well as the preparation of mimeographed scripts and handbooks for those colleges.

When regular colleges for nursery school teachers were opened in 1948, they soon became centres for further elaboration of theoretical and practical problems of pre-school education. Their classrooms for practical training became pilot institutions and provided the basis for study and elaboration of the system of pre-school education. Conferences and seminars for the teaching staff from all such colleges were frequently held.

The colleges organized a system of short-term regular training for those nursery school teachers who had finished short courses and had some practical experience. They also provided the supplementary training for those nursery school teachers who had finished a one- or two-year course before the war. In this way, their old demand, to be made equal with elementary school teachers, was met. The system of professional improvement and advanced training for nursery school teachers was organized by the colleges in collaboration with the Association of Nursery School Teachers, through regular summer and winter seminars, financed by the educational authorities.

Today, colleges for nursery school teachers, extended to last 5 years, train some 250 teachers a year, which does not cover all the needs and still makes the opening of new colleges a necessity. Within the framework of the overall reform of our school system, two-year nursery school teachers' academies are envisaged, and proposals have already been made for their opening.

In addition to colleges, there are also special professional bodies, Pedagogic Centres, studying all the problems of pre-school education and its promotion. An important part in settling those problems was played by the Association of Nursery School Teachers (founded in 1952, now active in the Trade Unions of Educational and Scientific Workers of Yugoslavia). The Association has engaged in professional improvement of nursery school teachers. It has made surveys and analyses on the situation of pre-school institutions and their equipment, fine manufacture of furniture, etc. Since toys and other material represented a particular problem for educational work in those institutions, because they are not yet produced in large enough quantities, the Association, helped by the Council of the Societies for Child Welfare in Yugoslavia, tackled that problem as well. A study centre was organized for the manufacture of toys, as well as a service enterprise for the manufacture and selling of toys and other material needed in kindergartens. At the same time, it became a strong centre for making designs for various types of furniture and manufacturing it with the help of the Institutions for School Equipment, which is an expert body for these matters.

The Association organizes seminars, conferences and congresses.

The professional journal "Preškolsko dete" ("The Pre-school Child") was started in 1950 as the organ of the Central Committee of the Association of Nursery School Teachers of Yugoslavia.

In widening the system of education of pre-school children, a very important role is played by the Societies for the Child Welfare, independent organizations, of which there are about 3,000, numbering over 1,000,000 members.
From pre-war Yugoslavia, we have inherited an underdeveloped, more or less systematically organized form of state and social care for the education of pre-school children, mostly taking the form of kindergartens and day-nurseries, while other forms, such as playgrounds, puppet shows, good picture-books, toys, etc., were very rare.

(As an example it may be said that before the war there were only two children's playgrounds in Zagreb, which then had 180,000 inhabitants; today, an average commune with 26,000 inhabitants has seven children's playgrunds).

State and social care for the problems of education within the family and for the advancement of its standards were then non-existent.

In the new situation after the Liberation in 1945, the overall care for the well-being of the young generation was placed upon a new and wider basis. The social care for pre-school children has considerably outgrown the framework of the kindergartens and has spread to include their life outside the kindergarten and within the family.

This is the characteristic feature of our present situation, which is also characterized by the continuous increase of social consciousness regarding the importance of systematic social pre-school education and the education of parents as a component part of our system of education. Care for the education of the young generation is becoming a matter of concern for society.

Social self-government exists not only in industry and economy but also in the field of education and schooling, as an undeniable consequence of making education a matter of concern for society. This has led to the increase of social consciousness and Social activities in setting the problems of education in kindergartens, outside them, and within the family.

In centralization, the introduction of workers' self-government in production (1950), the creation and development of the communal system and social administration in all fields of social activities, particularly in education, health and social welfare, where thousands of citizens are included in the bodies of social administration (established in 1954), and where specific problems are dealt with, seeking the solutions for them on the basis of the knowledge of the potential possibilities of citizens and of the commune, – these have all contributed towards a quicker and more efficient solution of the problems.

Thanks to the rapid material development of our country, the condition and management of workers in various enterprises, and the development of a social conscience, people's committees and business concerns allocate increasingly larger funds for the development of a network of such institutions and other forms of education for the parents to help a family to educate and protect children. Parents also actively participate in these projects. This facilitates various aspects of home management, increases the contribution of families in productive work, and raises their standard of living.

In order to make the solution of these problems more specific and rapid, to help individuals and households, the system of social administration has spread to smaller territories – communes, housing communities and others – in which citizens collectively solve those problems that cannot be solved by an individual alone. This process develops the consciousness of people that by taking an active part in solving the common problems, they also solve their own individual problems.

Societies for Child Welfare create a public awareness of the need for increased care for the education and protection of children. They exert a systematic positive influence upon parents; they mobilize social forces and means for action and activities, such as the creation of various institutions and other forms of children's education. They gather together all sorts of experts whose work is directed towards the education of the young generation. Their activities are supplemented by rich and varied publishing activities.

The societies for Child Welfare within the Commune and the housing community are engaged on those problems which are solved in the housing community according to the most specific needs of the family.

The Republican Associations of the Societies for Child Welfare and the Council of Associations for Welfare of Children in Yugoslavia represent centres for co-ordinating, at the Republican and the Federal level respectively, the activities of the societies. They analyze their work, generalize their experiences and seek new ways for solving the increasing numbers of new problems brought forth by everyday practice.

The Council of Associations for the Welfare of Children in Yugoslavia attaches great importance to the pre-school stage, which is dealt with by its Commission for Pre-school Education consisting of representatives of such commissions from all the Republics. It has developed an extensive activity in this field. At the same time, it acts as the National Committee of O.M.E.P. for Yugoslavia and co-operates with O.M.E.P.

The Commission for Pre-school Education of the Council of Associations deals with wide varieties of problems of pre-school education, institutions, family, and other forms of pre-school education, such as children's playgrounds in parks, gardens and courtyards, puppet shows, small slides shows, gatherings of children in houses where they live, in the premises of the Societies for Child Welfare, education of children within families, picturebooks, stories and nursery tales, songs and music, particularly toys, etc. All this contributes to further building and development of the entire system of pre-school education as it was set up by the General Law on Schools with the aim of helping parents to engage more in pre-school education, of improving the educational work of kindergartens and extending their social role, of extending the network of various institutions and forms of educational influences on the child, by providing it with good toys and tales and enabling it to live a gay and cheerful early childhood and satisfying its needs at right moments, within the family circle, surrounded by the tender care of the entire community.
Understanding Children’s play

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It will be the purpose of this paper to demonstrate that play is vital to childhood and that the spirit of play is an essential ingredient in mature adulthood. It is also hoped to demonstrate that play is the most complete educational process of the mind, and is nature’s magic device for ensuring that each individual becomes self-educated. Some emphasis will also be given to the teacher’s role in children’s play. A great deal of inspiration for this address has been derived from the works of S. I. Isaacs, Dorothy Gardner, Pinger, Lowenfeld, and Hartley, Frank, Gardner Murphy and Paul Torrens.

Play may be described as a spontaneous, creative, desired, research activity carried out for its own sake. Because it is entirely natural, it is not necessarily moral when judged by the cultural or social ethics of the times. A desired, spontaneous, creative activity may be anti-social, even though not unnatural, and it is for this reason that people question whether play should be directed or self-chosen. To what degree should a teacher guide children’s activity? Play is, in no sense, a simple thing; nor is it explained or interpreted with reference to one or two criteria only. Play, in fact, is a very complex thing, as complex as the human being himself.

There have been many theories of play advanced and many criticisms of those theories. The rehearsal theory of Karl Gross which was derived from his study of animals has much to commend it because it postulates play as the means of growth and development and puts great value on it. He noted that play varied according to the level on the scale of evolution at which the various animals stood. The higher animals seemed to have longer periods of infancy and associated with that, longer periods of more extensive play. Karl Gross’ theory is, however, inadequate for the human child, for rehearsal of the complex activity of adulthood is clearly impossible. Nevertheless, the idea of play as a growth mechanism put forward by Karl Gross is still a very important contribution even though he forgot that the work of adults can have all the characteristics of play.

The recapitulation theory of G. Stanley Hall was also an attractive, partial explanation of play. It could never be more than a partial explanation because it was unable to account for all the facts.

The superficial energy theory was the one least able to explain the function of play satisfactorily. While children obviously let off steam at play, it is simply an incidental concomitant of the pleasure and enthusiasm that play engenders.

Play is much more than a rehearsal, or a recapitulation or vigorous exuberance although it may contain all three. Play is essentially a research activity—an adventure, an experiment, a transactional process. It is motivated by innate curiosity and inquiry. It is the expression of children’s urge to find out and discover for themselves how to live, how to be. Play has the joy of discovery, the satisfaction of creativity. With young children, play serves the function of a nonverbal mode of communication or a figurative language which satisfies a felt need and develops the whole child. In play a child is most nearly whole, most nearly self-directed, most open and creative. It is creative and imaginative because it is spontaneous and because the child is wholly involved and completely absorbed. In play, a child can completely lose himself. Play is as necessary for mental health as food is for physical well being.

Play also provides both freedom and discipline. It is the means by which the child animal learns to accept the social-cultural living of the group. Play is a serious activity and requires great effort. It has all the characteristics of a fine and complete educational process. Its main function is to develop the whole personality. In play, as in fine education, children are completely absorbed. They concentrate for a great length of time. They show initiative, imagination and intense interest. There is tremendous intellectual ferment and complete emotional involvement. No activity motivates repetition more thoroughly. No activity improves the personality so markedly. No other activity calls so fully on the resources of effort and energy which lie latent in the human being. Play is in fact, the most complete of all the educational processes for it influences the intellect, the emotions and the body of the child. It is the only activity in which the whole educational process is fully consummated. There is a maxim of good teaching which says that “you cannot teach a child anything unless he wants to learn.” This is the same as saying that unless learning is play, it cannot be effective.

If play is thought of as a research activity which is completely necessary for growth and for a complete education, then it becomes the most important activity for children and the spirit of play the most important stimulus to mental activity for children. As a research activity it is distinguished somewhat from relaxation or pastime and from simple exuberant fun, but play is not distinguishable from work. In no sense is it the antithesis of work.

Work is related to energy output, to effort, to physical exertion. An engineer is capable of measuring effort and energy output, even in the human being. It may range from almost nothing in the human being, as when we are asleep or completely relaxing on a sunbathed beach, to almost superhuman exertions put forth by athletes, players, or batters, or great thinkers of our time. We could in fact, represent work output diagrammatically, by extending the measure on a linear scale from zero almost to infinity.

Play, however, is not measured in this way at all. Nevertheless, we could set it out on a continued scale and it would range from one extreme which might be ecstatical pleasure through a neutral zero point to an opposite extreme which could be complete boredom and distaste. The measure of play, therefore, is the degree to which it gives pleasure or better still, the degree to which it is desired. Some forms of play require enormous expenditure of effort or work. Other forms of play, like day dreaming on the beach, may not require expenditure of any large amounts of effort at all but they may be equally desirable, equally pleasurable, equally educative and equally valuable for personality growth. Furthermore, the same amount of energy expenditure may be for one person play, or pleasure, and for another the opposite of play, or boredom. For some ladies the exertions of a shopping expedition may be a pure delight and often creative. For me, shopping is entirely boring and the effort makes me feel utterly tired and defeated. My wife may return home completely revitalized and still exuberantly happy despite expending even more energy than I have in the shop. For one man, the heavy exertions of gardening may be entirely pleasing, to another, it may seem like a menial, despicable chore. My daughter thoroughly enjoys a day spent in a sunset on the beach with her boyfriend. My mother would consider such an activity wholly deplorable. Play and work are, therefore, measured in entirely
different terms. They are entirely different kinds of thing. Work is measured by quantity of physical exertion. Play is measured by quality of emotional involvement.

If we put these two things together in one diagram, we shall see that some forms of play are associated with large amounts of effort or work, and some with small amounts. The amount of effort expended has very little relation to the value of play to the child or to the personality growth of the individual. The amount of work effort expended may have beneficial effects on the physical tone of the body and the muscular development, but it has no obvious relation to the emotional satisfaction or to the mental gain to the individual. What matters most in play is the freedom, absorption and concentration with which it is carried on.

The significant point that educators have learned, however, is that when an activity takes on the characteristics of play then normally more effort is expended and more work done. The point of this discussion, however, is to emphasize that work and play are not opposites despite the general opinion of the public to the contrary. The sooner it is understood that thorough education goes on only when considerable effort is expended in the spirit of play, the better it will be for our whole educational system. It is, nevertheless, important to refer back to the statement already made that neither play nor work are necessarily moral. A cat burglar who decides to invade a house is almost certainly thoroughly absorbed in his "work"; he certainly concentrates all his efforts on his activity; his plans are certainly imaginative and creative and if we are to judge from the zeal with which he pursues his nefarious activities, he certainly enjoys the effort and gains satisfaction from it. Many of the elements of play and certainly much of the effort of work goes into antisocial acts as well as into prosocial acts.

Moreover, different societies have different standards of moral behaviour; in fact, they may have opposing standards and, therefore, it is necessary for a child to have some kind of teaching or guidance even in play activities in order to meet society's needs. This is all the more necessary if we believe, as Freud did, that all of us have inborn sadistic tendencies. Not everyone, however, would agree with his view for there is evidence to show that we all need creative expansion and so must seek what is good. Many will believe that children will have a bias towards good because good things tend to grow whereas evil things tend to lead toward their own decay. Whitehead has said that "this fact about the instability of evil is the moral order of the world." Even Plato seemed to have faith in the innate goodness of children, but like all the Greeks never entirely disregarded regulation. Plato said "our children from their earliest years must take part in all the more lawful forms of play, for if they are not surrounded by such an atmosphere, they can never grow up to be well conducted and virtuous citizens." Aristotle took a more negative attitude toward play, for he states that "play should be introduced, under proper regulation, as a medicine." Both, therefore, thought of play as important and likely to lead to good, but not without some guidance.

Reference to the positive and negative values of play makes it necessary to state that in the past too much emphasis has been put on the therapeutic value of play in helping to understand the fears, the anxieties and the disturbances of mentally ill children. This emphasis has led some people to suppose that play is necessary only for those who are mentally disturbed or maladjusted as a kind of curative or therapeutic medicine. Children become ill very largely because they have been deprived of the freedom and opportunity to play, for as has already been stated, play is necessary to the mental health of the child as food is to the physical well being.

This paper, therefore, is concerned mainly with the positive values of play to the normal well child; or put in another way, it is concerned with the great value of education for everybody and with the importance of using nature's built-in provision for individual self-education, which is play, for that purpose.

Play is the finest form of education because it is, as Dr. Lawrence Frank of the Caroline Zachry Institute of New York says, "essentially personality development, whereby the individual organism becomes a human being willing to live in a social order and in a symbolic cultural world." (American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, July 1955, Vol. XXV, No. 3, pp. 576-590). Personality is a higher individualized way of carrying on idiomatically patterned processes through which each person continually maintains his life space, guards his private world while participating more or less adequately in maintaining a social life. A child's play is, therefore, his way of exploring and experimenting while he builds up relations with the world and with himself. In play, he is learning to learn. He is also discovering how to come to terms with the world, to cope with life's tasks, to master skills. In particular, he is learning how to gain confidence. In play a child is continually discovering himself anew, for it is not easy for a child to accept the patterned conduct of social cultural living and in many cases he must escape somehow into fantasy. Thus, the child learns through play to live overtly in the adult consensual world. But he also maintains his own private world of the meanings of values, feelings and emotional actions which he increasingly guards from others. Play is the means by which a child matures, by continually altering his awareness of the world, continually patterning his perception of people and situations according to their changing meanings and significance for him. Play also enables a child to free himself from his conflicts, his fears, his rages and enables him to discover the permissible and acceptable outlets for his primary impulses.

Sufficient has been said to prove that play is nature's research activity, nature's experimental method for enabling a child to discover how to live, and how to grow up. But the glory of play is that it is also creative, spontaneous and quite independent of external needs and stimuli. It leads to increasing perfection of form, to more complete expressiveness and to a higher degree of unity in diversity. It is probably the spontaneity of play that has caused the general public to use the term "work" as its antithesis, because "work" in the popular mind is effort required or imposed from outside or an activity determined by someone else. Play is free, because the child's activities in play are still a little tentative and uncommitted, are still capable of exploration and revision, of enunciation and replacement, of manipulation of objects, events, and even people with less restriction than is imposed on an adult. It is nevertheless, possible for work to have all the felt qualities of play.

Whitehead's definition of an educational utopia is a place where work is play and play is life.

Schiller said that "the nature of a people's play will foreshadow the quality and value of its art." The soul of art is the joyous exercise of spontaneity, and beauty is certainly a play phenomenon. Thus the power to produce beauty is as universal as the power to learn arithmetic. On the other hand, it is important to state that a certain amount of mastery is necessary before one can play with all types of materials. As for art, so for play, freedom is entirely necessary. A child's fantasy is essentially inventive and fancy free. It is a high handed treatment of inconvenient facts. Nevertheless, a great deal of spiritual and intellectual vigour comes from make-believe. A child investigates the world of things around
him by manipulation and direct experiment whereas he investigates the world of society by a mental experiment called fantasy or make-believe drama.

Piaget emphasizes the thought values of play. He says that symbolic play is egocentric thought in its pure state. He adds that a child wishes to enjoy a private reality of his own. This reality is believed in spontaneously without effort, merely because it is the universe of the ego and the function of play is to protect this universe against forced accommodation to ordinary reality. All play is associated with intense thought activity and rapid intellectual growth.

The highest form of research is essentially play. Einstein is quoted as saying “The desire to arrive finally at logically connected concepts is the emotional basis of a vague play with basic ideas. This combinatory or associative play seems to be the essential feature in productive thought.” From the artistic point of view, Mozart, said that “all this inventing, this producing, takes place in a pleasing, lively dream.” He says, “I do not study or aim at any originality. It just happens spontaneously.”

Since experimental research, creative activity and emotional maturity are the essential elements in the best forms of education, as they are in the highest forms of play and work, it seems important to spend a few minutes discussing education because at the beginning it was claimed that play is essentially a complete education. While we are prepared to accept play in preschool education we neglect at our peril to make sure that the spirit of play continues throughout all school and adult educational studies. To be effective and lasting, all ideas in the mind must somehow be expressed creatively in some concrete form. This is sometimes called recreation, but it is never exact imitation. All recreation has injected it into the personal creativeness of the doer.

For you can be twenty and nine when your aged eight or nine are taken on their first real visit to an airfield they are entranced by the experience. There is no lack of interest. An enormous number of facts are taken in and a multitude of questions are asked as their minds try to understand the whole complex operation of air travel. Thinking and understanding proceed at a very rapid rate. On the return home it will not be long before ominous noises indicate that the kitchen or the basement or the nearest source of air is being rapidly transformed into a miniature airfield crowded with imaginary aircraft and people. Learning about air transport is still going on. The children are recreating the original scene in their own way. The many impressions that were obtained at the airport would be lost if they were allowed to remain for long as abstract impressions only. The children clearly want to remember and learn. and, in order to make the original learning effective and lasting, they must put the experiences into more concrete form by re-enacting some of those scenes.

Other children will sit down and use plasticine or clay to make the airport. Others will draw and paint, but whatever each child feels impelled to do, the recreated scene will never be an exact of the original. The process of thought will have selected and rearranged the experiences. Still more important the imaginative play or the clay models or the paintings will have the added element of the child’s own feelings and emotions. The paintings will in fact be both original and creative as well as recreative.

The feelings of the children when they first went to the airport were a very important part of their learning. Their understanding was partly intellectual and partly emotional. Their play at home is again an expression of their emotional and intellectual learning.

It may be, of course, that on the original visit to the airport the child's battery of questions seemed highly tinged with a purely intellectual element as if they were bent on a scientific enquiry or a voyage of exploration. Their questions were often searching and their curiosity was essentially the same as scientific research.

It may be true, therefore, that when new things are first learned the mind operates largely on the purely intellectual level and follows a scientific research procedure. It may be that people are relatively unaware of the emotional impressions they are also receiving through their senses, but it is certainly true that unless they do have some emotional feelings as well as an intellectual impact from initial experiences then learning is likely to be shallow and incomplete. The thought processes, and the understanding that follows thought, should help to make people aware of the feelings associated with experience, but, in order that the awareness of feeling is fully conscious and that the intellect completes its mastery of ideas, it is necessary to provide opportunities for the recreation or expression, in visible or audible form, of the original experiences. In this way the mind grows and in this way a child develops a civilized mature behaviour and desirable personal qualities.

An educated person is one whose intellectual efforts have carried over to character formation, attitude development and aesthetic sensitivity - or as Aristotle would have said “to wisdom and virtue.” The late Boyd Bye is quoted as saying that “it is agreed on all hands that education is more than just a matter of learning facts and skills. Public interest is poorly served if attitudes and appreciations do not receive at least equal consideration. The things that are taught in school, whether in science, literature or art, should form the basis of our culture and the pupil's acquired interest is the ideal of a complete education and of play. It is only in creative and artistic activity that this important carry over takes place. That is why the artistic and creative element of play is so important.

If play is nature’s means of individual education, how then should a teacher act? Where, in practice, is the line to be drawn between direct teaching and the child’s discovery of the value of a moral order by free experimentation adequately supervised? How, in fact, can we get discipline or morality into play activity? Obviously, teaching methods in schools must aim deliberately at feeding the impulse to intellectual play, to experimentation and to the development of concrete modes of self-assertion. It can never be stressed too much that a child must find his way to maturity, at his own rate, with his individualized capacity and limitation. We must provide adequately for play and at the same time respect the dignity of the child so that we do not invade his integrity either by neglect or coercion. A teacher must not stunt or distort personality development nor yet overdevelop it prematurely. How does a teacher encourage animal behaviour to become social conduct?

The teacher’s task is not that of directing play, but of removing obstacles to constructive freedom. Put more practically, the teacher provides materials, space, opportunities and experiences, and she does this by knowing the children’s abilities and interests at different stages of growth. Teaching should exploit the spontaneity of the individual, and the teacher should act by suggestion and example, not by precept and command. In school, Sir Percy Nunn says that a teacher is a perpetual president who must exercise the duties of citizenship all the more
assiduously and scrupulously by reason of the exceptional power his position gives him.

The teacher, therefore, provides materials, such as building blocks, modelling clay, paint, water, sand, paper, etc., space, time, freedom and affection — or in other words, arranges conditions so that children naturally want to learn and want to play, or arranges conditions so that nature can effect an education. The teacher tries her best not to interfere with the spontaneity, the search, the intellectual curiosity, the creativity or the freedom but encourages dramatic self-expression and artistic growth in a moral atmosphere created by her own example and personality.

Many great teachers in the past have advocated the play way in education, notably, of course, Caldwell Cook, Montessori and all those who have believed in learning by doing and who have wished to turn classrooms into experimental laboratories and artistic studios.

The spirit of play is vital to all humanity, the basis of most happiness of mankind, the means by which humanity advances creatively, scientifically, intellectually and socially. Not only is it vital to childhood, the spirit of play is vital to all mankind. In understanding children's play, we will have understood the key to the processes which educate the whole child. Because we live in a highly civilized world, all play activities need the kindly sympathetic understanding teacher who will provide materials, suggestions, kindliness, freedom and space, and who, by example, will set standards of behaviour and discipline with which children can experiment creatively to their own advantage.

Play as seen by a Pediatrician — its Values and Dangers

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It is a platitude to say that all children need play. Play is essential for a child's physical, motor, emotional and intellectual development. There is interaction between all these fields of development, the development of one helping the development of the other.

Play helps the child's physical development, by giving him exercise, especially exercise in the fresh air.

Play helps a child's motor development, by enabling him to practise and perfect new skills: to use his hands and to coordinate them with the eyes and other parts of the body.

Play helps a child's emotional development by giving him pleasure and enjoyment: by giving him a sense of achievement and intellectual satisfaction and so satisfying his ego: by keeping him occupied and preventing boredom, which is a potent cause of quarrelsome-ness, destructiveness and bad behavior, which irritates the mother and leads to domestic strife and unpleasantness. Play with other children helps to master shyness, and helps a child to learn to lose with equanimity, to give and take, to obey the rules of the game, to cooperate with others and to conform to custom, an invaluable preparation for school and life beyond school. Play gives him emotional liberation and enables him to sublimate his aggressiveness and primitive instincts — in the hammer toy, and in the purposeful and constructive use of play, with sand, water and paint. It helps him to lose his fears and anxieties in imaginative games. Toys in hospitals help the children to lose their fears and anxieties and to suffer more readily the separation from their parents, if the mother cannot be with them in the hospital. It is much easier for a child to play in the hospital if he is out of bed. In my opinion far too many children are kept in bed in the hospital during the day for no apparent reason. I always teach students that the commonest cause of a child being kept in bed during the day on the medical side of a hospital is the fact none has thought of getting him up. We make a special point at the Children's Hospital, Sheffield, of getting them up in the ward as soon as we possibly can. I am always impressed when I visit hospitals in this country and overseas by the number of children lying in bed for no apparent reason when they could perfectly well be sitting up at a taste playing, writing, and doing other things.

Play helps a child's intellectual development by increasing his knowledge — knowledge of how things work, and how things are made. It increases and develops his powers of observation and of concentration. It trains him to use his imagination, and to discover means of expression. Play helps a child to learn his interests and aptitudes, and may well guide him to the future choice of career. The effect of environment on a child's intelligence quotient is well known: this effect is probably related in part to the opportunities given to the child by his parents for the wise use of his spare time.

It follows that every child should be given adequate opportunities for play.
This sounds obvious, but the need is real. For instance, some parents fill their children's playtime so fully with organised occupations, such as horse-riding, elocution and piano lessons, that they have no time left for spontaneous play and for the pursuit and development of their own interests. Beethoven when six years old, wept when his parents insisted on his having daily lessons on the piano. Perhaps, in retrospect, they did the right thing! I feel strongly that modern grammar schools are wrong in giving boys and girls from 11 years onwards 3 hours home-work a night and more in the weekends. This leaves the child no time for the occupations in which he is interested and which might be the beginning of his future career. Television is likely to draw the child away from his own creative play, and may certainly isolate a child from his friends or potential friends and from cooperative play. Children should be encouraged to have friends in to their house for play and occasionally for meals.

I always teach that a good children's ward in a hospital should be an untidy place - with toys on the bed and floor to occupy the children: yet when I see hospitals abroad I am impressed by their horribly spick and span tidiness - with no toys to be seen anywhere.

Not only should children be given time to play, but they should be given the right material for play, suitable for their developmental (not chronological) age, sex, interests and aptitudes. Thomas Arnold was given Smollett's 24 volume History of England for his third birthday. Hardly suitable, one would have thought, for his likely developmental age, though it is said that P. Stuart Mills and Macaulay - among the greatest geniuses of all time, discarded all toys by the age of 3, for they had grown out of them - a story which one can take with a pinch of salt, unless the choice of toys was wrong! At the Children's Hospital, Sheffield, I give a lecture and practical demonstration of toys and books suitable for different mental age groups. I advocate particularly toys which can be taken apart and put together again, a doll with interchangeable clothes, and a sack of bricks of different shapes and sizes. Toys should lend scope for dramatic action, imaginative play, and constructive ideas.

There must be no excess of toys: at Christmas, when a child has seen his toys, part should be put away, and brought out at intervals, replacing the others.

A nursery school supplies play material which cannot be available in most homes though the more expensive play material, which is mainly for outdoor use - bicycles, tricycles and sand pits can readily be bought at a low price second-hand: and an excellent climbing frame can be made by cutting a long ladder into three and joining them up by placing two vertically with a connecting horizontal section.

There should be no excess of group play: children should be allowed to play alone for some of the time, and with others for the rest of the time. Some parents fail to leave their children to play on their own, and instead constantly play with them, guiding their play and interfering with it, so that their children demand the presence of others to arrange play for them.

The Dangers of Play

It is the responsibility of all concerned with children to know about the dangers of play, and about accident prevention. They have to balance the risk of overprotection from that of underprotection: both tend to lead to accident proneness. The one year old has to be given complete protection from accidents, because he has no idea of the consequences of his acts. As he grows older, he has to be allowed that degree of licence and experimentation which will allow him to learn what is safe and unsafe; but the teacher or parent has to know the sort of situations which are potentially dangerous but wouldn't be recognised as dangerous by a child. For instance, the young child sees no danger in a swing or round-about, which may cause nasty head injuries when a young child suddenly runs into the path of the swing; he sees no danger in a folding nursery chair, which is apt to trap fingers: he sees no danger in small objects, which the parent or teacher knows may present danger from inhalation or insertion into the nose or ear - objects such as dolls with small heads which may be bitten off, small toy whistles and toys which have small component parts. The danger of inhalation must always be remembered by those responsible for the care of children.

Among other sources of danger in play the following may be mentioned: toys with sharp corners or projecting wire; dolls with cheap and dirty stuffing, or eyes which are not properly attached and apt to come out; toys with colours which are not fast, or with lead paint; celluloid toys of all kinds, which burst into flame when near a source of heat; brittle and pliable plastic toys; sharp pointed pencils, so dangerous to the eye; plastic bags, which are put over the head and lead to suffocation; toy fuel cubes, and fireworks; holes in the drive which will throw a child on a scooter - and so on.

Certain toys should never be given to children, because they have been the source of so many serious accidents to the eye - bows and arrows, airguns and catapults.

Certain dangerous practices in play should always be stopped; these include particularly playing with a cord round the neck, playing on stairs, walking or running about with a sharp object in the mouth, or with a plastic trumpet which would break and seriously injure the child if he fell; the door banging game; collecting dropped objects from the fireplace; pulling a chair away before someone sits down; or climbing in unsafe places or on unsuitable objects such as a rocking chair.

Stairs should be properly lighted; the floor should not be polished, or if it is, rugs should have non skid devices under them; electric points and cable should be safe; lily ponds and pretty berries in the garden should be absolutely avoided; and although the window in the child's room should be safe, making it impossible for the small child to get through, it is essential to see that some windows in different parts of each floor should be capable of being opened in case of fire.

Teachers and parents have always to be on their guard against possible dangers which children may not anticipate; but overprotection has to be avoided.
Motor Activity connected with play

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First of all, some facts leading to the study of the mobility of children during their play, which I shall discuss with you later.

In Sweden there is not yet any special university professorship dealing with the important question of child psychology, although OMEP and several other organizations have submitted proposals to the government for the creation of a chair on this subject. Up to the present this subject has been included sometimes under pedagogy with pedagogic psychology and sometimes under psychology. The study, concerning which I shall report to you in a moment, was made at the Institute of Pedagogy and Pedagogic Psychology of the University of Stockholm in its section devoted to research in child psychology (laboratory of child psychology, of which I am the head). This small section has existed only since the year 1958 and is the first of its kind in Sweden.

It rents its quarters from a private kindergarten that has been in existence for a great many years and is extremely well managed. There is also a nursery in the same house and there are a number of institutions of these two kinds in the same city ward, where preliminary observations can be made and study methods elaborated. The studies themselves are then made in several other institutions in Stockholm or elsewhere in the country.

Here are some differences: In Sweden, kindergartens accept children between four and seven years of age, usually for two and a half to three hours a day, whereas the nurseries keep children from six months to six years of age throughout the whole day.

These two kinds of preschool institutions come under the Ministry of Social Welfare and are relatively new, having received a grant from the government only since the year 1940. Hence, there are relatively only a few of them. In fact, the number of such institutions in all Sweden at the end of 1959 was 1,063 with a total of 45,000 children. On the other hand, schools have been compulsory for more than a century and, in reality, have been in existence much longer. They fall under the Ministry of Public Education and of Public Worship. These differences between the schools and preschool institutions should serve to explain the circumstance that in our country a great many psychopedagogic studies have been made on the child of school age, while only a very few have been made on the child of preschool age. This almost leaves the impression that we involuntarily took as point of departure that a child is born at the age of seven, that is, the day that he begins to go to school. Therefore, we have great need of studies on children from 0 to seven years of age, especially, perhaps studies concerning children during their stay in kindergartens and nurseries.

The fact that preschool institutions and schools have to do with such different ages and that they have such dissimilar traditions, not to speak of the different government authorities under which they come, has brought about the complication that they work towards different objectives. In fact, the preschool institutions aspire to the complete, natural and harmonious development of the whole child and they have worked out methods in conformity with this objective. They encourage as far as possible the child's spontaneous behaviour. The school, on the other hand, considers it one of its main objectives to give instruction in certain subjects and its methods follow essentially traditional patterns, which are not based on the principle of self-regulation of the child, but allow his behaviour to be regulated by adults. These different objectives and methods of preschool institutions and schools also cause the premises, the furnishings, the materials and exterior space to be arranged in our country in a different manner for children up to seven years and those younger than seven. This gives rise to a lack of consistency in education, with a rather abrupt transition at the age of seven which can be quite difficult for both children and parents. In addition to our need for a study of the behaviour of the child of preschool age we join the wish that this study may be continued at school age and that its results may also have an influence on the shaping of the first school years but, first of all, that it may result in a gentler transition between the preschool and school periods.

When the University of Stockholm received a grant from the government in 1958 for the transformation of the kindergarten which had provided quarters for the laboratory of child psychology, this was soon followed by an allotment for studies and later several others. This first allotment of funds was to be employed for the study of the spontaneous behaviour of children left at liberty in the kindergartens: these were children from four to six years old. This study had for its object the obtaining of abundant knowledge on the dynamics of general behavior as well as on the needs and interest which determined this behavior at the respective ages. The study was to serve as a basis for conclusions relative to the furnishings, equipment, the organization of the games and instruction in preschool institutions. It was hoped that it would also provide suggestions for special studies of a different kind, neglected hitherto but important, the plan of which would be established during the course of the first study or a result of the latter. There are certain results of this study, which I shall report to you presently, and, hence, it is only concerning children of from four to six years of age that I am going to speak, and only of their behaviour on the premises of the kindergarten. In many countries, children of six years old are already attending school; I hope that those among my hearers who come from those countries will nevertheless obtain some benefit from my report.

For the first six weeks experiments were made and a sure method perfected for a rapid recording of the child's behavior. The two following months were devoted to the collection of material in the form of observations made on the children as well as from interviews with their parents and teachers. We made a thorough study of 30 children four years old and a like number of children six years old, of whom half were girls and half boys in each of the age categories. Each child was observed for forty-five minutes from the moment of his arrival in the kindergarten, this period having been selected as corresponding to one school hour in Swedish schools. The observations were directed to different aspects of behaviour. While one co-worker recorded the child's occupations, another noted his movements and a third recorded his contacts with companions and adults. Such detailed reports permit a subsequent study of the behaviour of each of the children, minute by minute, in all respects, so as to establish the relationship. All the children had passed an intelligence test according to the Terman-Merrill scale. A questionnaire was worked out in order to obtain some idea of the experience acquired by the child outside the institution. It was filled out by assistants after personal interviews with mothers and preschool teachers.
What were, then, the games and occupations chosen by the children? Probably the same as in other countries. The children built with blocks; they made little trains and automobiles run and transport; wood and other handicraft work; they drew pictures, coloured, modelled, sewed, cut out and pasted; they performed gymnastics with suitable apparatus; they played on different musical instruments; played with dolls and imitated housework; they invented games without concrete materials and displayed an activity called undetermined, that is, for example, going around the room and looking at what their companions are doing.

What was characteristic is that often, during the same game, the children mixed all kinds of material. Thus, building with blocks rarely took place without at the same time using toys, such as cranes, automobiles, trucks, etc., and right in the middle of a coloured crayon drawing the child would paste on the same sheet something that he had drawn previously and then had cut out, etc. It was only rarely that a child would busy himself with the same thing during the whole period of three quarters of an hour. The children generally occupied themselves with units of activity rather well interspersed with short intervals of relaxation or change. For example, the child began, let us say, to paint a picture and when, after ten minutes, this was finished, he gave it to the teacher and then made a tour of the room for a moment to talk to one of his companions. The rest of the time, perhaps he built things with blocks. Children of four years old had the time for four to five of such units of activity on the average, while the six-year olds occupied themselves longer with the same unit, changing occupations three times on the average during the 45 minutes. It is clear that in preschool institutions it is necessary to have varied equipment if the children have need of changing their occupations three to five times during the first 45 minutes. This also leads to the reflection that adults must not require too prolonged concentration on the part of young children, if the adult is directing their activities.

The choice of occupation was very different according to the age, sex and intelligence of the children.

As regards difference of age, many more games imagined without materials, undetermined activity, building games and running vehicles, handicraft work with wood and modelling were observed in children of four years old than in children of six years old. Little pieces of manual work were observed only in children of six years old, who were also the only ones to choose musical instruments.

As regards difference of sex, it was very plain that boys of both age categories chose building with blocks and playing with wheeled toys more often than girls. They also had a tendency more often than girls to choose an undetermined activity, handicraft with wood, pieces of manual work, as well as games and puzzles. On the other hand, the girls chose more often drawing, painting, sewing and gymnastics. Modelling and music were chosen with about the same frequency by boys and girls.

As a group, the girls were more persevering than the boys, but there were great individual differences in the groups of both sexes. There was greater variety in the boys' group.

Differences of intelligence were manifested in the following manner. Children of keen intelligence chose building games and running vehicles, wood work, drawing, painting, sewing and undetermined occupations, while those of less keen intelligence busied themselves with games, put puzzles together, invented games without materials and performed gymnastics.

If the occupations are divided into mobile, on the one hand, and quiet, on the other, we find that children of six years old chose mobile games more often than the four-year-olds. The difference observed in this respect between the sexes was extremely pronounced. The boys chose mobile games more often than the girls. As regards intelligence, the difference was expressed, as regards children of four years old, by the choice of mobile games especially by the gifted, and, among children of six years old, mainly by the less gifted. This tendency was the same in boys and in girls.

And now we shall approach the question of mobility. The observations having been concentrated on elementary movements, we watched the habitual movements and change of movement. Positions standing upright, kneeling, on all fours, bent; seated on a chair, squatting on knees and on heels, on the floor; lying down on the stomach, on the back, on the side, half lying down; manner of moving from place to place while upright, squatting, crawling, running or jumping.

What was striking was the number of changes of movement per person in 45 minutes. In both age categories, the children spent more than half the time standing, moving from place to place in different ways or stretching out on the floor, and the rest of the time seated. Changes of movement, taken individually, varied, however, from 18 to 254. The pattern of the movements, in the same way as other observed aspects of behavior, varied according to age, sex and intelligence.

As regards difference of age, it was found that the total number of changes of movement was about the same with children of four years old and the six-year-olds, but the total number of minutes that the children were in motion was greater among the six-year-olds. The latter made more movements in the prone position or seated than the smaller children, while the children of four years old made more movements while standing or moving from place to place than the six-year-olds.

The difference between the sexes, as regards movements, was considerably greater than that between the age categories. The boys made a greater number of movements in 45 minutes, and this concerns not only the total number but also the variation of movements. They made more movements while, lying down, seated, standing and by moving from place to place than the girls. Furthermore, the total number of minutes that the movements took was greater with the boys. The girls had the longer uninterrupted period in seated positions. The girls of six years old remained seated about 40% of the time and boys of the same age only 30%, it being understood that by seated we mean not only seated on a chair but also all the other forms of being seated that we have just seen in the pictures, that is, squatting on the knees and on the heels, etc. The girls were seated on a chair only 25% of the time, while the boys held that position only 10% of the time. While moving from place to place, the girls had a greater tendency to jump and run than the boys.

No marked differences in movements were observed between the different levels of intelligence, except that very gifted children seemed to prefer standing while working.

It is quite evident that healthy children of the ages examined have a great need for movement and this must be satisfied if we wish to encourage their complete development as growing biological organisms. The greater mobility and frequency of changes of movement with boys, as well as the numerous prone positions they assume, is unquestionably due to the fact that they mature physically later than girls. From the moment of their birth the girls are ahead of the
boys in skeletal development and at the age of six years this progress is a whole year in advance over boys of the same age. The fact that the boys chose occupations of such different kinds – the boys, mobile occupations; the girls, quiet occupations – must be due not only to the traditional principles of education in our country, but also in large part to the physical differences pointed out. To a certain degree, this might also be explained by the unrefined habit of preschool teachers of allowing the boys to monopolize more space for their construction games, running vehicles, etc. And so, in future study experiments should be made with the use of equipment which would encourage particularly girls to engage in spontaneous mobility, such as effects for dressing up and disguising, attractive doll carriages. Such a study should be made in quarters sufficiently large in order for both boys and girls to engage simultaneously in mobile games.

An important objective of future studies is, in general, to establish the optimum size of preschool quarters for children of different ages and to ascertain experimentally the most appropriate equipment. We should give special thought to the furniture.

Since I began to publish findings from the study of movements, I have been approached concerning this question by numerous teachers, professors of gymnastics and architects. They point out the phenomenon so prevalent at present of "bad back" and all sorts of posture defects, attributing it to the fact that children during the growing age are compelled to remain so long without moving. To be sitting in an armchair is, according to our culture, the correct manner of being seated, but there are other cultures where, instead, one must be squatting with the legs crossed or otherwise, and there posture defects are less wide-spread. In particular, small children in our country are frequently seated on chairs that are too high. Their feet hang down and do not reach the floor, while at times the table may be too high, obliging them to raise the shoulders in order to work. Under these conditions, the angle of vision is also distorted. If the child is seated as this little girl is in this picture, the result will be a strong pressure on the soft parts of the thighs against the seat that it will cause a stasis and after a while the legs will assume a cyanotic colouring. To remain seated, for example at school, when one is so badly seated is not easy, to be sure.

In the preschool institutions it is not quite so vital if the furniture is not ideal in shape or size, since children of preschool age have much more freedom to change position. Nevertheless, from the standpoint of preventive hygiene it is important, on the one hand, to measure the furniture found at present in the kindergartens and intended for the different age categories and, on the other hand, to take the corporal measurements of a relatively large number of children of these age categories in order to arrive at pieces of furniture of the proper dimensions and proportions. Following up this study of movements, we are just now in the process of drawing up such an inventory throughout Sweden. This inventory has already shown that in our country the furniture generally has need of being modified. In fact, the pieces of furniture are too high and there are too few different sizes in the same children's section. In view of the fact, however, that the length of the body both among four-year-olds, and among six-year-olds varies up to twenty centimeters, children of the same age category need a choice of at least five different sizes of furniture.

The findings of our study enable us, moreover, to establish the average area necessary for a group of children of a certain stature in each age category by calculating the respective number of children simultaneously standing to work, seated, lying down or moving about, as well as the space occupied by each child in the different age categories. The ideal seems to be a free area sufficiently large for one or several gymnastic apparatuses, trapeze, rope ladder, rings, bars, fixed pole, mats, etc., and light furniture that can easily be stacked and moved by the children themselves, if need be, and which is adapted to the size of each child.

Considering the fact that children gladly remain standing to work, it is desirable to have, in addition to the tables, some drop-leaf tables against the wall at elbow level. It is also desirable that the children be free to move about not only inside the classroom, but also between the classroom and the playground, which must likewise be in accordance with the requirements of modern psychology.

The observations made on the mobility of children of six years old lead us necessarily to school beginners and the passage from the preschool institution or the home to the elementary school.

In fact, if children of six years old have the great need observed in this study of changing position often and if we know, in addition, that growing children do not as a rule choose spontaneously, except during their years of puberty, to work for long hours quietly seated, it must be considered that it is against nature to require children from the age of seven to remain quietly seated for 45 minutes at school. It is probable that many defects of posture, and school and home problems resulting from this, such as dislike of school, fidgetiness, difficulty in concentrating, "playing hooky", difficulty in reading and writing and very bad marks which disturb the family's emotional climate, would disappear, if the school environment were organized on the same lines as that of the preschool institution, allowing more freedom of movement and varied working positions. The boys, especially, would be more at ease if they were given the opportunity for mobile activities. The elementary school in Sweden in its present form favours the girls, who are more ready for work while seated. How is it in other countries?

In conclusion, I would like to suggest, for the discussions to follow on mobility during games, the following subjects.

1. Little children are, first of all, biological organisms in process of development and, as such, they have great need of self-regulated movements. Do the preschool institutions in the countries represented here take this factor sufficiently into account? Do they allow the children to move freely inside the premises? Does the attitude of the teacher permit this? Do the requirements of the competent authorities permit this? Do we have the equipment which would permit it? Do we have sufficient space for this purpose, or is it rather considered good to remain quietly seated and bad to move about?

2. Do we take into account sufficiently the difference between boys and girls with respect to mobility in order not to reprimand the boys for having such a need to move, and not to oblige the girls prematurely to remain quietly seated for too long a time?

3. What has been accomplished in the countries represented here in the matter of studies on the mobility and the stature of children, as well as on the dimensions and the furnishings of the quarters in proper proportion? If such studies have been made, have the results had practical consequences manifested in rational accommodation and furniture? Such studies should be undertaken in different countries in view of the fact that the children's builds differ very often and that, furthermore, the size of groups of children varies from country to country.

4. Do we give preschool teachers during their training sufficient knowledge of the child's physical development and his need for movement, as well as on the dimensions of the furniture and the proportions of the premises appropriate to
different age categories? Or have we rather failed to give them such fundamental knowledge?

5. Since preschool children become school pupils, do we try to influence the schools in our respective countries to take into consideration that healthy children are also restless children?

6. Since we know that educational psychology must be based in all countries on the facts established by the scientists of child development, what can we do everywhere to encourage scientific research in our field?

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SYMPOSIUM ON PLAY IN DIFFERENT SETTINGS

The Child’s play at home

Dr. Hannah Fischer

All of you present at this Conference have presumably had to occupy yourselves, to a greater or lesser extent, with the problem of the child’s play in connection with your work. The fact that it has been chosen as the main subject to be discussed shows the importance ascribed to it. Its manifold variety and dynamic attributes, derived from the developmental process, that the child passes through, make this sphere of life fascinating, but create at the same time the greatest obstacle to its comprehension. Allow me to quote the well-known psychologist, Karl Bühler, who in his book on “The Mental Development of the Child” puts forward the opinion that the child acquires in his play “the fundamental capital it needs for its life.” In this sense he stresses the extraordinary importance attributed to this sphere of the child’s life from the point of view of human development.

We have already had the opportunity to have a number of very valuable lectures on fundamental problems of the child’s play perceived from different angles; we have gone deeper into these problems in the debates and discussion. May I therefore assume that the principal facts and aspects of child’s play have been exposed, and may I therefore start immediately on the topic I have been asked to speak on: “The Child’s Play at Home.” Since there is only a relatively short time, I have tried to pick out the main points, hoping that the following reports as well as the discussion at the end of this morning will round off the picture.

In dealing with this topic the first and foremost question that presents itself to the mind must be: What kind of a family is it we are speaking of?

Is there such a thing as a “standard family”? If it exists, what are its main features? Everybody working with children must necessarily have contact and thus gather experience with their respective families. If you look closer into it, you find that there is no such thing as a standard family, in spite of a certain tendency to uniformity. That would be a problem worth going into, but I can merely touch on it here, taking into account its effects on the child’s play.

The home of the family and its near surroundings form the background that influences and determines to a great extent the play of the child. Take one, for instance, that lives in the heart of a great city; it grows up in surroundings hostile to children, in close, crowded, noisy surroundings. Even though this child possesses the same healthy impulse to activity, the same natural inclination for active play, what possibilities has it for their realisation?

Machinery of modern times is far too complex for the comprehension of a small child. The city child has very little opportunity to gather actively the experiences that form his basic capital for a whole lifetime. On the other hand it is flooded with effects and impressions, that on account of their overwhelming complexity it cannot cope with properly. On the other hand, it very often lacks the right opportunities of learning to understand the simple facts of life. Thus an intelligent little four-year-old spoke to me very competently about rockets; he also knew all about the different makes of cars. But he was not able to describe a horse to me, nor tell me anything about it. Now it is certainly not essential that a child must know about horses, but I think you will understand what is meant by
this example. It is the simple facts of life that help the child to find his orientation and slowly make his way into this world. The simple facts of how things are made and how things grow can be grasped only by actual, live experience at a young age. Yet animal life has become strange to our city children. The little four-year-old, who dreams of rockets, whose head has been stuffed with a lot of superknowledge that he cannot digest, is not a happy boy! He is one-sidedly trained for technical facts and details, but cannot devote himself to play, nor persevere in it; he is not interested in books because he does not know what to make of them. You may not be surprised to hear that although little Walter's home lacks all comfort, his parents have acquired a television set. The little boy is permitted to watch regularly. “That is the only thing that keeps him occupied and quiet for a time,” his mother told me.

How differently the small child grows up in country surroundings. Although modern machines and technical science have also brought about deep and fundamental changes of the economic life of the village, its impact on family life has not been as far reaching and serious as in the great cities. Yet though the country child as a rule possesses only few toys and can, generally speaking, not work with pencil and paper before school age, still it grows up in intimacy with nature and learns to understand first of all the simple facts of life — simple meaning here primary and easy to understand. I had the opportunity to watch a little boy of three playing on the front steps of a farmhouse and was absolutely fascinated by the serious and competent manner in which he copied all the actions, gestures and explanations his father uses when putting the horse to the cart. His horse was a poke and the door mat the cart.

This confrontation of town and country influence on early education, since it is kept so brief, creates a black and white impression. In reality not all is black on the one hand, and all white on the other side. Between these two extremes lies the great number of cases tinged in lines of gray. I have tried to look up literature on this point, but a comparative study of children's games in city, small town, and village surroundings has not been done in our time. It might prove very interesting to attempt such a study, as it would show clearly the effects of modern society on child development. For my part, I do not have the intention of singing a hymn of praise on country life and condemning all children growing up in cities. But I wish to stress the fact that the natural conditions for the development of the small child's play are generally more favourable in the country, because there is more calm and tranquility, more freedom of movement for the child and more closeness to life.

However, the clock cannot be put back again, development cannot be stopped, and therefore, we must make it our task to find ways and means to create artificially satisfactory substitutes for what has been lost in our cities.

Now the play of the child grows and develops not only according to the external conditions of life which prevail in the family that it was born into. The material surroundings, although they are very important, are not alone decisive. The attitude of the parents toward play from its very early beginnings as well as the position a child occupies in its family are also of the utmost importance.

The attitude of the parents toward play may be active or passive. To evaluate active as good and passive as bad would be completely wrong, however. To be active means merely to be doing something about it; but the crucial fact is not that parents are active, but how they are acting! By being interested, without necessarily intervening, by closely watching without interfering, by putting the objects that the baby, toddler or infant needs to occupy himself according to his developmental stage, at his disposal at the right time, one can actively promote the child's play. The growing child needs little adventures and opportunities to gather experiences, sometimes he needs a little support and suggestions to help him on. It is the right measure of activity, that decides! We shall now parents who think that they must continually be doing something for or with their children; in reality they only curb their children's games by interfering too much. This often happens to parents who have fixed ideas on education. If their children do or cannot conform to these ideas, as may be the case with so-called slow children, or else handicapped or oversensitive ones, to quote only a few examples, the difficulties resulting will also have great impact on the play activities of these children. If the spontaneous play activities are additionally restricted or too much interfered with, the children are robbed of an excellent means of expressing their difficulties and of helping themselves to overcome them. Even if this happens with the best intentions on the part of the parents, the children often react with nervous symptoms, which are apt to impair the healthy play activities of which they are in particular need.

With regard to the passive parents, a number of them take the child's play for granted; they accept it, because the child obviously enjoys it. They even tolerate a certain amount of disorder in connection with it, but all without realizing its value and importance. Rather by instinct than in conscious awareness they let the child play happily, often because that is the best way of getting peace and quiet.

Fortunately only comparatively rarely does one meet parents who absolutely lack all sense as well as instinct as to what children need to develop healthily. They do not grant them peace and quiet, nor space nor time to settle down to play. The superficiality and unsteadiness created by such restlessness is a mortgage that will bear its consequences throughout the child's life.

In order to round off the picture the importance of brothers and sisters, of the position a child occupies in his family must also be mentioned as a decisive factor influencing his play. The baby tries to find out about his own body in play, he is all in all and begins to put forth his feelings exploring his immediate neighbourhood. But he does not need a partner of his own age for these games. Growing up, however, he reaches a stage, the so-called "golden age of play" when age-class sympathy becomes increasingly stronger. The child now demands to have a partner of his age to play with, for certain kinds of games are becoming more and more important that can only be realized jointly, especially imaginative play. "Only" children are necessarily at a disadvantage in this respect, because they lack the natural play group in their family. The first play grounds that the child acquires his initial important experiences of community life. If brothers and sisters do not exist in a family, the parents should strive to find an adequate substitute for them, by regularly inviting other children, or else take the child to a nursery school.

I have tried shortly to outline a few problems in connection with the play of the child in his home. The importance of the family home as the first stage for his play cannot be over emphasized, primary not only in the chronological sense but also according to the scale of value. Be it in a city, a small town or else in the country, the entire constellation of the surrounding conditions influence the play situation to a great extent, determine its concrete contents and are thus of great significance for the formation of the child's personality. The attitude of the parents to play, whether they are actively supporting or curbing it, or passively tolerating or restricting it, is a further important factor. Thirdly, the other members of the family, especially brothers and sisters, play a significant role in this important sphere of the child's life.
We know that many theories in the field of education have to be rediscovered by each generation in turn. Place, circumstances and the people involved in an educational act are never quite the same again, the translation from theory into practical education is ever dependent on new facts and figures. Before concluding this little talk I would therefore like to outline, what from my personal experience as a nursery-school teacher as well as child psychologist, I consider to be important demands.

In the name of play:
1. The child needs a quiet atmosphere to settle down to play. If it is continually disturbed by outside claims and stimuli, his play will become superficial, unsteady and shallow. It will lose much of its value for the child’s development.
2. The child needs a certain amount of space in order to be able to move and occupy himself freely, without being hampered by other people or himself disturbing others by his activity.
3. The child needs a daily rhythm, which provides increasingly, as it grows older, long uninterrupted periods of play. If the little boy or girl goes to a nursery school during the day time, a quiet play hour should still be regularly observed every evening.
4. The child needs the right kind of toys to play with, real tools for play. It may wonder at mechanical toys, expensive dolls, that can walk, etc.; it will like to have them, but it cannot do much with them.

Not too few, but not too many, just the right number of play things suited to his stage of development should be placed on shelves or in a chest of drawers, in such a manner that the child himself can manage them and keep them tidy all by himself.

By discussion, publications, exhibitions and similar means parents should be advised about the choice of the right kind of toys. Their attention should be drawn to the great educational value of so-called “worthless” play material, that can be used also for little handicrafts in so many ways. Such propaganda should in time help to hold up the flood of entirely worthless toys offered for sale everywhere.

5. The child needs stimulation and the sincere interest of his parents in the little events of his life. These little events can supply new impetus, set new aims to his play. By their live interest and attentive sympathy parents can do more to safeguard and strengthen the mutual bond between them and strengthen their children than by overhearing them with toys and expensive presents.

Let us teach the parents to understand the importance of their children’s play, and they will be able to understand their children better. Let us show them what a fine instrument they have at their disposal. By observing the play of their child closely they can measure his well being and follow-up his healthy development.

A few weeks ago I read the following little story in a weekly magazine. A man came on a visit to his friend, who lived in another town. Going for a walk they passed a playground, where the year before our man had watched the children at their play. Now it was empty. “Where are all those children, who played so happily here last year?” he asked his friend. “They are all sitting in dark rooms,” was the reply. “The windows are tightly shut, for they are watching television. And what do you think they are watching on the screen? Little children playing on a playground, in the bright sun.”

We know that only by active play does the child acquire the fundamental capital it needs for life. We must make parents fully aware of their responsibility in this respect.

Play in the Kindergarten

Staia Jelić

Play is the central problem of pedagogic practice in the kindergarten, because it offers every possibility for the development and education of the pre-school child, for observation of all aspects of the young personality and of the direction of its development, upon which all further educational activities should be based.

We want the kindergarten to be the place of free and gay play for children, to be the place where children will, in the ecstasy of play and in the company of other children of the same age, live and experience their childhood, where play will provide them with full possibilities of development and education, so that in the kindergarten the right of the child to play is exercised to the highest possible degree.

One of the central problems arising from the above requirements is the need to approach play in the pedagogic practical work in kindergartens, from the aspect of the indivisible unity of children’s perception and play, which are mutually conditioned.

Poor play, which we do not wish to have in our kindergartens, results from the poor perceptual life of the child, issuing in play that does not involve any deep educational values.

So far as intellectual development through play is concerned, attention should be directed towards satisfying the child’s desire for knowledge in a concrete way so that he can see and perceive the characteristic features of objects and phenomena, and preserve an integrated impression of the whole, which makes it possible for him to play imaginatively, to define his conceptions precisely, to form ideas, and to direct his knowledge independently in the course of play. In such situations created in the course of rich play, new ideas appear, which often result in new needs for knowledge, so that play, in the true sense of the word, contributes to the development of the child’s intellectual capacities.

The richness of children’s plays, representing the contents of family life in their parents’ home, is the result of an integral notion of everything that is understandable for the child in its parents’ home and that is, consequently, interesting.

Conditions under which children have acquired their knowledge in their parents’ home indicate the conditions that we should strive to create in the kindergarten, when new knowledge should be presented to children so that it becomes their real possession and has a bearing on their intellectual development in the process of play.

In order to create such conditions for the acquisition of knowledge in the kindergarten, it is of prime importance to supplement the individual new contents acquired by means of observation, pictures, talks, stories, etc., rather than load the child’s mind with facts which he would have plenty of time to learn in later life. In this way the knowledge of the contents will become fuller, richer, and will thus enable the child to imagine its play, to create a role.

When the child has created a game he wants to play it as much as possible. Through play he develops his speech in conjunction with his thinking, since his
speech is the realization of his thoughts, just as are his movements, and the toys he uses. The teacher should leave the child free in play, not restrict it by his logic; his leadership in play consists in the healthy formulating of knowledge that the child expresses through the richness of its imagination.

In understanding we find the unity of knowledge and relationships. In the consideration of objects or phenomena, the child simultaneously forms its relationship which in turn directs its behavior in reflecting knowledge in the course of its play. Directing children's interest and their aspirations towards moral and ethical values contained in the contents (which should, for the purpose, be carefully selected by the teacher) helps in forming the positive traits of the child's personality, his relationships, by which he directs with high fervor, characteristic of his age, all his actions, living them through again and thoroughly in the course of play.

In his efforts to form a MAN, the teacher follows the child's play in order to see in what direction it develops; and play provides him with invaluable data for his further educational work.

An inquiry carried out in our country produced interesting information concerning the reflection of new social relations in children's play under the influence of their life within and outside their families and in the kindergarten. The inquiry was conducted by the teachers of the Nursery Teachers Colleges in Ljubljana, Zagreb and Belgrade, and sufficient information was obtained to be used in setting up the theses.

The inquiry indicated that children link their plays with the contents from their parents' home, introducing the wealth of family relations and parents' attitudes towards children. The case of the child beating the doll becomes less and less frequent now, but we older teachers remember that in earlier times this was a regular feature in plays with dolls. Boys now agree to wash the dishes, even assign the job to themselves, go to the market with a basket, take the doll for a walk. In moving plays, there are no difficulties in their dancing the reel by the side of a girl. They constructed nice buildings with explanation: "For people to live better". Children like a Negro doll just as well as a white one, etc., which all reflects the life of the family and the teachers' performance in the selection of contents intended to widen children's knowledge.

Time does not allow me to enter into a deeper analysis of the educational value of play, but there are a few more problems that I would like to enumerate.

A special kind of play in the kindergarten is represented by didactic material and toys. They are justified in the education of children only if they are really games and toys and not the apparatus for drilling this or that intellectual skill. Plays involving movements, either accompanied by singing or not, can be termed real play only if the activities the teacher taught children in the kindergarten appear also on the playground, in the courtyard when a few children are gathered, just as in olden days play through movement used to appear at any place and was handed on from generation to generation because it was play in the true sense of the word.

The kindergarten provides the child with the company of other children of the same age, in which and through which the cultivation of positive personal traits and the correction of the negative ones is best done. Collective children's play based on common experience and life in the kindergarten depend very much on the teacher. To such games teachers should pay special attention, because they are of the greatest significance in education; they encourage agreement among children, teach them to co-operate, to harmonize their interests with those of others, to live and act in society.

Equally important for the development and education of the child is its individual play, and the kindergarten should provide adequate facilities in this respect.

Play requires toys. They are an important factor of education and should be recognized as such. We could discuss good or bad toys, but there is a phenomenon on the toy market that could easily creep into kindergartens. There is a tendency to represent by toys everything in existence, to represent material and spiritual goods created by man. The whole "world in miniature" is produced in which the child is only an owner and consumer of the goods and is not required to create anything. An abundance of such toys in the kindergarten would check children's creative powers; so toys should represent only certain of the elements of various manifestations of life and should allow the child to create, to transform, to imagine and solve problems connected with those elementary forms. This requires building, construction and other material, which is not expensive.

In the kindergarten, toys should be carefully arranged, so that play can develop.

Play also requires space. Group play or collective play may break down for lack of space, which should not be allowed, since they have a deep educational value.

Space must also be provided for individual play, to allow the child the undisturbed realization of his ideas, to enable him to construct his building according to his own purpose. Some materials make for more noisy play while others make for quieter activities. One child would turn the pages of a picture-book, while two others would make noise with hammers, because they need an aeroplane to play with. Adapted old buildings used as kindergartens often have advantages over new ones which provide only one large room for a group of children. Old buildings have nooks, holes and corners, corridors in which children's play can develop unobstructed, in peace, intimately and warmly.

The new tendency today is to break up one single play-room into numerous corners for play; kindergartens are built on the concept of two rooms for a group of children, one room being larger and the other smaller for some kinds of play. Corridors are utilized and recesses, for in modern conditions, the kindergarten should protect the child from permanent attacks by the radio and television, traffic and advertisements, to provide him a peaceful corner where he can sense the feeling of being a child.

By accumulating new elements into kindergarten rooms which are overcrowded, space is denied for the play for which the new elements are added. The problem of space applies also to playgrounds of kindergartens. Children need space for lively play in the open air and intimate corners on playgrounds where they can play in small groups or individually. Playgrounds for kindergartens should be equipped as separate rooms of the kindergarten in the open air. Playgrounds for special groups are possible if they can be linked with the room belonging to the group.

New furniture is often more trouble for children and teacher than it is a joy. Children are checked by warnings and prohibitions, so that they become slaves of the furniture. Nice but practicable furniture is a necessity for the kindergarten, a necessity for children's play.

Play requires time. A plan should be made for children's time in the kindergarten so that the interests of play do not collide too severely with the interests of the required discipline.

But the role of the kindergarten is not confined only to children's play in the kindergarten itself. It has ample opportunities to help parents understand children's
play properly and to have a proper attitude towards it. Nursery school teachers often have trouble with parents who ask that children should not get dirty while playing in the kindergarten. The problem can easily be solved by special clothes for the kindergarten, but parents should be convinced that clothes should not be an obstacle to children's play; clothes should be practicable, easily washed and cleaned. We should pity the child who is taken to the playground in his best clothes!

Some parents are rather sensitive if the child gets scratched or if his nose bleeds a little. At home, they do not pay too much attention to such incidents, but with regard to the kindergarten they are apt to exaggerate. All such ideas are to the detriment of play.

In cooperation with parents, through individual talks, group meetings, lectures, film shows, toy exhibitions, etc., the kindergarten can influence parents to understand children's play properly.

Particularly useful are consultations with parents before holidays when children are given toys. The nursery school teacher can give the best advice. She knows the child's capacities best, its aptitudes and interests; thus she can advise parents on the selection of toys for the particular child and save them wasteful expense, ensuring that the child will receive the toy that will give a pleasant surprise and which he wants and can use.

In our country, the kindergarten plays an important role in spreading the understanding of the importance of children's play and the good toy also among those parents whose children do not attend the kindergarten. It achieves this through its cooperation with various social organizations engaged in social activities.

All children are entitled to play. As nursery teachers, we can contribute a great deal towards the realization of this human right of every child.

Play on the Playgrounds
Lady Allen of Hurtwood

Material poverty has to some extent been conquered but for many children there still remains emotional poverty. Modern civilisation interferes with a hard and heavy hand in the world of children's make-believe, fantasy, imagination and their creative instincts. In our passion for tidiness and order we are in danger of sweeping away much of the shadow and mystery that lend enchantment to the play of children. In towns the gardens are fast disappearing, streams are hidden in the sewers, hills and mounds are levelled out, the good earth is buried under concrete and the trees are not for climbing.

We have destroyed much that was charming for children, in and around their homes. In our huge industrial towns with their mammoth blocks of flats there are no longer any delicious dark attics under the rooftops, no cupboards under the stairs, no unused corners either inside or outside their flats, no small niche where a child can be entirely by himself, and create his own world, no small place which belongs to him and to him alone and where he can keep his treasures. It is not by chance that children are fond of building small dark huts in the adventure playgrounds where they can feel entirely sheltered in a secret world, where they can dream. One salvation that remains to them is that we should bring some imagination and understanding into their playgrounds.

Play is not a trivial thing; it is the business of childhood. It is the means by which they learn to think and to feel. It is the basis of all later learning and living. When a child's curiosity is checked, when his interest in machines, earth, animals, people, flowers and trees is limited by his living conditions, this precious curiosity is crushed and may never emerge again in later life. He needs to share these experiences in companionship with other children of his own age.

Few urban homes these days can offer the opportunities that should be found on a widely varied playground.

Children, like adults, need a great variety of different opportunities for play. The modern child in an urban society has little freedom to choose. He should be free to choose how to play, when to play and where to play. Some children like organised games, some fixed equipment, some prefer games of fantasy and make-believe. One day they will enjoy one kind of play and on another day they will prefer something quite different. We must be able and willing to provide many different kinds of opportunity.

The familiar playgrounds of asphalt and mechanical equipment, are devoid of beauty and have no opportunity for experiment. They call for no imaginative or mental effort and no developing skills. These sterile playgrounds are a tragic symbol of our deeply rooted urge to control, direct and limit the natural instincts of children. It is not surprising that children find more fun and more continual interest in the street, the derelict buildings or the scrap heap.

The ideal playground should be able not only to attract children from the streets but be able to retain their interest. All children at one time or another seek access to an environment where they can find commonplace materials. To dig in the earth, to experiment with water, to learn the qualities of fire and how
to master it; to have materials with which to build a home, to use strong tools.
to have paint and to model with clay. They must have space and freedom to
develop their own games and their own work, in their own time and in their own
way; freedom to make mistakes without censure, to take and overcome risks, to
destroy or to create as they wish. "Do not praise me for what I have made or
how I have made it, but for my desire to find out and to create."

All children have spontaneous gaiety. Society finds it difficult to face the fact
that the adventurous "naughty" children enjoy themselves most. A free approach
to play may seem to many adults to be dangerous, both morally and physically.
In reality, the child or adult with a free, brave, self-imposed discipline is the
happy person with an innate sense of decency and we need not fear them.
Grown-ups who impose on the young a string of negatives are the enemies of
children. "No, you must not do this, it may be dangerous; you must listen to me
for I know the answer; you must not do this or that because I say you must not."
These grown-ups will cripple the precious freedom of the individual who wants
to find his own answers. They are also in danger of creating weak adolescents
who will always give glad submission to the orders of others.

The quality of the playgrounds we give our children are an indication of our
respect for their individual freedom.

(This talk was illustrated by colour slides.)

Special Program Features

I. Discussion Groups

An important part in Assembly meetings was the discussion of the principal papers
presented at the Assembly. For this purpose, discussion groups and leaders of the
groups were designated before the Assembly began so that members of the con-
ference could choose the group in which they wished to participate. Following are
the names of the discussion group chairmen:

Leader, Miss Hazel Gabbard (United States)
Chairmen:
  Group 1. Miss Mabel Denny (Great Britain)
  Group 2. Mr. Svein Stensassen (Norway)
  Group 3. Dr. Maria Schouwenaars (Belgium)
  Group 4. Miss Olive Dodd (Australia)
  Group 5. Miss Ursula Gallusser (UNESCO)
  Group 6. Dr. Viola Therian (U.S.A.)
  Group 7. Mme La Roch (France)
  Group 8. Mme Staša Jelić (Yugoslavia)

These discussion group chairmen represented a wide range of nationalities and
backgrounds of experience in the education of young children. They also had
extensive language competencies, so that persons from several countries could
participate in a single group.

The discussion group chairmen met with Miss Hazel Gabbard early in the
deliberations of the Assembly and planned the conduct of the discussion groups.
The following general proposals were put in their hands:

The Way we Work Together in the Conference

Several types of sessions are planned for the OMEP Conference – general sessions
with a lecture or a panel; small discussion groups; talk-over groups; film
showings; trips to schools; OMEP interest groups and a business meeting. These
many kinds of meetings provide variety in the program and enable participants
at the conference to get acquainted, to exchange ideas with others and to learn
about childhood education in other countries.

The Small Discussion Groups

Following the general sessions and lectures the small discussion groups will
meet. Each person will be assigned to a group. The small group will provide an
opportunity to discuss ideas presented in the lecture and to raise questions about
points of interest as well as those needing clarification. There can be a give
and take by all members. It is a time to do some serious thinking together and
gain new insights. The small discussion groups will help to unite the conference
and give greater meaning to the theme – Play.
What makes a Good Discussion Group?

The group members discuss a subject or problem of common interest. In the discussion each person
– hears how others interpret the subject,
– hears how the issues involved are identified,
– hears questions raised that bring out important facts,
– helps the group arrive at some general principles as guide posts.
The discussion can be stimulating and a lot of fun.

How a Discussion Group Works.

– A group functions best in an informal atmosphere. Arrange seating so each person can see every other person.
– The group gets acquainted. For example each person may first talk to his neighbor and then introduce him to the group.
– Everyone is encouraged to take part but there are no speeches.
– Discussion may begin with the leader or members making a comment or raising a question about the subject, asking what others thought.
– Issues and areas of most concern to the group are identified.
– The leader and group help to guide the discussion into productive channels.
– There is a summary of the major questions and ideas presented at the end.
A recorder in the group helps the group see where it is going.
– The group selects the three or four highlights of the discussion.

Suggestions for the Leader and Recorder.

The role of the leader is to remain in the background and at the same time see to it that the discussions progress along profitizable lines. He tries to bring out the various points of view, but does not take sides on an issue. He helps the group advance its thinking by pulling ideas together and raising questions. He maintains a patient, understanding attitude toward all.

The recorder selects the main ideas and questions in the discussion. He does not put down what each person says, only main ideas.

Discussion Highlights.

The discussion groups met immediately after each major lecture of the Assembly and concentrated their attention on the problems presented and suggested solutions. In each group a recorder kept a record of agreements reached, so that they could be presented to the symposium on Friday afternoon. Each recorder at that time presented a brief summary of the discussions held in group. Highlights of those reports are summarized below.

The lecture by Dr. Scarfe brought into focus new concepts on the meaning of play for the child and its importance in his education. Discussion was stimulated by the definition presented by the lecturer. "Play is the most complete education process of the mind and nature's magic device that each individual becomes educated." On the whole there was general acceptance of the definition but a few expressed the opinion that there was value in presenting distasteful tasks to children in order that they build wholesome personalities. However, there was general agreement that freedom to pursue natural curiosity, interests and activities if given guidance by adults who do not coerce or over-direct will result in wider knowledge, self-discipline and strength of character.

The role of the teacher in relation to play in nursery schools and kinder-
Dr. Sandel helped to bring an awareness of the intricate and complex learning through which children pass in developing coordination of their body movements. Research in this field of mobility gave insight into the stages of a child's growth. It was found that teachers, psychologists, and pediatricians working together could advance knowledge in many areas concerning child development, each making a contribution from his own field and experience.

Discussions in all groups identified many problems which could not be fully probed. Another conference is awaited for the exchange of views with colleagues in different countries. It was of special interest to find that preschool education carries many meanings, and the delegates found it challenging to note different concepts on aspects of education for young children, a wide range of children of different ages from two to eight, the use of many kinds of methods and techniques of teaching, and many stages of the development of education for young children depending on the country. The common concerns and interest in children was the connecting link in the discussions which opened opportunities to explore, share and seek new views on the education of children in many countries.

II. Workshops

It is recognized that the participants who come to the Assembly meetings have many problems about the operation of national committees and that they also have interesting things to report about projects which have proved useful. For that reason, three workshops were established: a) How to organize an O.M.E.P. National Committee, with Miss Lisa Smedberg of Sweden as leader; b) National Committee projects which have proved useful, with Mr. Jens Sigsgaard of Denmark as leader; and c) What our National Committee hopes O.M.E.P. will do during the next biennium, with Madame Suzanne Herbinière-Lebert of France as leader.

These workshops proved so interesting and so useful that time was found in the program for a second meeting. Much of the good of these workshops will come in better concentration on National Committee activities. In addition, the findings were used by the committee which drafted the program for the next biennium.

III. Talk-It-Over Groups

Participants in the World Assembly want scheduled time on the program for an opportunity to talk over important aspects of early childhood education and to contribute their experiences in various new and interesting developments. For that reason, the last two Assemblies have scheduled “Talk-It-Over Groups” for the purpose of providing this opportunity for exchange of experiences. The leaders of the groups and their topics at this Assembly were as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mrs. Wretlind Larsson (Sweden)</th>
<th>Play Parks</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Slen Hegeler (Denmark)</td>
<td>Toys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miss Muriel Judd (England)</td>
<td>Dramatic Play</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miss Ruth Kampf (Germany)</td>
<td>Musical Play</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miss Helen Vogt (Norway)</td>
<td>Handicapped Children in Nursery School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miss Anduze (France)</td>
<td>Training for Nursery School Teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mme Marie Libotte (Belgium)</td>
<td>Transition between Family and Nursery School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dr. Hannah Fischer (Austria)</td>
<td>Handicrafts in Nursery School</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is not expected that these “Talk-It-Over Groups” reach conclusions or do anything more than the name implies, that is to talk over a profitable field of development of early childhood education, with some experienced person to open up the discussion.

IV. Films on Pre-school Education

On two evenings during the Assembly films were shown on various aspects of childhood education and related services. The films were brought by the National Committees in Austria, England, the United States, and Yugoslavia. In each case the film was introduced by a representative of the National Committee and the discussion which followed concentrated on important aspects of the film and related problems. The films shown included “Play and Play Equipment in a Hospital”, “Playgrounds”, “Children’s Drawings and the Use of Creative Material”, “A Day in a Nursery School”, “A Cartoon for Children”, and “Therapy in a Hospital”.

The audiences at these film meetings were large, and interest was evident in the discussions which followed. The meetings were planned by Miss Phyllis Pickard and Miss Margaret Roberts. The equipment, which it is recognized had to be varied since the films came from different countries, was supplied by the Yugoslav National Committee and its cooperating groups.

V. Visits to Pre-school Institutions

The host country had made plans for the delegates to the conference to visit several types of institutions for pre-school children: day-nurseries, nursery schools and “Children’s centers” with day care for pre-school and school children. At the time of the visit the children were occupied with free play activities.

VI. Social Events

On the first evening of the World Conference the delegates attended a reception given by the Mayor of the Commune Upper Town. A program of national folk dances provided an evening of delightful entertainment. The richly embroidered costumes wore by the dancers depicting the dress of different Republics, the graceful and intricate patterns of the folk dance, the beautiful harmony of the voices accompanying the dancing made this an evening never to be forgotten. The delegates were welcomed by officials of the city and the National Committee of O.M.E.P. in Yugoslavia.

In the Town-palace, the Mayor of Zagreb entertained the delegates with a reception where delegates enjoyed a rich buffet and had an opportunity to become acquainted with the representatives of many countries. On the closing night of the Assembly a banquet was given by the Yugoslavia Committee and all joined in singing national songs before the evening entertainment concluded. Many had the opportunity to journey to the beautiful Plitvice Lakes as they departed for their homes, the culminating event of the Conference. The O.M.E.P. delegates were deeply grateful for the careful planning which had been done by the Yugoslavian Committee to make the World Assembly one of the best.
VII. Play Materials Exhibitions

Two splendid exhibitions of play equipment and materials for children were featured at the World Assembly and attracted much interest. The Yugoslavia National Committee displayed materials designed by teachers and tested before production and use in their nursery schools and kindergartens. A visit to the center where the equipment is made provided an interesting view of this fine project. Another exhibit of play materials from ULM, Germany, brought play materials from another country which had also been carefully designed and tested, for use with children up to seven.

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Canada: Dr. Neville V. Scarfe
Germany: Dr. Manfred Muller
India: Mrs. Hansa Mehta

Delegates and Participants at the World Assembly

(°denotes official delegates)

ARGENTINA:
°Larrosa, C. Angelita
°Petroni, A. Rembert
°Figuerosa, Maria Elisa

AUSTRALIA:
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°Dodd, Olive
McMahon, Olive
°Roberts, Margaret

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°Dietrich, Eva
Dolezal, Veronika
°Donner, Hermine
°Eckstein, Franziska
°Fischer, Hannah
Heilwax, Marie
°Kothbauer, Ernest
°Maister, Margarete
Marquart, Mathilde
°Mayer, Aurelia
Mihm, Marie
Spannswagner, Helene
Weller, Maria
Zeilener, Elfriede

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Brendel, Juliette
Broquet, Marguerite
°De Wynter, Yvonne
Feron, Denise
°Libotte-Loffet, Marie
Schouvelaar, Maria
Van Waevenberghs, Goethals
Verbist, Irma
Zwick, Jacques

BRAZIL:
°Lacombe, Laura

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CZECHOSLOVAKIA:
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Beranova, Kveta

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°Huici, Matilde

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°Hansen, H. J.
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Henriksen, Grethe
Høver, Anni
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Kristensen, Siri
Lond, Kirsten
Leegaard, Hanne
Lunn, Leif
Mielche, Inger
Møller, Gerda
°Nielsen, Nete
°Paallesen, Elizabeth
Petersen, Janne
Raa, Betty
°Sigsgaard, Jens
Sigsgaard, Marie
Siegmundt, Max
Stolten-Møller, Esther

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Brasile, Miss
Brasile, Miss
Loriga, Mariella

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Abbatt, P. 
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Bryan, D. E.
Butcher, L.
Denny, M. B.
Hefford, K. M.
Henry, M. M.
Hewitt, M. C.
Iltingworth, E.S.
Jewell, M. I.
Judd, M.
Langdon, R. M.
McMahon, O.
Molnar, J. M.
Pickard, P. M.
Radcliffe, K.
Scarce, E. H.

UNESCO:
Gallusser, Ursula

UNITED NATIONS:
Koo, Willy

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Dragic, Maria
Dresinger, Zora
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Jelic, Staša

Kamilova, Trajanka
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Kuljacić, Milena
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Lunacek, Slava
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Marinic, Tatjana
Markovic, Dragica
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Mihaljevic, Ljubica
Milencovic, Rada
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Ristic, Darko
Rudez, Anika
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Vogler, Mira
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Kroeger, Gertrude
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Pitzolla, Erich
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Stahl, Minnie
Wehmann, Ruth

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Weermeyer, Elisabeth

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Livnat, Ishbot Judith

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Buggle, Berit
Skar, Nore
Stard, Asa Gruda
Vogt, Helen

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Nordin, Inga
Sandels, Stina
Smedberg, Lisa
Wretland-Larsson, Stina

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Kuehn, N. H.

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Bauchner, Edna
Gabbard, Hazel F.