Habits of concentration are rooted deep in childhood

REPORT OF THE 9th WORLD ASSEMBLY
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Origins of O.M.E.P.

The birth of OMEP could be said to have taken place during March 1946 when Mrs. Alva Myrdal (Sweden) and Lady Allen of Hurtwood (Great Britain) met in Sweden 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 organisation 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 organisations and individuals to attend a World Conference of Early Childhood Education in Prague from August 26th to August 28th, 1948. This place and date were chosen so as to follow immediately on a World Seminar on Childhood Education, organised in Prague by UNESCO.

Eighteen countries, representing the five continents of the world, attended this first World Assembly of OMEP 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 organisation for mutual support and co-operation.

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 OMEP 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 Herbinère Lebert, France.

1952 Mexico City. The Social Role of Preschool Establishments for Young Children.
President: Madame Herbinère Lebert, France.

1954 Copenhagen. The Selection and Training of Teachers for Early Childhood Education.
President: Madame Herbinère Lebert, France.

1956 Athens. The Importance of the First Years of Life of a Child Living within and outside his Family Group.
President: Mr. Harold Flenemark, Denmark.

1958 Brussels. The Importance of Continuity and Unity in the Education of Young Children.
President: Mr. Harold Flenemark, Denmark.

1960 Zagreb. The Role of Play—Vital to Childhood.
President: Miss Bess Gooddykoonta, U.S.A.

President: Miss H. F. Gabbard, U.S.A.

OMEP, now 14 years old, is growing in strength and influence with eighteen active National Committees in: Australia, Austria, Belgium, Brazil, Canada, Chile, Denmark, France, Germany, Greece, Israel, Norway, South Africa, Sweden, United Kingdom, United States of America, Uruguay and Yugoslavia.

No person, organisation or country is excluded from membership of OMEP by reason of race, creed, nationality, or political opinion.
IX World Assembly of O.M.E.P

The Ninth World Assembly of OMEP was held in London at the Battersea College of Technology, July 16th to 21st, 1962. Thirty-two countries were represented by 401 registered participants and a number of distinguished guests.

At the opening session the delegates were greeted by the Right Honourable Sir David Eccles, K.C.V.O., M.P., Minister of Education, who extended the greetings of Her Majesty’s Government to the Assembly.

Miss Pickard, Chairman, welcomed the delegates on behalf of the United Kingdom National Committee and Dr. David Morris, Vice-Chairman, spoke on early childhood education in the United Kingdom. The World President, Miss H. F. Gabbard, spoke on the Task of OMEP.

During the course of the Assembly Her Majesty’s Government gave a reception to delegates at Lancaster House and a representative from each country was entertained to lunch at the House of Commons, Westminster. The Save the Children Fund also gave a reception at Crosby Hall, Chelsea. The London County Council arranged a very fine Exhibition of Children’s Work and Equipment, showing progressive learning from two to eight years.

Visits were arranged to Nursery and Infant Schools, Play Parks and Adventure Playgrounds. There were also excursions through London, a river trip to Greenwich, and on the last day a visit to the Royal Albert, Covent Garden.

Many films were shown from different countries, a feature much appreciated by delegates.

Each of the three main lectures was followed by discussion groups and a half hour return to plenary session with the lecturer. There were also Talk-it-Over Groups and participants could select which of these they would like to attend.

A Press Conference was arranged to precede the opening session, attended by officials from all National Committees who had been asked by the World President to prepare statements about work with young children in their countries. Resulting from this the Assembly was widely publicised in the press and the British Broadcasting Corporation gave a number of overseas programmes on information received.

Welcome from the United Kingdom National Committee

Miss P. M. Pickard, Chairman

It is my privilege to put into words for you the welcome of the United Kingdom National Committee. You have been much in our minds. It is a great relief to find that what were only names on many lists have indeed become real people—many already known to each other—in this fine building lent to us by courtesy of the Battersea College of Technology.

You will see from your list of participants that there are people from every continent in the world; from Canada to Australia and New Zealand, from Chili to Japan, from this country to farthest Africa. There are more than 300 participants from more than 30 countries, OMEP is, in fact as well as in concept, truly international.

The outline of our programme was arranged by your World Council. We have only arranged the details. Those of you who have attended any of our eight previous World Assemblies will know that the mixture of public lectures and smaller discussion groups enables us both to share ideas and to grasp the meaning of what we share.

Perhaps, of all people in our communities, the group which would most readily understand what we are trying to do would be the Civil Engineers. They know that man has no part in the future unless he concerns himself with good foundations. For more than six thousand years civil engineers have studied the nature of their materials and how best to ensure good foundations. Yet we educationalists must wait another 17 years before we can celebrate the centenary of the forming of the very first Psychological Laboratory—but this was not to begin with at all concerned with children. And we must wait even longer for the centenary of the discovery of how our minds can muddle our thinking by causing us to forget.

The last 70 years or so have brought forth a most astounding wealth of information about young children. They are not what we thought they were—they are far better and far worse. We were not doing with them what we thought we were doing. All too often, when we thought we were fostering their development we were in fact ignorantly hindering it. They can help themselves far more than we thought they could. But, when they need help, it is a far more expert help that they need than we ever dreamed.

OMEPI, with its international exchange of information and ideas about young children, has a very real contribution to make towards world peace, and this is why the United Kingdom National Committee wishes to make you most welcome.
Early Childhood Education in the United Kingdom

Dr. David Morris

The excellent document prepared by Miss Denny on "The Education and Care of Young Children in England and Wales" for this World Assembly has somewhat stolen my thunder for its contents are the very subject matter of my address to you. But although it shows accurately the structure and the provision of pre-school education in this country it has omitted to highlight the significance and importance of some of the statistical data, namely that there is only one place for every twenty-first child between the ages of three and five and that nineteen of these children have no opportunity of receiving nursery school experience.

We can be truly proud of the quality of our nursery school education in Great Britain which provides amongst the best for the healthy development of young children but it is quantitatively that we are sadly lacking. The Ministerial embargo of 1956 has meant a complete halt to any further expansion of Nursery School education and in fact for many different causes there are today some 23 fewer nursery schools than there were in 1957. The origin of this deplorable state of affairs comes from the national lack of conviction that nursery school education is an essential part of providing for the optimum development of our children and this lack of conviction is found not only amongst the administrators and the politicians but amongst educationalists. Until it is realised that pre-school education is as vital for children as vitamins are for health so long will we have to struggle in this way. The concept that nursery schools are needed only for poor children whose homes lack the facilities for play no longer holds as we know from the ever increasing number of private nursery schools where enlightened parents send their children.

As a Paediatrician I can look at teachers critically and objectively to appreciate their fine qualities and to try and understand some of their apparent defects. The new knowledge and understanding of children and how they function has slowly but surely become incorporated into the everyday life of the teacher: free play rather than organised class teaching; learning by doing rather than passive non-participation; permissiveness rather than strict rigid discipline; tolerance rather than strong subjective reactions; and of the better understanding of discipline as a means by which children acquire security from the firm authority they receive. The application of these new concepts has already been extended into other fields with rich benefits: I refer to the Brooklands experiment in which severely subnormal children were helped considerably by receiving nursery school experience measured out to their capacity to absorb it.

The World is a large place and custom varies from place to place reflecting the influence into the educational system. What OMEP does which gives it its unique quality is to bring many nations together to exchange ideas and in the process of hearing of others' experience and relating our own, we achieve a clarity of thought which can be acquired in no other way.

The Emotional and Social Development of Young Children

Dr. Anna Freud

I should first like to give an explanation of why I am here at all today. When Miss Pickard came to visit me about a year ago in order to invite me to speak at this Assembly, it was quite clear what her motive was: namely, that she felt that the right person to speak to you about the child's emotional and social development would be a psychoanalyst, since psychoanalysis is the discipline most concerned with fact-finding about these areas of the child's life. This seemed to me a very great compliment to psychoanalysis, and was something I could not let go by without answering. However, I still had many misgivings about appearing here. I thought I would probably need to give a lengthy introduction to my talk to make it helpful to you, and in this mood of concern I decided to listen to the Opening Session of this Convention. I therefore came along yesterday, and found, to my enormous relief, that all the necessary introduction was done for me already by yesterday's speakers, I believe I could have found no better words to introduce what I have to say than Miss Pickard's yesterday, when she said that dealing with the older child as compared with the younger child meant a turning away from logic and reason to the illogical and the irrational. I also echo your President's words, that the step from pre-school education to school education was a step over the most extreme and last frontier of education. This is exactly what I had in mind. I felt that my talk today would take you very much across this borderline, and that what we all have to do in training teachers for the young is to make them feel at home in this other country where reason and logic do not count, and where one must proceed according to different mental principles altogether.

Now for the detailed characteristics of the country of the small child and of the language that is spoken there. I have always been interested, when working with parents or with teachers, in the many misunderstandings that arise between them and their children. The parents and the teachers make arrangements for the child with the best intentions, based on external circumstances, based on an insight into the conditions, based upon reason and logic. But these are looked upon by the child in a very different spirit: namely, they are understood in terms of the child's wishes, fantasies, fears, and thereby are completely altered. The child may be sent to nursery school by the mother for excellent reasons, perhaps to avoid boredom at home. The mother may feel that the company of others would be good for the child at this particular stage of its development, because she herself is very busy with other matters. The child understands this as banishment from home. The mother, with the best intentions, makes plans for a term of hospitalization—for a tonsillectomy for example, or for some other necessary repair to the child's body. The child understands this as an attack on his body. Or the child has to be subjected to a diet, This means to him punishment and deprivation.
Struck by examples of this kind I have tried to look to our knowledge of children, in the hope that it would be possible to pinpoint the areas in which these grave misunderstandings between adults and children arise. I have found quite a number of them, and of these I want to present to you roughly four—four important points in which the child differs from us adults so that we have to relearn to understand the world of his emotions. But in this difficult task the parent or teacher there is one saving grace. Namely, that this way, characteristic of the child, is still somewhere alive in the adult also, only unknown, repressed, continuing to exist in a dark area. But this confronts us with the task of understanding such areas in ourselves; when this is done we shall find it easy to understand the child.

Let me give you four illustrations. We adults dream, and we also daydream. There is one important fact about our dreams and daydreams. Have you ever noticed that we are always the centre of that dream-world? We may apparently dream about other people, but when we look into it more closely it is always ourselves. We may daydream, but has anybody daydreamed about a neighbour having a wonderful experience in his life? Saving somebody, being acclaimed as a hero, amassing riches, and so on—it is always ourselves. What is left over in the adult in these rather isolated and dark areas is the functioning of the child, because this egocentric way is the way in which the child sees the world around him. There are no objective facts in the early years, only subjective ones. When the mother has a headache or when the teacher has a cold, it is not that the mother has a headache, the teacher a cold. It is that probably the child feels, "They are cross with me, I must have done something wrong." When the mother is ill in bed, the child feels, "She does not want to play with me today." When she expects a new baby, the child feels, "Why doesn't she lift me up any more? Evidently she does not like me." And I remember one patient in later years who could only talk of the mother's death in terms of: "When she deserted me..."

It is this egocentric way, that nothing happens in the world which is not immediately connected with the child's own feelings, wishes, experience, which makes it so difficult for us to understand the child. The feelings of other people do not count. When it rains, it probably rains to spoil the child's outing. When it thunders, it is probably because the child has done something wrong. The child never thinks, "It rains also for the people who have done everything right." When we find such beliefs in adults, we say they are superstitious. I am thinking of a specific adult who is quite convinced that when he goes on holiday it rains. I am quite convinced that this is left over from his childhood. To give you an example of not understanding other people's feelings: the children of my own little nursery school were on an outing with their teacher the other day, and when they got near to the school the teacher said they could run to the door of the nursery. But one little girl, who is new to the community, pulled the teacher's hand after they had started and said, "Tell that boy not to run so fast. I want to be first." What about the little boy who wanted to be first? That played no part in it. This is what we may call, without any criticism, the child's egocentric view of the world: it is natural to the child; it is natural for us to understand it; and it only ceases to be natural when the child does not outgrow it gradually in the years of nursery school age. So much for the first point.

Another point has more to do with the contrast between reason and unreason, logic and illogic. To start again with the adult, we all know that under the provocation of very strong feelings the adult can do anything, can commit crimes. Crimes passionels, for which a judge or jury will sometimes even make allowances, feeling that the emotion, the urge of that moment in that particular adult person was too great to be held down by the forces of reason, morality, convention. But again this is exactly the state in which we continually find the child. Here it is mostly the parents who misunderstand, who feel that the child has let them down. The child has understood so well that one should not do this or that; that cars on the road are dangerous; that strangers should not be accepted; that desirable toys should not be taken, or even touched, in a shop. The child has understood, but the understanding has not governed his actions. I think the great difference between ourselves and the children of nursery school age, or younger, is that not that they are so much less clever than we are, because they are quite reasonable. I think the difference lies in the fact that our reason is supposed to govern our behaviour; whereas with the young child reason may be present, but behaviour is governed by fears, wishes, impulses and fantasies. You in this room listen to me so patiently; perhaps I have something interesting to say, but imagine that my talk became very dull indeed. You would still sit there to the end of the hour, because this is what is done. But if you were members of a nursery school and I failed to interest you in the continuance of a story, you would drift away, some out of this door, some out of that; some would collect in a corner and do something else. No convention and understanding of the difficulties of the teacher or speaker would keep you in your places. It would be the cessation of the wish to listen which would govern behaviour.

When I still had the Hampstead Nurseries, of which our Chairman spoke so kindly, we had children from the baby stage—from ten days—until eight years, very much the age of the children in whom you are interested here. Our young nursery teachers and helpers used to take the children out for walks in London, and, as there were so many children, I said, "Take them on reins." But the teachers said, "Not our children. They know all about the traffic. They are only two or three, but they would be offended if you put them on reins." The child knows that one does not run into the road. But what if a visiting mother appears on the sidewalk on the other side of the road? I will guarantee that these clever children will run through the traffic to the mother, because what is stronger is the wish, and what is weaker is that moment is reason and understanding. Or let us say that a mother takes her child to the doctor, to the dentist. The child promises beforehand to be very good and very sensible, and has every intention to do so. Yet still he lets the mother down, as she says. He screams when the dentist approaches his mouth, because reason by that time has gone and behaviour is governed by fear.

There is another point here in which adults find it difficult to understand the level of the child's function. Adults have long term views, while children have short term views. This means that we can tolerate the postponement of our wishes, and it is only in states of high emotional tension and impatience that we have to act immediately and under impulse. But the child always has to act immediately: there is no postponement; there is no waiting period for the child, and the frustration that sets in when a wish is not fulfilled is enormous. This means that urgency of feelings and wishes is so much greater in the child than in the adult, and it makes nonsense of promises such as "We will learn that next year", or "In six months we will have an outing to this or that place," or "Just wait until
you are grown up.” These are phrases that are absolutely meaningless to the child, as meaningless as if one were promised something in adult life a hundred or a thousand years ahead.

This leads me to the third point. I think we as teachers, parents, and teachers of doctors do not make enough of the fact that all young children have a time sense very different from our own. As adults we measure time objectively and by the clock, which means that we know the length of an hour. Again it needs a state of extreme anxiety — waiting for somebody to arrive, sitting it out during a near relative’s operation — that makes time stretch endlessly, so that one hour, three hours, four hours could just as well be one hundred hours. It is only in states like these that we can understand the child’s experiences with regard to time. Parents say, “We only go away for the weekend, two and a half days — that is nothing.” Two and a half days’ separation in the life of a child of two or three is an eternity. It could just as well be two and a half months or two and a half years. One may say to the child who is crying in the nursery, “Never mind, your mother will come in an hour.” But an hour has sixty minutes, and every minute has sixty seconds. To a child it is an eternity. On the other hand, we say to the child, “You can still play for five minutes.” But the five minutes seem to the child only one, because he wants it to be longer. We treat the child on the basis of our time sense, when we should treat it on the basis of its own time sense.

Again I would give you an example from the Hampstead Nurseries, where we learned so much, because we had the opportunity of applying the knowledge gained in the complicated process of psychoanalysis to the apparently simple process of the upbringing of children. We had eighty children in those nurseries, fifty in one house and thirty in the other, broken up into groups and families as well. We could in war-time. We realised very soon in the nursery distress that you could cause to a toddler if you put the toddler down at the table and then go and get his food. The toddler cannot wait. So we thought “We will do it the other way round. We will put the food on the table and then we will bring the toddler to the food.” You have no idea what a revolution that meant in our nurseries. When you try to dress thirty little children in the morning and then take them to breakfast, what do you do with those who are dressed first? I have seen other residential nurseries where games are played with them until everyone is dressed, or where they even sing. Well, who wants to sing before breakfast? We made a breakfast room, with one young teacher in charge, and the children trickled in as they were washed, dressed, combed, and so on, and they received their breakfast as one does in a cafeteria. Again we saved enormous distress. It struck me at that time how much distress one could save children if one understood no more than their different sense of time. We have one little girl in our nursery who wants to be big, the whole time, because she has a bigger brother. It is a sign of her healthy personality. She asks over and over again, “When will I be big? Is it soon? Is it in half an hour?” We have a little boy who wants to stay and not be fetched by his mother, and who says to the teacher, “When will my mummy come?” The teacher says, “Do you want her to come soon, or do you want her to come for a long time?” He says, “I want to play. Is half an hour long?” He had no idea.

If you want a very impressive example of how different is the language of the child from the language of the adult in all these respects, I can give you no better example than the children’s understanding of sex life — that means of the difference between boy and girl, of what father and mother do together to produce a baby, and of the way in which babies are born. We have learned a good deal from watching children’s reactions in this respect, and, as you probably know, the first exhortations to parents not to feed children with stories about the stork or gooseberry bushes but to tell them the facts of life came from the psychoanalyst. What should also come from the psychoanalyst is the explanation of what the children do with these facts.

We have several children in our nursery at present who in the last six months have had younger brothers or sisters and who are therefore very much concerned with the birth of babies. Their parents, young and enlightened, and not too repressed, tell them exactly how it comes about. The children give lipid-service to it; they understand that the baby is in the mother and understand how boys and girls are made. But when you watch their play you realise that they do not understand it at all. For example, they blow on a brick and pretend that this makes a baby. Or they play “family” and, as Mummy and Daddy, pretend to go to bed at night. What emerge then are usually scenes of “messing each other up,” fighting, shooting, almost killing each other: love and violence seem to be inextricably mixed up with each other. Also they betray in play that according to their feeling all children should be boys by right, and that the girl’s body is really a broken one from which something is missing or has been taken off as punishment. In short, the child translates the real facts of the term which are appropriate to his immature mind and body, and these terms are very crude, primitive and brutal ones, resembling most nearly the content of certain fairy-tales. Therefore, whenever you want to convince yourself of the great difference between the child’s emotional language and the adult’s factual language, you find no better area than this particular one.

Let us assume now that we have helped the teachers to understand some of the child’s peculiarities, such as his egocentricity, his irrationality, his different time sense, the difference in his sexuality. But what then? After all, this is only the prerequisite for entering into an understanding of the processes of development that go on in the child as he grows towards maturity so far as his feelings and social sense are concerned. We have to find our way further, and for the purpose of doing so I offer you an example from another sphere of life. When I was still a teacher of schoolchildren — because that is how I started — I was very impressed by something I heard a grammar school boy say. He said, “School could be so pleasant if one were not always dragged along. Hardly have you learned how to add up then you have to learn how to subtract; and hardly have you found it easy to subtract when you have to do long division: or you learn enough Latin to read a very simple author — but are you left at that? Oh, no. You are dragged along to read the most difficult and complicated works.” But at the same time I listened to a clever little girl, who said she could really enjoy school. “If it were not so boring,” she said, “You are always expected to do the same thing over and over again, to wait until everybody has understood. Why can’t one go on to the next thing?” That made me think that it is not easy to fulfil children’s wishes: there are those who want to go ahead; and there are those who want to enjoy their achievements and be left in peace.

Since this happened teachers of schoolchildren all over the world have learned that intellectual development goes in stages: that you should neither hurry beyond
the stage, nor hold back below the stage of development of a particular child; that you should let everybody grow intellectually at his own pace. I think that this is a valuable piece of insight which you, as teachers of the very young, should take over from the realm of intellectual development to the realm of the emotions and of social growth. Here, too, there are stages the child has to master, through which he has to pass, and it is no good either hurrying him on where he cannot follow, or holding him back where he feels like a prisoner held down in an atmosphere which he has outgrown already.

In our analytical studies of children we have tried to establish such stages in various respects: stages in development of the relationship to the mother—which really means the bulk of the child’s earliest emotional development; stages in development towards companionship in school; stages in development from play with various kinds of toys, up to work; or the stages the child goes through in managing his own body, his feeding processes, his evacuation processes, looking after his own health, hygiene, etc. Watching step by step the development of young children in detail, I have become very impatient with the one-sided views of people, some of whom say, “Mother and child should be kept together just as long as possible. Do not separate them;” or those others who say, “Children need companionship. Try to get them out of the home as soon as possible. Have them in groups.” Either opinion is right if based on the child’s stage of development. Either opinion is wrong if based on no more than a sentimental attitude of the adults. Nowhere else would we dare to base the handling on sentimental attitudes. We could ask a paediatrician, for example, whether it would be right to decide the child’s diet on the feeling that mother’s milk is best until the child is six. “No,” the doctors would say, “we can give you so many examples that this would not be up to the requirements of the growing body.” Or it is as if somebody else said, “Cut out the mother’s milk and start the child on minced beef.” This may sound ridiculous, but it is exactly what we do regarding the emotional development of our children today.

You have probably in recent years heard a great deal about the gradual development of the mother-child relationship. I do not want to present that to you in detail today. I only remind you of the fact that very roughly we distinguish between three stages. Stage one is where mother and child are as we call a biological unit: they belong together, they satisfy each other; separation brings nothing except unhappiness. In the next stage it is the mother’s role to fulfill the child’s bodily as well as emotional needs, and the child feels towards her—love and hate, aggression, tenderness—according to the satisfactions or frustrations which she provides. Also at that time separation does no good because it creates enormous distress in the child. Then comes the third stage where the mother is loved by the child very much in the way in which adults love. That means that when she is absent or does not fulfill a present need, the child still retains a positive image of her inside himself: he remembers her as a person in her own right. From that time on he will tolerate separations from her. A simple formula like that—not so easy when you have to find it—will give you a clue as to when it is profitable for children to enter nursery school. But every entry into a community before that, though it may be necessary, is really a hardship. There is a great deal more to be said about that, but I will skip it for today.

What I still want to present to you is something that concerns the teacher even more: namely, the fact that here are similar stages in the child’s life which take him from the comparative isolation of the family relationships into community life. We all know what we want of children in the nursery school: that they enjoy their surroundings and make good use of them. But do we always ask ourselves: “What has to happen before they can do so?” In my present clinic we have the very good fortune that we can look after a small number of children from birth. We collect the mothers of the babies at the clinic during the first sixteen months to see the children on certain play afternoons—strictly with the mother. Then they enter our nursery school, so far as we can accommodate them, when they are three or three-and-a-half. This makes it possible to watch their growth towards companionship—not companionship with brothers and sisters, but companionship with children outside the family.

We have established roughly four stages. One where mother and child are together and are a unit, and whoever comes between them is a disturbance. For instance, if another child tries to climb on the lap of such a mother, he is pushed out of the way. These other children are not wanted. You can say that the child behaves a-socially, egoistically. After all, that is his way: he is a-social and should be at that age. That is stage one, where, as I have said, the other child is a disturbance, then comes stage two, where the other child becomes rather interesting. For instance somebody in the room has very grimly hair and all the children pass and just touch that hair a bit. But it is not the child; it is the hair that is attracting them. Or a child walks through the room pushing a doll’s pram and another child is in the way: the child pushes along as if the other child were a piece of furniture. If the child falls over, well, to the child it is a piece of furniture that has fallen over and somebody will come and lift it up again. This means that the other child at that stage is not treated as a human being. It is treated like something inanimate—almost like a toy. Teddy-bears are such very good playmates because you can do anything to them and they do not respond. The child throws his teddy-bear in the corner because he is angry. The teddy-bear suffers it, the child reclaims the teddy-bear, cuddles it and it is all right with the teddy-bear. That makes toys such valuable playthings. But at that stage children are treated in exactly the same way, and if a response comes from them it is unexpected. With our little ones aged between sixteen months and two years, you see on such occasions the surprise spreading on their faces as if a “teddy-bear child” had given a squeak or hit out. Then comes the next stage, where two children begin to be interested in the same toy, sometimes in a very conflicting way. I remember seeing two children of two and a half playing in our nursery school kitchen. One little boy was extremely intent in taking out all the cups and saucers from the children’s dresser and putting them on the table, and the other little boy was equally intent upon putting them back again. They played on for a good while, not noticing that their purposes were cross-purposes, until in the end some distress was caused, and they stopped. But this initiates a further stage where children become playmates: namely, they ask, invite, use each other to carry out play projects as we have them in all nursery schools. The project may be to build a garage for a car, and one little boy may come running up to another saying, “Who will help me build a garage for this car?” and they may play for half an hour or an hour and build something beautiful; or they may have some big project involving sand, water, trains, tunnels, etc., and co-operate beautifully—not on the basis of personal friendship, but on the basis of a common aim. That is an extremely important stage in the child’s life. When the aim is achieved the group falls apart; the children go their own ways again.
This in its turn initiates the fourth stage, where the other child is valued, not only as a playmate but as a person in his own right: somebody to be loved, hated, admired, competed with, chosen for friendship. I do not know what your own observations are, but we in our nursery school have observed several couples of this kind, sometimes boy and girl, sometimes two boys, sometimes two girls, with real personal feeling and liking for each other. We see distress when they are separated.

What is interesting to me is that you can no more make a child in stage two, where other children are treated as toys, behave like the children in stage three or four than you can do the other way round. There are processes of growth and adaptation which are achieved gradually; just as it is not possible for the parents to get from the toddler the mutuality in relation which can only come about when the child has already reached the phase of constancy in his loving relations with people. It seems to me that the understanding of such phases of emotional and social growth gives us the lead to a grading of our children which compares with the lead the teachers of schoolchildren get from the psychological tests in their intellectual grading of the school population.

The Understanding Adult

Dr. André Berge

Childhood can, in one way, be looked upon as a discovery of the modern world; for, in the times when, owing to the high rate of infantile mortality, it was impossible to tell whether a child would ever become an adult, each child was looked upon much more as a "chrysalis", a mere transitional stage towards an actual human being, than as a human being himself.

How could one have tried to understand a "chrysalis" otherwise than as an amorphous forerunner of the fully-developed adult it might never live to be? It mattered only inasmuch as it heralded and grew near to this hypothetical final stage of development.

The progress of paediatrics (which, on the one hand, was the first science to study the child as such and, on the other hand, invested this stage with permanency) brought about a complete change of outlook. Childhood has become so important that, now, it is through the child that one strives to gain a better knowledge and a better understanding of the adult.

The child is no longer looked upon as a "chrysalis", but as a promise, a collection of promises, a few of which only will be fulfilled; and, confronted with the fulfilment, or lack of fulfilment, of these promises, the educationist has grown aware of his responsibilities to the child.

Hence the vast amount of psychological research that has been directed towards the child over the last century or so, and the corresponding increase in our knowledge of him.

Tests have been devised to measure his faculties; investigations have been carried out to probe into the formative process of his intelligence and judgment; observations and experiments have enabled a comparative study to be made of his behaviour and that of the higher animals; lastly, psychoanalysis has been resorted to to throw light upon the various stages of his evolution on the plane of his instinct and affectivity.

But "knowledge" and "understanding" are two different things, although knowledge can help promote understanding, and some difficulty is occasionally encountered in trying to distinguish between them.

A purely theoretical knowledge does not, indeed, automatically ensure understanding—which is dependent upon the establishment of a specific affective relationship between adult and child. There are people who devote themselves to the study of childhood—and yet utterly fail to understand the actual children they have to deal with.

On the other hand, there have always been people to whom the understanding of children comes naturally, intuitively, and without any specialised studies of any kind—such as the old lady who used to give her very young visitors an old shoe to tie and untie, having instinctively understood that this could interest them and keep them occupied for a long time, without ever having heard of Mine Montessori's views on the subject.

Relationship between knowledge and understanding

A direct and thorough knowledge always makes for better understanding, but a theoretical fragmentary knowledge may often have the contrary effect.

The word "knowledge" has an intellectual connotation. "To know " is to detach oneself from the object to be known—and therefore always to see it as an object.

On the contrary, "to understand" implies a certain amount of intercommunication between two personalities, and therefore a certain lack of detachment between the two.

Understanding is twofold:

(1) affective: The child is visualised as a subject and this implies an attempt on the part of the adult at identifying himself with the child, so as to be able to perceive what the child feels, likes, wants, etc.

(2) active: Understanding entails a certain kind of behaviour on the part of the adult towards the child. With means at his disposal which the child does not yet possess, the adult helps him, thereby answering an implicit request and showing that the request has been understood.

But this dual character of understanding brings about a complex situation, in which the adult is led both to identify himself with the child and to differentiate himself from him in order to be able to educate him.

The problem of the understanding of the child by the adult therefore falls within the framework of the relationship between adult and child; and this relationship cannot be immutable since the second element (the child) keeps developing and changing all the time, and at a much faster pace than the first.

At the start, there exists between mother and baby an identification through participation, which makes the child as one with the mother from a psychological point of view. This understanding which, with good mothers, reaches great heights thanks to this sort of consubstantiality, quickly turns to misunderstanding if the mother resists the child's biological desire for differentiation. The child strives for his part, to identify himself with the adult in a new way. He no longer needs to identify himself with a person of whom he would be the complement, but with a person complete in himself; it is through identifying himself with people more highly developed, and consequently more autonomous than himself, that he is himself able to develop and to reach his own autonomy. Identification no longer
entails for him the adoption on all subjects of the same way of reacting as his mother.

The educationist must, therefore, on the one hand, establish intersubjective relations—which imply, at least, a certain degree of self-recognition of each individual in the other’s personality—on the other hand never stop looking upon the child as a fully differentiated person, quite distinct from himself, in short, as ‘somebody else’. The adult has to find where exactly he stands in the middle of this double stream which, on the one hand, drives the child to want to identify himself with him and, on the other hand, drives him (the educationist) to want to identify himself with the child in order to be able to speak the same language and to be understood by him—without which there would be no education possible.

A threefold problem ensues:
(a) How to acquire this indispensable understanding of the child?
(b) What problems are likely to be met with?
(c) Within what limits should this understanding be confined?

I
ACQUISITION UNDERSTANDING

This acquiring of understanding is brought about by the joint agency of an external knowledge (derived from scientific studies as well as direct and personal observations) and an internal knowledge (helped by the memories one has of one’s own childhood and the closeness of the contact one has been able to keep with one’s own past).

A. EXTERNAL KNOWLEDGE

It would be idle to think that one only needs to love children to understand them. Furthermore, to love them a great deal does not matter so much as to love them in the right way—which is not altogether frequent. To love them in the right way requires, indeed, a certain amount of psychological knowledge, if only to avoid such serious mistakes as that of loving one’s children for one’s own sake instead of theirs—or that of wishing so much to help them, to make things easy for them, that they are not even allowed to perform the acts and efforts corresponding to their natural aspirations and necessary to their development.

It is therefore necessary to have a good general knowledge of the child—i.e. to know the basic laws governing his development, his main needs in terms of affectivity, activity and the acquiring of knowledge, also his need to grow, mature and change, and the general pattern of his affective life; and, while one should be aware of the existence of his sexuality and aggressivity, one should not equate these with the sexuality and aggressivity of the adult, for the adult knows where his sexual and aggressive impulses lead and has the physical means of translating them into acts, whereas, with the child, these impulses exist only partially and lead more often to phantasy than acts.

This general knowledge of the child is the outcome of a vast amount of psychological and psychoanalytical work. It helps us to understand the individual problems of each particular child by providing us with a variety of norms making comparisons possible. We thus become able to diagnose the obstacles that may have hindered the development of a child, the deprivations he may have undergone, the unwarranted feelings of guilt ignorant parents may have induced in him by opposing his natural dynamism. A scientific knowledge of the child will allow us to see him in a sufficiently objective light to ensure that we do not picture him as either too like or too unlike ourselves.

But, to be fruitful, the knowledge of each particular child also requires personal and direct observation, which enables us to get better acquainted with the general set-up of his life, which life does not proceed on the same plane (by reason of his smaller size) nor at the same tempo as ours. This difference in tempo is one of the main sources of friction between adult and child. Careful direct observation will allow us to find the explanation for some unexpected reactions on the part of the child, sometimes due to the fact that the child’s interest is not focussed on the same aspects of things as ours. Clearly, the young fellow who was shown, in an attempt to rouse his compassion for the Christian martyrs, a picture where the latter could be seen being fed to the lions, and who pointed out one of the animals, exclaiming “Look at this poor lion, who has no Christian to eat!”, had picked out as relevant a different object from the one he had been meant to.

B. INTERNAL KNOWLEDGE

However, external knowledge must be completed by internal knowledge, i.e. the knowledge derived from the memories one has of one’s own childhood. The importance of such knowledge appears, for instance, in the case of a man who, not knowing his father, finds it difficult to act as a father to his own children. Adults are to be met who, not having had any real childhood themselves, cannot readily understand the childhood of others. One of the greatest assets in understanding childhood is to have loved one’s own childhood; and I would not like to have been the pupil of the schoolmistress who used to say, “Childhood is a rotten spell one has to get through”.

On the other hand, a strong attachment to one’s own early years is no doubt instrumental in acquiring a deep intuitive knowledge of the child.

II
THE OBSTACLES

One of the first obstacles is the ‘veil of amnesia’ surrounding a large part of our childhood, Freud has shown how instrumental this amnesia is in ridding us of the memories of actions or emotions about which we feel guilty.

Another type of amnesia is to be met with among people who feel they would demean themselves if they were to let anything betray what may still endure in them of the children they once were.

Such people as these Mme. Amado must have had in mind when she contrasted the mere grown-up who thinks his best safety lies in the distance he can put between himself and the child, and the true adult, who holds equally precious all the component parts of his life, and is prepared to assume responsibility for all of them. His maturity does not compel him to break away from his past, and he thus remains able both to feel a child and to feel for the child, while retaining all the beneficial experience the intervening years may have brought him.

The second obstacle is to be found in the role the educationist has to play vis-à-vis the child. A distinction should, incidentally, be made between his true role and the role he sometimes thinks he has to play, and which makes him put on, so to speak, an educationist’s uniform and utter pompous, but useless if not actually harmful words.

The educationist’s true role consists chiefly of offering the child everything the latter needs to cease little by little being a child, whilst retaining all that is worth retaining of childhood. To achieve this, the child must not strive to find in his education another self, but rather “a self transformed”.

16
III
LIMITS TO BE GIVEN TO UNDERSTANDING

These limits apply not so much to understanding itself, as to the degree of identification of the adult with the child (affective side of understanding) and the extent of the help he affords him (active side).

These limits can even be said to be shown to us by a true understanding of the child.

Identification must not, indeed, result in infantilisation of the adult—who would then set the child a model which would tend to hold back rather than further his progress and development.

It is indispensable that the adult should keep sufficient elbow-room between himself and the child for the child to learn to define his own outline and conceive himself as an "object"—thanks to the image of himself he can see reflected in the adult’s eyes—before reaching the stage when he can once again make himself the equal of the other individuals through visualising these as other "subjects".

Understanding would, indeed, turn to misunderstanding if it should express itself by a systematic and blind approval of everything the child says and does. For this would leave completely unsatisfied the need the child has of a scale of values capable of helping him see clearly his path in life. If the adult were to be nothing else than a sort of amplifier of the child's affects, the latter could not rise above the pursuit of immediate satisfactions. The adult would cease to be an exponent of the "principle of reality" to become an exponent of the "principle of pleasure"—which would be the negation of his educative mission.

To understand the child's desires remains, of course, imperative; but it may be necessary, at times, to understand without showing that one has understood. And, occasionally even, it may be a proof of understanding to let the child think at certain stages of his development, that he is not understood.

It is true that childhood is not usually the time of life when one believes oneself misunderstood: this sentiment is rather associated with adolescence. But as our true understanding of the child increases, it would seem that, by reason of that, the individual becomes conscious at an earlier and earlier stage of his own self, and thus paradoxically experiences at an earlier and earlier stage the feeling of being misunderstood.

CONCLUSION

Our understanding of the child should no more aim at pandering to him than at affording us some narcistic kind of satisfaction. It is not necessary for this understanding to be made patent. And yet, a person who understands, even if he seems to perform the same acts as a person who does not understand, does not perform them in exactly the same way.

The understanding of the child by the adult has extremely far-reaching effects. A child who has been understood stands a better chance of becoming in his turn an understanding adult than a child who has not been understood; so that, by trying to understand the child, the present-day educationist engages in a much wider enterprise—the bringing about of more general understanding among all men and women, which is, surely, the paramount desire of every educationist worthy of the name.

World Implications of Early Childhood Education
Lois Barclay Murphy

I have been asked to discuss the question of the world-wide implications of early childhood education. Twenty years ago Margaret Fries approached the subject of the relation between the development of the child before school-age and internationalism. She saw during the Hitler period that the possibility of international co-operation depended on a sound personality and especially on the control of aggression and hostility. It could sometimes be that the first years of the child are full of hate and destruction. Or sometimes it could be that they are full of satisfaction and of dreams of creation and accomplishment. The first signs of the experience of isolation and frustration in the young child are often seen as fear and hatred of strangers. One can help him to react in a positive way to new people. One cannot teach internationalism as one teaches arithmetic; the aim should be to develop numerous emotional and intellectual roots. Internationalism has other sources such as common experiences and human qualities. In order to take account of these two sources, I should like to share with you some glimpses of children throughout the world that I have seen, children who are at school and children who are not.

I am thinking of children playing in the sand, in the shadow of the Eiffel Tower, running to their mother’s knee when ill at ease or in need.

I am thinking of children in a refugee camp in Israel, who have just left the ship but already holding hands, singing and dancing in a ring, already playing a part in a new world and out of danger.

I am thinking of children clambering up the side of the Great Pyramid near Cairo, with their brothers and sisters, sensing the strength of the five thousand years old rock under their bare brown feet.

I am thinking of children of different castes in the kindergarten of Bal Ghar at Ahmedabad in India. Here the children of peddlars and bankers swing together on old motor tyres, feed the pigeons, recite their “Chant du Matin”, pass their time among Montessori toys and play round games.

I am thinking of children in a Moscow crèche, playing at “houses” in the courtyard, sheltering them from the rain.

I am thinking of children in the Sarah Lawrence nursery rolling down the hillside among the Autumn leaves.

I am thinking of the children in Bank Street, New York, watching the Queen Mary docking after a long voyage.

There is always the mother in the background or in the foreground who cares for the children, guides them, encourages them, helps them to discover what they can do, and teaches them games in which they can join with other children.

By the age of eight the child always has a teacher, but he does not ask to be coddled. To be able to leave his mother is therefore one of the major tasks of early childhood education throughout the world; that is to say we find certain universal aspects of education at different stages.

The needs and common interests of the young child also require
(1) activity and opportunity for relaxing, controlling and using his muscles in development.

(2) sensory experiences and the chance of using eyes, ears and hands in discovering his surroundings and everything therein, including his relation to space and time. This includes development of aesthetic experience, in music and painting, as well as using his hands.

(3) the need for friendship and exploring relationships with others.

(4) adventure and ideas gained through play.

If you make systematic studies of typical cultural activities of children, you can see differences in different climates; children who are warmly clad during half the year to protect them against the cold of winter cannot have the freedom of movement which children who play out of doors, who are clad lightly most of the year, can have. Again, children living in damp and enervating climates as in India are not so active as American children.

There are people in all countries who have come to recognise their different needs and who have found means of facing up to them. We think of Rousseau whose understanding of natural growth has provided the basis of the development of our ideas of education. We think of Montesori, who has used materials and objects of the senses with a creative genius; and we think of Harriet Johnson who has attached importance above all to physical development, and also of Anna Freud who has understood so well the importance of play to development and emotional integration; and we think of many others as well.

Traditionally early childhood education as it has been understood by the first educationalists is concerned with the development of the senses, of the muscles and of social relationships with children, of the use of intelligence in creative activities and of the controlled release of aggressive impulses.

The universal principles which I have mentioned above have their roots in our common biological inheritance—all humanity goes through the same stages of physical maturity—and these have certain psychological parallels, consequences and traces of the fundamental biology of development. They make us think of other aims in the development of the child as person in his environment, having the ability to leave his mother and to find himself at ease in a new situation, his bodily well being, his sense of identity, his role and his relations with others, his personal freedom, his ability to face reality and his capacity to pass from reality to fantasy, the correctness of his emotional responses, his degree of interest in people and things.

In discussing the international implications of children's education throughout the world, we are aware that we are on firm ground. We must now examine clearly the universal needs and the means of dealing with these needs.

We could better understand the ability to learn during early years if we compare the experience of the Montessori kindergarten schools with those described by Susan Isaacs in her book on the Social and Emotional Development of Young Children, which has become a classic.

In the Montessori schools, we see young children sitting on the ground, each having materials and objects of different sizes, shapes and texture to measure and put together. Repeated exercises of this type should help the children to learn with precision to judge the materials and their use. The emphasis is on judgment and on actions comprising elementary principles. These exercises form an important aspect of mental development useful up to a certain point. But the surroundings of the child and the nature of the activity hinder the assembling of more complex objects. The teachers discuss their activities with the children, but the teacher cannot really give the child the chance to express his feelings. The kindergartens conducted in this way thus offer sensory and intellectual opportunities, though insufficient to the field of motivational and social opportunities. But this system does not excite the development of creative activities and the possibility of various kinds of social relations. Without any doubt, in India, where the large families give many chances for development of contacts with cousins, brothers and sisters and with grown-ups in various roles, this lack is perhaps not so important as for children who do not grow up in the bosom of a large family. But the need still exists of encouraging the development of activities more spontaneous than those which are possible in this controlled and directed organisation.

By contrast, in the works of Susan Isaacs, we see regular opportunities for complex social experiences in which feelings and ideas are expressed. The children learn to recognise sizes, shapes and possible relations between different objects while putting them together in progressively complex ways. One of the handicaps of certain kindergartens which attach importance to social relations is that the confusion and noise, often resulting from too many activities in too small a space, distract and disturb sensitive and reserved children. These children are sometimes more at ease in a kindergarten where the programme is more organised and controlled.

Today we can see a combination of values in these models. Our flexibility has developed over the past twenty to thirty years and will continue to increase so long as the teachers in different countries will learn from one another.

During the last fifty years, thanks to intense research, we have been able to extend our knowledge of physical and mental development and of certain aspects of social development. Psychoanalytical works have contributed to our understanding of the mentally disturbed child; in the next thirty years we shall make much more use of pre-school groups to help children deprived of intellectual and emotional stimulation, traumatised children, and those with conflicts. Furthermore, psychoanalysis has shown us the origins of these exaggerations, of these aggressions which threaten to destroy civilisation; and this passivity which impedes progress. Education at all levels has the responsibility of helping the child to use his aggressive energy in a healthy manner. The pre-school years are of special importance towards this end. All this new knowledge should be taken into account in future programmes.

Finally, I return to the relation between pre-school education and internationalism. According to our degree of ability to give to the children of the world a basis of healthy satisfaction, of confidence, of freedom from fear and hate and from the desire for power and domination, we shall construct a firm base to good international relations.

Summary

A comprehensive study of early childhood education must be:

(1) flexible enough to be adaptable to all cultures and all places, taking into account local conditions, resources dependent on local climate, and the influence of local traditions;

(2) complete enough to cover all the minimum needs of children of pre-school age, whilst satisfying the special needs of different children individually,
Summary Statement on Discussion Groups

Professor Viola Themian

This is the first time in the history of our organisation that anyone has had the audacity to try to make a thirty minute summary statement of three lectures, thirty-six discussion meetings and fifteen Talk-It-Overs involving the thinking of more than four hundred vocal, professional people.

I'd like, therefore, to ask the reporters and the leaders of all these groups to stand so you can see and give them the credit for anything in this report that agrees with your appraisal.

Now, I shall assume the responsibility for omissions and other points with which you disagree—and assure you that you have that right. I shall not leave Battersea until Sunday so you can tell me so at the Ballet or at the Hall of Residence.

In truth, I feel each of you has made his own summary, his own appraisal. I can do little more in thirty minutes than attempt to reflect some of the large areas of agreement or disagreement and point out the hopes expressed in the oral and written reports I received.

In this selection I feel like a gold miner when he is panning—fearful that by searching for the big nuggets I may be overlooking the smaller pieces of a more valuable metal.

The first highlight of the conference was the speech given by Dr. Anna Freud, that woman of the fine mind and the warm heart! Her topic was The Emotional and Social Development of Young Children.

You will recall her four main points by which the child differs from the adult: those which she feels are so important if we would truly understand the young child. I will remind you of them:

(1) the child's ego centric concept of the world which she likened to our dreams when even as adults we are ever in the centre of the dream.

(2) the contrast between logic and illogic. Adults have longer views and children's are shorter; there is no waiting period in childhood where actions are imme-

date—the urgency of feelings and wishes, she said, is extreme in the young child.

(3) time sense: the concept she developed so carefully for us, and illustrated so vividly in relation to the separation of the mother from the child.

(4) sexual expression and understanding in which young children gave lip service to the facts of reproduction given them. This Dr. Freud says is the area of greatest difference between the adult and the child.

Concerning the first point—ego centric—there was general agreement and understanding in the discussion groups. Only a slight measure of doubt was expressed by a few people in two of the groups. Concerning point four (sexual expression and understanding) the area of greatest difference—it is interesting to note—was treated very lightly in the discussion groups and then only in connection with the role of the father. I wonder why?

But in contrast, points two and three (reason and time) provoked much discussion and brought forth ever so many questions. Briefly, a few persons wondered if a measure of frustration is essential to discipline; where and when limits should be set by adults, and whether it is good for the child to have the adult prevent all or most child conflicts.

The minimum age of admission to nursery school, the desirable length of the school day, and methods of helping the child emotionally at times of mother separation were topics discussed with much feeling in most of the groups and the differing procedures in many countries were shared and evaluated quite openly.

In short, the greatest desire of the largest number of people was to be informed of practical applications of the above four points of Anna Freud in relation to the stages of development of the child.

Knowledge of specific chronological ages for each stage was desired by a few, while the majority wished it to be emphasized that specific ages, if stated, could or would be misleading. They further felt that a given child may at one time be in several stages in different aspects of his development.

However, landmarks or ways of assessing the stage of development of a child were desired by many and Dr. Freud, during the question period, reassured us that in our hearts we know we can tell some of these if we truly observe and try to understand children.

Do we wait for signs of readiness for the next stage to develop, expect children to conform to our demands, or, should we anticipate and facilitate the next stage? This big question was basic, many thought, to the consideration of the following two problems for which answers were sought by many: (1) what do teachers really need to know to understand a child and (2) how shall we prepare teachers and reeducate those already in service?

In brief, Anna Freud's lecture disturbed a few, clarified the thinking of many, and challenged all of us. We wish she could have met with each of our groups to help us further to translate theory into practice by giving us more of her delightful and profound illustrations.

On Tuesday, the eight Talk-It-Overs held onto these thoughts and questions stimulated by Dr. Freud and it was interesting to observe the extent to which they coloured the content of the Talk-It-Overs.

Shortage of time for exploration of the Talk-It-Over announced topics, of concern to many, was expressed by some members and leaders both on Tuesday and on Wednesday. Perhaps that is the reason there appeared to be somewhat
less interaction in some of these groups as contrasted with the discussion groups which had more time to share ideas and to come to know one another on three consecutive days of meetings.

On Wednesday Dr. André Berge spoke to us on the topic The Understanding Adult. By means of his lecture and the answer period we raised further questions to our already lengthy list. We appeared to be most concerned with these two:

(1) As teachers, what is our concept of self? What can be done to help the teacher who does not have pleasant feelings about her childhood? How can we learn what it is in ourselves and our reactions to our childhood that causes us to react unfavourably to certain children and favourably to others?

(2) How can we develop teachers who have the qualities Dr. Berge enumerated as desirable for all those who live and work with children, namely, respect for the child as a person, ability to adjust to a difficult situation, curiosity concerning what lies behind a child’s behaviour, compassion.

And we hope we all remember his advice that there is not much distance between a defect and a quality. Incidentally this is one example of Berge’s ability to phrase ideas succinctly.

Our third speaker, Dr. Lois Murphy’s topic was World Wide Implications of the Education of Young Children. She reminded us of the purposes of O.M.E.P.: of fostering happy childhood, and of using all the resources of related professions as well as of our earnest desire to promote World Peace.

Through her talk and answers to our questions our groups became increasingly aware:

(1) of the basic needs of all children which are alike in kind but differ only in degree,

(2) the similarities of the problems each of us faces in our profession even though we come from and return to different countries:

- more children than in former years
- too few teachers, classrooms, schools, inadequate play space
- the great need for inservice training
- the great need for improving the quality of teacher education
- the division of responsibility for the welfare of children into several different governmental agencies
- the need for parents and teachers to understand (1) the goals of each
- (2) the purposes of education
- the need for the establishment of courses for parents, especially mothers.

The reports of the national committees and the talk given by the delegate, Monsieur René Halconruy, of UNESCO at Friday’s meeting gave all of us a new lift—a wider perspective of the many places where research and action programmes are already in progress and of the continuous support of UNESCO and other organisations working on behalf of young children.

With even more unanswered questions in our minds than we brought to the conference it is most encouraging that we leave for home:

- with deeper understandings of the young child’s social and emotional development,
- with a deeper conception of what it truly means to understand a child, with a desire to gain greater self-understanding that we may be better teachers,
- with a renewed desire to forge ahead in the areas of needed research.

We leave for home with courage knowing:

- we are not alone with individual problems,
- that we have friends around the world willing to share their ideas openly and critically,
- that we have an official O.M.E.P. publication of our own to disseminate our findings,
- that we shall meet again in two years to share our further thinking and continue making progress in answering the problems that concern us so vitally.

UNESCO’s Link with O.M.E.P.

We were honoured by the presence of Monsieur René Halconruy, representing UNESCO, throughout the Assembly. On the Friday morning he gave a most interesting and informative talk on UNESCO itself, and on its relations with non-governmental organisations, including specifically O.M.E.P.

There are, at present, three categories of relationship between UNESCO and N.G.O.s as they are called. O.M.E.P. is one of the 112 organisations under category B, “Information and Consultative Relations”. Some of the advantages available to organisations in this category are as follows:

Information and Consultative relations (category B)

(i) These organisations shall receive, after agreement with the Secretariat, appropriate documentation relating to the programmes activities corresponding to the aims proclaimed in their constitutions;

(ii) They shall be consulted by the Director-General on UNESCO’s proposed programme;

(iii) They may be invited by the Director-General to send observers to meetings organised by UNESCO on matters within their competence; if unable to be represented at these meetings, they may forward their views in writing;

(iv) They may receive subventions from UNESCO under the provisions of Section VI of the Directives;

(v) They shall be invited to attend periodical conferences of non-governmental organisations.

Monsieur Halconruy hoped that O.M.E.P. would make the most of all the advantages to which it was entitled, and that it would plan a course of action by which more countries could be reached by its influence.

He reminded us of some of the publications through which UNESCO had manifested its interest in pre-school education. These were:

- “Education Abstracts” January 1960, containing a bibliography on pre-school education in 26 countries and published in English, French and Spanish.
- “Pre-School Education in 114 countries.” Quantitative development from 1950 to 1958, which came out in June, 1961. Published in English and French.
- “World Survey of Education.” 1955 and 1960, a very large and important work which includes information on Nursery Schools and Kindergartens in many countries. Published in English and French.

**”L’Education préscolaire dans 114 pays. Développement quantitatif de 1950 à 1958.”**

**”L’Education dans le Monde”**
"The Organisation of Primary Education," 1961. This was the subject of an enquiry in which 65 countries took part in preparation for the 24th Annual International Conference on Public Education, held jointly by UNESCO and the International Bureau of Education in July 1961. After the conference, this comparative study was made to give a general idea of the current trends in pre-school education in the world.

Also, as a result of the same conference, there is an important small leaflet known as "Recommendation No. 53", Madame Herminie Lebert was chairman-reporter of the discussions which led up to the formulation of this Recommendation which comprises 46 articles. It was unanimously approved by Government representatives at the conference, and has been translated into many languages. Monsieur Halconruy thought it highly desirable that National Committees of OMEP should publish these "Recommendations" in National Educational papers which would ensure the widest possible circulation.

He then gave us valuable advice concerning OMEP publications in general in relation to the UNESCO subvention. This stands at present at 2,000 dollars a year, and is intended to cover part of the cost of specialist publications in pre-school education. Specialist publications are an excellent means of making a specialised organisation known in the world, and the greatest number of educators is reached if they are produced in several languages. In countries where the national language is little known except to the inhabitants of these countries, National Committees of OMEP might take the responsibility of translating and reproducing literature concerning OMEP, or produced by it, wholly or in part, in the local educational press.

After congratulating the organisation on the News Letters, and recent booklets such as "Vocabulary for use in Discussions of Child Development"; and "Understanding of Others", which bear the mark "Published with financial assistance from UNESCO", he put forward the suggestion that the whole of the UNESCO subvention should be reserved for bigger and more substantial publications. He enumerated such subjects as the activities and results of a World Assembly; a systematic international study of various aspects of pre-school education; educational principles and psychology, or a series of monographs.

An important and continuous interest of UNESCO is "The Status of Teachers". OMEP was urged to play its part by seriously contributing to this study.

In conclusion, Monsieur Halconruy assured us of the great interest and sympathy with which UNESCO would continue to watch our work. "May you fortify mutual understanding among men and contribute to world peace through pre-school education."

Summary of speech prepared by Mabel B. Denny

We might, perhaps, remind our readers of a valuable booklet brought out in 1959 by OMEP in conjunction with the UNESCO Institute of Education in Hamburg, namely "The Education of Parents of Children of Pre-School Age". This is increasingly popular and OMEP might do well to enquire into the advisability of getting it printed in yet another language as a result of this talk.

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Preparation of Teachers for Early Childhood Education

Report Summarized by Dr. Amy Hostler

This year a questionnaire on teacher preparation was sent out to the 18 countries that are regular members of OMEP and to the six countries that have preparatory committees. The purpose of the questionnaire was to study the different types of programme being undertaken in these lands and to inform OMEP members about them. Replies were received from 17 countries. In the report, however, 16 will be considered.

- Australia
- Austria
- Belgium
- Brazil (replies from 2 colegios)
- Denmark
- France
- Greece
- Germany
- Israel
- Norway
- Philippines
- Sweden
- Union of South Africa
- United Kingdom
- United States of America
- Uruguay
- Yugoslavia

One reply was not included in the analysis because the comments bore insufficient relation to the questions. The reply from the Philippines, the only provisional country to reply, has been studied on an equal basis with reports from the regular member nations.

This report is intended as a general analysis of the replies with no attempt to single out any particular country or countries. We have tried instead to show some of the overall similarities and differences in the preparation of teachers for the field of early childhood education.

Those who were instrumental in preparing or answering the questionnaire already knew that there were 26 questions divided into three categories:

- Qualifications for admittance to teacher education institutions
- Teacher education programme
- Teacher supply, placement, and supervision

It seemed most appropriate to study the replies question by question, first giving a summary of the answers and then making suggestions and drawing implications if this seemed indicated from the comments given. A statistical analysis of the replies has been prepared where it was either possible or meaningful. In many cases, however, there was insufficient clarity or consistency among the replies to permit a statistical study. A question by question review of the replies follows:

**Qualifications for admittance to teacher education institutions**

1. What age do students enter?
   - The average age of admission is 17. The typical age is as low as 15 in four countries and as high as 20 in three others. Of course, there are minimum and maximum ages developed by committee members from Canada, Chile, Israel, United Kingdom, United States and Yugoslavia.
typical ages, and older applicants are generally welcome. These figures become meaningful, however, only when related to years of previous general education and years of training.

2. Years of general education before admission.
   The range is 8-13 years. Nine countries have 8-10 years. Seven countries have 12-13 years. These figures, too, become meaningful in relationship to age of admission and years of training.

3. How are students selected for early childhood education programmes?
   a. Interview: 14 out of 16 countries.
   b. Written exam: 8/16.
   c. Student record: 13/16.
   d. Rating on tests: 43/16 (4 represents 1 out of 2 Brazil replies).
   e. Intelligence rating: 4/16.
   f. Practical experience: 43/16.
   g. Probation period: 73/16.
   h. Other:
      Examination of speaking ability to eliminate incurable defects (Austria).
      Examination of "musical ear" (Yugoslavia).

Most significant are the almost universal use of personal interviews and previous student records, although we must recognize that student record includes many things (e.g. receipt of school diploma in Belgium, recommendation of high school principal in the United States).

These replies suggest some interesting further questions about the relative emphasis to be placed on personality, academic accomplishment and various measures of aptitude and achievement.

4. Is the student required to be in good physical and mental health?
   All 16 countries answered that good health was required and many mentioned the requirement of medical certification. This is unlikely, however, that much is done to evaluate candidates’ mental health since medical certificates seldom, if ever, deal with this question. Only Australia noted that mental health might call for special interpretation such as assessment of school record and of personal interview which they use. Others undoubtedly consider mental health without labelling it as such.

The question of mental health arises again in question No. 14 on teacher preparation. We are all aware that the World Health Organisation and other organisations today are stressing the impact of teacher mental health on children. Yet neither our admissions requirements nor our training programmes seem to reflect adequately the need for early promotion of teacher mental health.

5. Do you attract students with ability and good personalities to teach children?
   Twelve countries said, "yes". Two countries said, "no". Two countries did not reply.

These replies pose some problem as to the validity of the question, especially when replies are compared with question No. 26 where respondents indicated less satisfaction with their ability to attract top students.

Certainly we would all like to think that the field attracts students with ability and good personalities. Yet, in actual fact, we must ask ourselves further whether we are satisfied with the quality of the applicants. If we are less than pleased, what can we do to raise standards?

6. Are men encouraged to enter the early childhood education field?
   Five countries said, "yes". Among both yes and no answers were comments indicating men would be welcome, but few are interested. Germany noted, however, that men generally deal better with older children.

7. Are married women encouraged to come into the profession?
   As with question No. 6, respondents seemed confused by the word "encouraged". There is a difference between whether they do enter or not and whether they are systematically encouraged.

Several said yes, married women are encouraged. Others said no, they are not specially encouraged, but many do enter. None seemed adamant against admitting married women. In general it appears that married women are treated like other applicants; they are accepted, but not specially encouraged.

8. Is the salary for early childhood education teachers comparable to salaries paid teachers at other levels?
   Seven countries said salaries were lower. Of these, Israel stated that she plans to make them comparable as training becomes comparable to that of primary teachers.

Five countries indicated salaries are comparable, at least to that of primary teachers. The others say they are comparable in some instances.

9. Is salary and status a factor in attracting able students as early childhood education teachers?
   Six countries say, "yes", Ten countries say, "no" or are doubtful. Of these, several indicate that the prestige and satisfaction of the field are major factors even where salary is too low to be significant.

Programme of teacher education

10. What is the length of the teacher education programme?
    The range is 2-5 years. Two-year training is required in six countries. Three-year training is required in four countries. Four or five-year training is required in four countries.

    Among those with two-year programmes, Denmark requires half a year of nursery school experience in advance; Germany requires a year of domestic training as a prerequisite; and Israel is planning to add a third year and reorganise teacher training colleges as academic institutions.

    All replies to this question would become truly significant if we could make a correlation in depth of the following factors: (1) length and nature of professional programme, (2) age of admission, (3) length and nature of previous education, and (4) the age at which a child starts school.

11 & 12. Describe the content of the programme of early childhood education, both theoretical and practical. Describe the type of practical experiences student teachers have; the length of time a student participates with children.

   The replies to questions 11 and 12 were both extremely interesting and extremely difficult to classify. For this reason, it has seemed most appropriate simply to comment on the many similarities and differences among the teacher education programmes in both their theoretical and practical aspects as revealed by the questionnaire. The two questions are considered together because the replies were closely interrelated,
In general the replies seemed to confirm the conclusion reached in a study conducted by the International Bureau of Education and published in 1961 under the title "Organisation of Pre-Primary Education". This study concluded:

"The data received concerning educational methods and activity show remarkable similarity and prove that in pre-primary education there are practices which have proved themselves. These have spread everywhere and are being adapted to the particular circumstances and conditions prevailing at the time in each country.

Every reply indicates that psychology (general psychology, educational psychology, child psychology, adolescent psychology, etc.) and pedagogy (educational theory and methods) should be central elements of the theoretical training programme. There is repeated emphasis on understanding the growth and needs of children.

There is also substantial agreement about the need for practical experiences. Many replies stressed the importance of observing children. This included both observation of a group of children for periods from one day to a full year and observation and keeping records on an individual child for an extended period.

Many countries provide for practical experiences in a wide variety of circumstances. Student teachers have experience in more than one school under varied socio-economic conditions. For example, they may work in both a laboratory school and in a migrant centre. They also have practical experiences in a variety of other institutions besides schools, such as summer camps and various children's homes. Many student teachers have opportunities for residential work with children on a 24 hour basis, be it in a summer camp, children's institution, or private home. Such residential work was specifically mentioned by Belgium, Denmark, and Israel.

The actual practice teaching experience varies in time from one month to a full year. In many programmes, particularly the longer ones, there is a carefully organised progression of practice teaching beginning with little responsibility for a small group of children and progressing by steps up to full responsibility for the whole class.

The total programme seems to vary from country to country in accord with the differing values of each culture. Some provide a more specific vocational preparation in a two-year period of time which seems to be relatively didactic and authoritarian in approach. Others provide a more general education over a longer period of time which stresses the creative development of the individual. The first group provide more specific training in skills such as music, handicrafts, and rhythm and movement, whereas the second group provide more general education such as history and literature. The first group often outlines specific routines and procedures, whereas the second group presents basic problems from which the student teachers develop their own creative ideas to pursue in the classroom.

13. How does the student teacher determine the age group with which to work? When is this done in the programme?

In most cases, students select the age range (3-6 years, 2-7 years, etc.) covered by the programme when they enter and then focus on a single age when they accept a job. In a few cases, it is possible to specialise on work with older or younger children either throughout the programme or toward the end.

14. What is done to promote good mental health of student teachers? Is there provision for consultation?

All countries replied to this question with indications that they are doing something to further the student teachers' mental health. However, there was a wide range in conception of what it means to deal with mental health. It is doubtful whether the respondents recorded all that is done which in fact contributes to mental health; many day-to-day activities provide pertinent contributions which those involved in the situation probably regarded as too familiar and obvious to mention.

Five countries mentioned either a special course on mental health or special lectures presented from time to time by experts in the field. Other contributions to the mental health of student teachers included: social and cultural activities, administrative supervision, conferences or seminars to encourage free exchange of ideas and discussion, and choices within the teacher education programme.

The majority indicated that someone within the institution is available for consultation and guidance programmes. In four countries special guidance programmes were described including small group discussions, individually assigned advisors, and the tutorial system. In two countries special psychological or psychiatric help is available, and plans for such a service are being made in one other country.

If we need mentally healthy teachers because of the teacher's profound influence upon children, then this question, like question No. 4, would seem to call for further exploration. Here we have simply reviewed some of the possibilities indicated by the questionnaire. Now it would seem appropriate to study what methods are most effective in promoting teachers' mental health and what the needs are in various countries.

Teacher Supply, Placement and Supervision

15. Number of institutions where programmes for the education of early childhood education teachers are offered, public and private,

Replies to this question were not very satisfactory, especially since many respondents did not seem to know the number. The range is from three institutions for professional preparation to over 100. In general, there are more with public support than private.

16. How many students make application to enroll in teacher education programme?

This question seemed to cause confusion because records of the numbers of applicants are seldom kept. Most answers seem to indicate the number enrolled, but it is difficult to determine whether they are total enrollment or just first-year enrollment.

In replies which seem to represent first-year enrollment with accuracy, it would appear that too few teachers are being prepared in proportion to the number of children.

17. How many teachers are prepared each year in early childhood education?

The range is from around 40-50 in Greece, the Philippines, and the Union of South Africa to around 3,000 in Germany (where training covers children
to age 14) and the United States. Four countries report 400 or below.
These replies re-emphasise the low number of teachers being prepared in
proportion to the number of children to be educated.

18. Do you have a teacher shortage in the pre-primary field?
Eleven countries say "yes". Five countries say "no", with the following
qualifications:
(1) Not general, but regional shortage in the outlying areas.
(2) Not at the moment.
One questionnaire appears to indicate satisfaction except that it states that
able students of good personality are not generally attracted.
The 'no' answer of Greece and the Philippines may be a reflection of the fact that pre-primary education is simply not sufficiently developed to create
the demand which would cause a shortage.

19. Where are qualified teachers employed?
All except Brazil, Greece and the Phillipines where graduates are employed
primarily in schools (nursery schools and kindergartens), qualified teachers
are employed in a wide range of other institutions as well. Places of employ-
ment other than those listed (nursery schools, kindergartens, day care centres,
hospitals, children's homes) include: mobile unit, Kindergarten of the Air
infantry, migrant centres, aboriginal centres (all in Australia), recreation
centres, summer camps, and institutions for the handicapped.

20. Is it possible for pre-primary teachers to transfer to primary school?
Seven countries replied affirmatively. Five countries say no, largely because
training does not include primary grades.
In Australia, it is common to transfer to primary grades in private schools
but not usual in departmental state schools. In the Union of South Africa,
transfer is possible only in Cape Province. In Denmark and Norway, transfer
is sometimes possible as substitute teacher because of the great need.
In summary, opportunities for transfer seem to depend on whether training
covered primary grades and to some extent on the urgency of need for
primary teachers.

21. Are colleges preparing teachers of early childhood education under
the supervision of the Ministry of Education?
Eleven countries said "yes". Other replies were:
(1) Ministry of Education gives recognition and subsidy but responsi-
bility is to sponsoring organisation.
(2) National Social Board of Ministry of Social Affairs.
(3) State Departments of Education.
(4) Two countries did not reply.
It might be interesting to explore further to what extent the Ministry of
Education actually supervises teacher education in various countries. The
question seemed somewhat confusing, and it may actually have meant the
supervision of teacher education programmes.

22. What government department supervises early childhood education pro-
grammes in your country, public and private?
The Ministry of Education supervises early childhood education according
to 5½ replies. Other answers were:
(1) State Education Departments supervise public schools from primary
grades up. Supervision of pre-school centres varies from state to
state and territory to territory.
(2) Ministry of Social Affairs.
(3) Municipal Government.
(4) Department of Family and Consumer Welfare.
(5) Ministry of Social Affairs.
(6) The four provincial education departments supervise the private
programme.
(7) No federal supervision.

23. Are there barriers to transferring from one state (province, district, canton)
to another?
Thirteen say "no". Brazil states that one colegio did not reply; the other
said yes. Israel says transfer applications must be approved by the Manpower
Department of the Ministry of Education and Culture.

24. If you have had such barriers, have they been removed? If so, when were
they removed?
In view of the general absence of barriers, there were few answers to this
question. One of the replies from Brazil stated that removal of barriers to
transfer would be undesirable because the level varies from place to place.
The United States replied that the current trend is toward national certifi-
cation with elimination of state to state variations, although credentials must
generally be examined before a teacher receives a certificate in a new state.

25. Is there further training while on the job?
All countries indicated that some further training is available on the job.
Answers seem to indicate, however, that the respondents feel more numerous
and better organised in-service programmes are needed. Forms of further
training mentioned are: study groups, advanced courses, seminars, professional
meetings, work conferences, long courses, vacation or holiday courses, university extension courses, and con-
sultation with supervisors.
This might be a good subject for OMEP to explore further in terms of the
possibility and value of utilising qualified OMEP members for in-service
training in countries other than their own.

26. What is the biggest problem in obtaining qualified persons for teacher
education?
Most respondents apparently interpreted this question as concerning students:
Australia and Israel apparently interpreted it as concerning teachers of
students. Salary and/or status (prestige, working conditions) are mentioned as problems by eight countries. Other problems mentioned in replies were:
Early childhood education jobs call for teachers' certificate, but the
certificate does not apply directly.
Politics (some towns organise an exam and take only the best).
Very few training courses, so very few teachers—a vicious circle.
Training too short, should be three years.
Limited chance of advancement.
Insufficient number of men and women to meet the needs of the various
professions.
Few kindergartens—mainly in northern part of country, too few scholarships, too few training colleges.

Precarious position of nursery schools because not integral part of educational system.

Academically able students are not encouraged to enter, lack of suitable post-diploma courses or overseas scholarships.

Lack of senior teachers because the field is staffed by women with high marriage rates and there is no stable core of men.

Lack of university graduate teachers.

From these replies it is clear that the situation in preparing early childhood education teachers is a very dynamic one with constant changes around the world—in those countries where pre-primary education is newest (Greece), where it is being re-evaluated (e.g. Yugoslavia, Israel), and where it is more advanced.

This questionnaire certainly poses many fruitful questions for discussion and suggests many opportunities for OMEP leadership.

Exhibition of Children’s Work and Equipment

Mrs. Marjorie McIntosh,
Chairman of the London County Council Education Committee

It is a great pleasure for me to come here this afternoon to open this Exhibition because it gives me the opportunity to meet and to greet colleagues from many countries who wish to ensure the full emotional and physical development of young children.

As you know, in this country, compulsory full-time education begins at five, and the age of eight takes place in infant schools. It is the duty of the Local Education Authority, and in London this is the London County Council, to build the schools and provide the teachers and equipment. We have over 93,000 infants over five in London schools. Since the war a great change has taken place in the design of schools and of equipment and furniture, as well as in the methods used in the schools. The new emphasis is on free activity and movement and the opportunity for choice of occupation. The teacher uses the child’s interests to the full, and has a less authoritarian role. In my day we sat at desks in a room often so full that there was no alternative but to sit still or fidget. Free activity had to take place in a hall as a set lesson. In the new London schools the waste of space on corridors and cloakrooms has been reduced to give bigger teaching spaces opening, wherever possible, on to the school grounds. Furniture is lighter, easier to move and stack and use is made of new materials. Two years ago a working party of architects, designers and teachers reviewed all the furniture and large equipment in use in the schools and re-designed it. We have the great advantage, in this large authority, of employing a group of architects of great creative ability who work in close co-operation with teachers and administrators. We have this fine School Equipment Centre with its specialist staff which buys and commissions in bulk and so gives the schools quality at a reasonable price.

Compulsory education from the age of five is well established in this country though there are parents who believe that five is too young an age. for full-time compulsory education. The shortage in places for children under five in nursery classes or nursery schools. We have over 10,000 children in nursery classes in London but only 2,000 in nursery schools. This is a great grief to those of us who believe that the early years are of paramount importance for the social and physical well-being of children. Before the war our main preoccupation was with the effects of poverty on the development of children. Today we are more concerned with the unsuitability of an urban environment for the child when it means living in high flats with inadequate play space. Nursery schools, adventure playgrounds, play parks, are essential requirements for the urban child. We are doing something in London but not enough. We only achieve what we do through co-operation between voluntary bodies and public authorities. Here we owe a great deal to people like Lady Allen.

Your organisation can play an important part in spreading knowledge and ideas and in particular in creating a public opinion which will press irresistibly for expansion. In this important work, so needed in all countries, I wish every success for your efforts here at this Conference and later in your own countries.

Talk-It-Over Groups

July 17th

1. Books and Young Children’s Attitudes
2. Teacher Recruitment and Selection
3. Traffic and Children
4. Behaviour Problems in Normal Children
5. Research and Children’s Learning
6. Residential Care for Young Children
7. Parent Participation in Nursery School
8. Imaginative Life in Early Childhood

July 18th

9. Preparation of Teachers
10. Inservice Education
11. How to Establish Parent Co-operative Play Groups and Schools
12. Television and Young Children
13. Stress in Childhood
14. Day Care of Children outside their Homes
15. Continuity in Children’s Thinking

A Group, lead by Mme. Herbinière Lebert (France) and consisting of two representatives of member countries and one representative of each other country, discussed “OMEP’s Work”.

Leaders

Dr. Sigsgaard (Denmark)
Mme. Libotte (Belgium)
Dr. Mortensen (Denmark)
Professor Skaard (Norway)
Miss Churchill (UK)
Dr. Kroeger (Germany)
Mme. Jelić (Yugoslavia)
Miss Hartley (UK)

Dr. Hostler (USA)
Mme. Abbadie (France)
Mrs. Tutev (UK)
Mrs. Whitby (UK)
Mrs. Ginsberg (USA)
Mme. Jelić (Yugoslavia)
Miss Roberts (Australia)
### Discussion Group Leaders

Mainly French Speaking
- Mme. Bromham (Belgium)
- M. Mialaret (France)
- Dr. Quillon (France)

Mainly English Speaking
- Professor Bredin (Canada)
- Dr. Lindberg (USA)
- Miss Clark (USA)

Bilingual
- Mme. Lacombe (Brazil)
- Dr. Melin (Sweden)
- Dr. Morris (UK)
- Miss Denny (UK)
- Miss Addis (UK)
- Miss Esp (Norway)

### Films

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### Slides

UK
- The Development of Young Children. Dr. Mary Sheridan

### List of Participants

**ARGENTINA:**
- Prof. F. Cabrera
- Prof. R. Rautet
- Prof. E. Vaamonde

**AUSTRALIA:**
- Miss T. Davis
- Miss B. Davis
- Mrs. N. Fairfax
- Miss M. Gibson
- Mrs. S. Goodman
- Miss E. Knight
- Miss J. Lloyd
- Miss K. Mellow
- Miss A. Morwood
- Miss M. Roberts
- Miss R. Rogers
- Mrs. G. Sarossy
- Miss M. Steer
- Mrs. O. Thatcher
- Miss J. Wallace

**AUSTRALIA:**
- Mrs. H. Donner
- Mrs. M. Gregorit
- Mrs. K. Kopie
- Dr. E. Kochbauer
- Mrs. H. Los
- Miss M. Maister
- Miss L. Makowitsch
- Miss A. Mayer
- Miss W. Neuwirth
- Mrs. A. Nitsche
- Mrs. K. Raab
- Mrs. G. Steiner
- Miss J. Swoboda
- Mrs. A. Walter

**BELGIUM:**
- Mme. A. Babolets
- Mlle. K. Bromham
- Mons. G. Brugmans
- Dr. B. Derkene
- Mme. M. Elias
- Mme. L. Ers

**BRAZIL:**
- Miss N. Abi-Saber
- Miss L. Laconbe

**BURMA:**
- Mrs. Daw Yin Sein

**CANADA:**
- Prof. G. Bredin
- Mrs. A. Brown
- Miss A. Hutchison
- Dr. C. Shatan
- Prof. M. Wright

**CHILE:**
- Miss M. Hutcl

**CUBA:**
- Miss D. Colon

**DENMARK:**
- Miss A. Adrian
- Miss R. Andresen
- Mrs. B. Begtrup
- Miss M. Brin
- Miss A. Brodersen
- Miss J. Carstensen
- Mrs. C. Caspersen
- Mr. J. Caspersen
- Mrs. A. Friberg
- Miss N. Funder
- Mrs. G. Gaun
- Mrs. I. Granerud
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Miss E. Launonen
Miss P. Salpakivi

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Mme. R. Aitelli
Mme. N. Baissac
Mme. Barthelemy
M. X. Bassecoulard
Mme. A. Bassecoulard
Mlle. Belliard
Dr. A. Berge
Mme. Boutevillain
Mlle. Catherine-Revol
Mme. U. Dartigue
M. V. Daum
Mme. A. Daum
Mlle. C. Devarenne
M. C. Dumart
Mme. H. Dumart
Mlle. E. Fontanier
Mlle. P. Gabrignes
Mme. Herbinibre Lebert
Mlle. M. Kindel
Mlle. A. Kolb
Dr. J. Laforge
Mme. M. Lequien
Mlle. Y. Le Roch
Mlle. S. Loos
M. G. Mialaret
Mlle. J. Morene
Mlle. Monne
Mlle. G. Montreuil
Mme. M. Noel
Dr. H. Ouillon
Mme. J. Passas
Mme. M. Prigent
Mlle. A. Quenelle
Mlle. G. Quenelle
Mme. H. Raffard
Mlle. P. Regnier
Mlle. Rose
Mlle. P. Schirch-Heini
Mlle. F. Serive
Mme. N. Sorin
M. Y. Sorin
Mme. Tanon

Mme. M. Tavenas
Mlle. J. Weber
Mme. A. Wims Forier

GERMANY (West):
Miss I. Ackernknecht
Miss M. Behler
Miss L. Besser
Miss M. Dreiser
Miss M. Drenckhan
Mrs. H. Düncker
Miss R. Eckhardt
Miss G. Eitnernek
Dr. T. Falt
Miss S. Hartung
Mr. A. Herrnhrodt
Miss G. Kleber
Miss R. Klem
Miss E. Klomp
Dr. G. Kroeber
Miss H. Leister
Miss E. Maurer
Mrs. H. Pfeiffer
Miss D. Schilken
Prof. Dr. E. Siegel
Miss E. Seidel
Dr. M. Stahl

GREECE:
Dr. P. Kyriazopoulos-Valinaki

INDIA:
Miss M. Chakko

ITALY:
Miss M. Altieri Bostio
Prof. M. Brasile
Prof. Dr. Jervolino
Dr. M. Loriga
Dr. M. Pignatari
Mrs. A. Sella Zuccarini

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Aast. P. Himago
Mr. T. Kato
E. Ogawa
Miss H. Otani
Prof. T. Tada
Mr. K. Takahashi
Mrs. S. Takei

Y. Yamamoto
Mr. H. Yoshida

JUGOSLAVIA:
Mrs. S. Jelie
Mrs. R. Milenkovic

NETHERLANDS:
Mr. O. Bottenga
Miss G. Gelauff
Mrs. E. Stumpf-Overhoff
Miss A. van Waeberge

MEXICO:
Mrs. E. Benavides
Miss M. Gutierrez

NEW ZEALAND:
Miss M. Patrick
Mrs. A. Johnson

NORWAY:
Miss T. Andresen
Miss A. Berentzen
Mrs. T. Berg
Miss R. Bloch-Hansen
Mrs. H. Dahl
Miss E. Esp
Miss E. Lepsøe
Mr. R. Lyseh
Mrs. L. Oysting
Mrs. S. Osthoen
Mrs. U. Risse
Miss B. Schiotz
Prof. A. Skard
Miss K. Stensrud
Mrs. A. Stogard
Mrs. R. Sund
Mrs. E. Wildhagen
Miss B. Bugge
Dr. T. Lunder
Miss Lea

RHODESIA and

NYASALAND:
Miss E. Knights

SIERRA LEONE:
Miss Noah
Miss L. Stuart
SOUTH AFRICA:
Mrs. A. Deeganhardt
Miss J. Hallett

SUDAN:
Mr. A. Badry

SWEDEN:
Miss M. Bergström
Miss R. Björkroth
Miss I. Brulin
Miss M. Fröjdsted
Mrs. Mélina
Dr. K. Melin
Miss D. Olsson
Miss I. Ridderström
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Miss L. Smedberg
Mrs. T. Torn
Dr. C. Ulfin
Miss E. Ullin
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Miss S. Roemer

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Miss M. Gruegeon
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Mr. P. Hartley
Miss O. Hastings
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Miss B. Wicksteed
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Mrs. E. Braucher
Miss J. Cauman
Miss L. Clark
Miss M. Everett
Mrs. R. French
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Mrs. S. Ginsberg
Miss A. Harbison
Dr. A. Hostler
Prof. A. Kehrer
Dr. L. Lindberg
Miss M. Maynard
Dr. L. Murphy
Dr. J. Palmer
Mrs. N. Stewart
Mrs. E. Tarnay
Prof. V. Theaman
Miss H. Warner
Miss M. Woodruff
## Composition of World Council of O.M.E.P.

**JULY 1962**

**Founder Presidents**  
Lady Allen of Hurtwood  
Mme. Herbinière Lebert  
Mrs. Alva Myrdal

**World President**  
Professor Asa Grude Skard

**Vice Presidents**  
Mlle. Alice Claret  
Mme. Herbinière Lebert  
Dr. Jens Sigsgaard  
Dr. Kothbauer

**Treasurer**  
Mr. Svend Klitgaard

### Members elected by their National Committees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>President</th>
<th>Address</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>Mrs. S. B. Denton</td>
<td>c/o Australian Pre-School Association, Acton Offices, Canberra City, Australia.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>Dr. Ernest Kothbauer</td>
<td>Österreichische Gesellschaft für die Fürsorge und Erziehung des Kleinkindes, Wein, 1. Schottenring 22, Austria.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>Mlle. Alice Claret</td>
<td>156 Avenue Winston Churchill, Brussels 18, Belgium.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>Mlle. Lacombe</td>
<td>117 Rue Sao Clements-Botafogo, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>Prof. G. Dolmage Bredin</td>
<td>1078 Grove Road, S.S.2., West Vancouver, B.C, Canada.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chili</td>
<td>Dr. Matilda Huici</td>
<td>Escuela de Educadores de Parvulos, Avenida Republica No, 217, Santiago, Chile.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>Dr. J. Sigsgaard</td>
<td>Rennebaerje 73, Holte, Denmark.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>Mme. S. Herbinière Lebert</td>
<td>154 Bd. Berthier, Paris 17e, France.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>Dr. Manfred Müller</td>
<td>Haus der Jugendarbeit, Haagerweg 44, Bonn-Venusberg. Germany.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Dr. S. Falans-Glueck</td>
<td>Director Kindergarten Department, Ministry of Education and Culture, Jaffa, Anerbach Str, 6, Israel.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>Mr. Svein Stenssasen</td>
<td>Anna Rogstadv 20, Oslo, Norway.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>Dr. Ruth S. Arndt</td>
<td>The Nursery School Association of S. Africa, P.O. Box 673, Pretoria, S. Africa.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>Miss L. Smedberg</td>
<td>Sandelsgat 21, Stockholm N.O., Sweden.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>Miss P. M. Pickard</td>
<td>Levicks, Ewhurst, Cranleigh, Surrey, England.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>Dr. L. Hooper</td>
<td>3615 Wisconsin Avenue, N.W., Washington 16, D.C., U.S.A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uruguay</td>
<td>Mme. Mazzella de Bevilaqua</td>
<td>Cuareim 1381, Montevideo, Uruguay.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yugoslavia</td>
<td>Mrs. Tatjana Marinić</td>
<td>Vlacka Ulica 11/1, Zagreb, Yugoslavia.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Observer from Preparatory Committee

Italy: Mrs. Sella Zuccarini

### Constituent Members in Laos

- Philippines
- Argentine
- Finland
- Switzerland
PREPARATORY COMMITTEE
Italy
Mrs. A. Sella Zuccarini
Via Della Baldiuna 120, Rome.
Italy.

News Letter
Editorial Board
Miss Roberts (Australia)
Mme. Herbinière Lebert (France)
Mrs. S. Ginsberg (USA)
Miss Pickard, Editor (UK)

The News Letter, in French and English, is available to all members of OMEP through National Chairmen.

Organisations with which O.M.E.P. Co-operates

Association Montessori International
Mr. Mario M. Montessori, Koninginneweg 161, Amsterdam, Holland.

International Association for the Advancement of Education Research
Dr. R. E. Planko, Universiteitstraat 14, Ghent, Belgium

International Bureau of Education (IBE)
Professor J. Piaget, Palais Wilson, Geneva, Switzerland

International Union for Child Welfare
Mr. R. Jossef-Chotzen, 1, rue de Varembe, Geneva, Switzerland

Instituto Interamericano del Nino
Dr. Victor Escuardo y Anaya, de Octubre 2882, Montevideo, Uruguay

UNESCO Institute for Education
Dr. S. B. Robinson, Feldbrunnenstrasse 70, Hamburg 13, Germany

United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF)
Mr. D. Haxton, U.N., New York, USA

United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO)
Dr. Shannon McCune, Place de Fontenoy, Paris 7e, France

World Confederation of Organisations of the Teaching Profession (WCOTP)
Dr. W. G. Carr, 1227 16th Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C., U.S.A.

World Federation of Mental Health

Constitution
STATUTES

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

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

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

ARTICLE IV.—Composition of the Organisation.
1. Members of the Organisation.
   1. The organisation will be composed of National Committees. There can be three different kinds of members.
   A. Constituent Members.
      a) Any government or government agency may designate a person to be admitted as a Constituent Member.
      b) Any national organisation may be admitted as a Constituent Member, provided that early childhood education is one of its main objects; it accepts the aims and objects of the Organisation; it agrees to submit each year a report of its activities.
   B. Associate Members.
      Organisations and Agencies whose work is closely related to early childhood education, and which accept the aims of the Organisation, may be admitted as Associate Members.
C. Individual Members.

Persons subscribing to the aims and objects of the Organisation may be admitted as Individual Members.

Individual Members shall undertake to pay an annual subscription.

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

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

II. Affiliation of International organisations.

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

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

ARTICLE V.—Organisation.

1. The Organisation shall carry out its purpose by the following means:

A. The Assembly.

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

B. The Council.

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

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

ARTICLE VI.—Revision of the Statutes.

1. Amendments to the Statutes or dissolution of the Organisation can only be decided by a vote of two-thirds of the accredited delegates to the Assembly. Any proposals concerning the Statutes or By-Laws, or the dissolution of the Organisation shall be submitted to the Headquarters 4 months before the Assembly, to the Council 90 days before the Assembly, and be communicated to the National Committee 2 months before the Assembly.

ARTICLE VII.—By-Laws.

1. The Assembly shall establish the By-Laws of the Organisation.

2. By-Laws may be amended by the Council subject to the approval of the Assembly.

ARTICLE VIII.—Working Languages.

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

ARTICLE IX.—Breach of Statutes and By-Laws.

1. The Council shall be empowered to examine any alleged breach of the Statutes or By-Laws.

ARTICLE X.—Headquarters of the Organisation.

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

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

ARTICLE IV.—National Committees.
1. National Committees shall:
   a) accept the Statutes of OMEP.
   b) be a national organisation with three kinds of members.
   c) present an annual report of their activities.
   d) pay an annual subscription to the Headquarters.
   e) nominate a delegate to the Council and his deputy.
   f) after the election of a President, the National Committee concerned shall appoint another representative to fill the vacancy on the Council.
2. Preparatory Committees shall be recognised as National Committees after application to the Headquarters and agreements of the Council and approval of the Assembly.
3. The procedure of recognition or withdrawal of qualification of National Committees will be found in an Addendum voted by the Assembly.

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

O.M.E.P. International Headquarters

World President
Professor Asge Grude Skard
2, Fjellevejen, Lysaker,
Oslo, Norway.

Copies of this Report may be obtained from The World President,
Chairmen of National Committees, or
The Secretary of the British National Committee of OMEP,
18A, Keswick Road,
Boscombe,
Bournemouth,
Price 6/- (post free)

For particulars of the French Edition apply to Mme. Herbinière Lebert,
134, Bd. Berthier, Paris, 17e.

Published with a subvention from UNESCO