THE TEACHER AND THE POST-WAR CHILD IN WAR-DEVASTATED COUNTRIES

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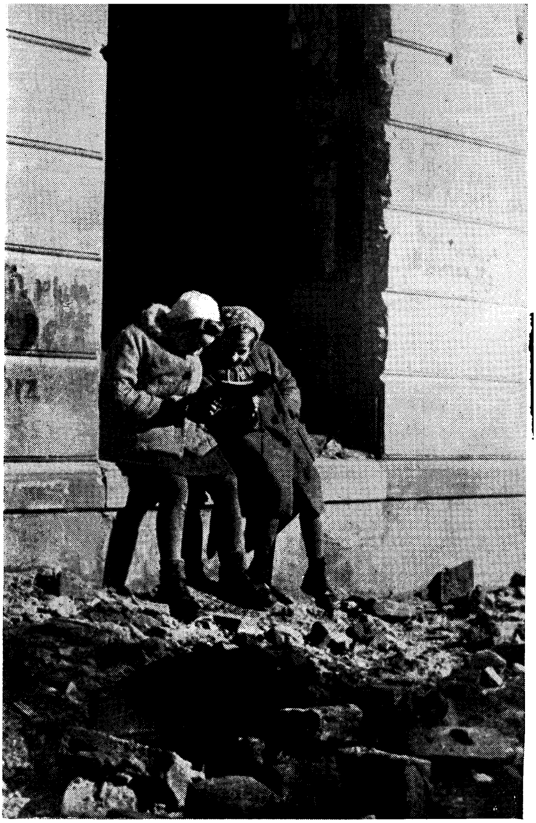
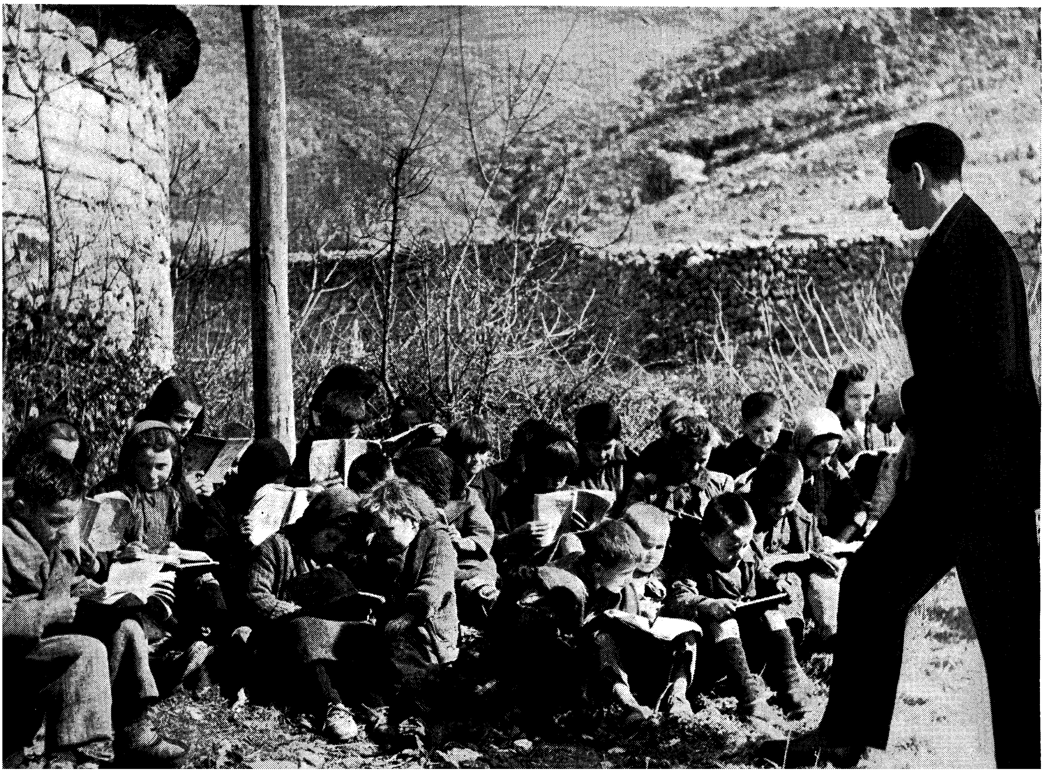

THE TEACHER
AND THE
POST-WAR CHILD

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In War-Devastated Countries

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INTRODUCTION

A very successful Norwegian educator at the close of her first year of teaching after the war declared, " This was the hardest year of teaching I have ever had. I have had to face more problems in this one year than in all my years of teaching before this. The children seemed so different . . . and perhaps I was different, too."

A wise and a sensitive teacher. And scores like her in every war-devastated country will testify to the truth of her statement. The boys and girls in to-day's schools *are* different. Their parents and associates are different. Their teachers are different. Their environment is different. The world has changed as a result of years of carnage and suffering, and many men and women everywhere are aware that education must adapt itself to these changes.

As the schools of the world re-open this fall, teachers are faced with tremendous difficulties. Many schools will have no buildings to which they can return ; others will have cramped quarters in private homes, in churches, in stores. Many schools will have little equipment with which to carry on their activities ; in others a textbook, a copy-book, a pencil or crayon will be a rare sight.

Among the children who crowd the classrooms will be orphan children, crippled children, children with tuberculosis infection or tuberculosis disease. And there will be children and young people who have taken part in the underground movements and in the war itself ; boys and girls who have earned their own living or obtained it by one device or another ; children who are already adults in the responsibilities they have assumed and the experiences they have undergone.

Many of these boys and girls are restless, nervous, irritable, suspicious, arrogant, hard—on the surface at least. Every disciplinary problem which existed in the pre-war school will be evident in the post-war period ; several of them will be magnified many times.

These and many other problems will confront the teacher who takes up his work again this year. His is no easy task, but it is a highly important one in any period of history, and of priority one importance in the new age which is now emerging. The attitudes which will be formed, the skills which will be acquired, the knowledge which will be gained, and the experiences which will be provided in the schools of war-devastated countries this year and in the years immediately ahead will have a profound effect on the future, not only of individuals but also of communities, nations and the world.

The faith and courage and intelligence and ingenuity of teachers who have lived through three-four-five-six-seven years of war and have coped with the problems of those horrible years are equal to the post-war period. Teachers who have had to live in the past and the present can now live in the present and the future. Teachers who have been isolated from one another for the greater part of a decade can now begin to communicate with one another. Teachers who have carried on school in secrecy, can now carry on school in the open with the support of children, parents, communities, national governments, international organisations. These and many other advantages will help the teacher in this post-war period.

In an effort to help the teacher still further, this booklet has been prepared as an elementary handbook of some of the questions which teachers are asking in all the war-devastated countries. The questions have been submitted by teachers in various countries, working under varying circumstances. Not all of them will apply to any given classroom or any given school, although we feel that they are representative questions. The answers have been obtained by consulting psychologists concerned with children affected by war-conditions, by consulting classroom teachers who have wrestled with these problems in their own schools, and by consulting medical and educational authorities on the special problems relating to disease and to handicapped children.

The experiences of the readers of this booklet in coping with these and similar problems will be welcomed by Unesco, as well as indications as to other questions which confront teachers in these war-devastated areas.

The answers in this booklet are as brief as possible, as practical as we could make them and as specific as the subject matter permits. Oftentimes the space given to the analysis is disproportionate to that accorded to the solutions. We trust that further research on these problems in different countries will help achieve a better balance eventually. As a background for such experiments, an understanding of these problems is absolutely essential, hence the lengthy analytical treatment which, it is hoped, will be helpful.

There is considerable overlapping between questions and answers, as many of these problems are inter-related. Each question deserves a book or books to handle it authoritatively, exhaustively. But the classroom teacher is a busy person, and time will permit but brief reading. Besides, this booklet does not try to give all the answers; many of them are not known and many of them depend upon the teacher and the situation in which he or she confronts them. This booklet intends to help stimulate the search for the best education for the greatest number of children in a world weary of war and its after-math, and convinced that "since wars arise in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defences of peace must be constructed."*

I. What can we as teachers provide for our children?

Crowded together in make-shift school buildings, with little or no equipment with which to learn, large groups of children in war-devastated countries are spending a great part of their waking hours with one adult—the teacher. Day after day, week after week, month after month, these groups are entrusted to the guidance of one individual. Sobered by this fact, the teacher quite rightly asks, "What are the most important things I can give these boys and girls with whom I share this large proportion of time during their formative years?"

And the reply comes—food, clothing, shelter or warmth. These are major needs in any group; one is more acutely aware of them where they have been scarce or non-existent. These are the basic necessities which the home and community should provide, but the school as a community institution shares in the responsibility, even though it may be only in the distribution of food or clothing or in the provision of some shelter or warmth. Any good teacher, anywhere in the world, will consider the fulfilment of these needs as basic to the more specialized job which he or she is expected to undertake.

When these needs are met by the family, the government, the school and other agencies as adequately as is possible, what then can the teacher give?

Sincere, affectionate understanding is probably the greatest gift a teacher can transmit to his or her pupils. This feeling of being appreciated, of being understood, of being respected as a unique individual is as essential to the growth of a child emotionally and intellectually as water and sunshine are to the growth of plant life. Children are sensitive to the feelings of others and when a teacher really cares about a pupil, he is aware of that fact and the proper climate for growth has been created. Conversely, when a teacher dislikes or disregards a pupil, even without expressing this feeling in words, the child senses this reaction and a poor climate for growth is developed.

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* Excerpt from the Preamble to the Constitution of Unesco.

Therefore the basic and most essential job of a teacher is to create within himself, within the classroom and within the school community an atmosphere based on the attitudes of respect, of kindness, of understanding between children and between adults and children. When such an atmosphere exists, education is already taking place.

Such an atmosphere, however, must be based not only on love and affection, but also upon as thorough and objective a knowledge of each pupil as is possible. Ideally this would mean a study of every child—his health, his family, his family background, his native ability, his interests, his skills, his attitudes. Such thorough studies are impossible to-day in most schools, but the wise and sensitive teacher will learn as much about each pupil as is possible and adapt his teaching to these individual differences, so that *every* child is given a sense of accomplishment within the school group, whether the contribution he makes is large or small—depending upon his individual talents. Many teachers have found a thorough study of one child provocative of thought, and helpful in handling others of that age group.

In addition to developing attitudes in children and meeting their individual needs, the teacher has a real obligation to develop the basic skills of reading, writing, arithmetic, and a host of other skills such as those involved in elementary science and social studies. The newer emphasis upon the development of attitudes as an important function of education is not intended to supplant the acquisition of skills, but to supplement them. In war-devastated countries much time has been lost and children are oftentimes woefully backward in these skills ; their importance cannot be minimized.

The teacher can likewise foster the child's inquisitiveness, and help to satisfy his curiosity about himself and the world about him. It is incumbent upon the teacher to discover what the children are curious about, and to capitalize upon that curiosity. It is a well-known axiom of education that where there is interest, learning takes place more rapidly and is longer retained. It is the duty and privilege of a teacher to arouse and to foster this sense of inquiry, of satisfying one's curiosity, of exploring one's interests. This may occasionally lead to digression from the regular outline of study, but they will often be useful digressions and stimulate the learning process.

The teacher also has an obligation to impart authoritative knowledge. Boys and girls are often keen judges of teachers and teaching. They respect the adult for what he knows as well as what he is. Having lost years of education, the older ones in particular are anxious to acquire knowledge. They expect the teacher to be able to furnish them with such facts or at least to help them find the sources of the knowledge they desire. Having been subjected to all kinds of propaganda, many boys and girls to-day are incredulous ; they will challenge everything.

The wise teacher can share his knowledge and the sources for further knowledge. And he or she will not be surprised or displeased if every fact is challenged. Indeed, this can be used as one opportunity for developing critical thinking. The expert teacher will also be willing to admit his or her ignorance, and exhibit a willingness to set out in a common search to find the answers.

The mere accumulation of knowledge and skills is undesirable, however, and at times even dangerous. Recent history illustrates all too clearly that peoples possessing a high degree of literacy and a vast amount of technical knowledge and skill, may misuse and abuse that knowledge to the detriment of the entire world.

With the breakdown of civilization twice within this century and the unleashing of atomic energy, men and women everywhere are convinced that we must acquire knowledge and skill and transmit them to future generations, but that we must achieve something much greater and much more important—the discovery and transmission of ideals and standards of conduct. An English educator, Sir Richard Livingstone, in his book "*Education for a World Adrift*," maintains that education must help to develop standards, a philosophy of life; a principle by which to judge and rule it; a formula or formulas to integrate our civilization; some knowledge of the "science of good and evil." Further on he suggests that "The most indispensable viaticum for the journey of life is a store of adequate ideals, and these are acquired in a very simple way, by living with the best things in the world—the best pictures, the best buildings, the best social or political orders, the best human beings."

Teachers can help their pupils to develop such standards, such sets of values, such integrating principles—a philosophy of life. Otherwise one may challengingly pose the question—education, for what?

Many of the children of to-day have been deprived of their rightful inheritance of joy and happiness through play, through parental and familial love, through access to beauty and through a partial protection against the grim and sordid side of life. Through the school as well as in other ways, society must now pay them its long-overdue debt—even if only in part. Every opportunity must be embraced to help children experience the beauty in nature, in music, in art, in handicraft, in literature, in human beings. They must be given a chance to see the good in the world; they have far too long seen an over-abundance of evil. Balance must again be attained. This, too, the teacher can help to achieve.

What then, are the most important things we can give our children? A national Commission on Teacher Training in the U.S. recently answered this question in this way:—

"... sincere respect for every child, a clear sense of professional obligation to help every child, a vigorous interest in securing competent professional diagnosis and treatment of any suspected pathological condition and a strong code of professional ethics that governs all dealings with children and their parents, and regulates the safeguarding and use of all information about individuals."

The National Committee for Mental Hygiene in Canada has produced a "Chart of Child Needs" in which it lists the following as essentials for the full development of boys and girls: emotional affection (feeling of being loved), belonging (feeling of being wanted by the group), independence (feeling of management and directing own life), achievement (satisfaction from making things and doing jobs), social approval (feeling that others approve of conduct and efforts), self-esteem (feeling of being worthwhile), intellectual (for training in ability to think clearly and solve problems widely), character and social (for developing ability to live with others in a co-operative and worthy way), and physical (for developing a healthy body and good health habits).

Two English psychologists wrote on the same question after their experiences with small children in war-time nursery schools, evacuated from bombed-out cities:

"Wherever certain essential needs are not fulfilled, lasting psychological malformations will be the consequence. These essentials are: the need for personal attachment, for emotional stability, and for permanency of educational influence."

Considering the same question, a teacher of children who have come out of concentration camps, has written:—

"What they must get from us is a sense of security and continuity in their relationship, in their environment and in their training. We must give them happy experiences worth remembering."

Sincere, affectionate understanding; a chance for every child to develop his or her unique personality and to contribute something to the life of the group; aid in satisfying their quest for knowledge and skill; help in learning how to think and act; contact with beauty in every form; and assistance in developing a philosophy of life—these are some of the fundamental ingredients in the education of the post-war child which the teacher can give his pupils.

2. Should we be teaching the same subjects to-day as we taught before the war, or have the experiences of the war years made changes necessary in the school curriculum?

Educational systems reflect the ways of thinking and ways of living of different societies and as such will never be completely uniform. But it is possible to see certain trends developing in various parts of the world as a result of searching inquiries by educators and laymen on the aims of education and the methods of achieving those aims. In several countries this reconsideration of education has resulted in curriculum changes made by the national or local governments.* For older boys and girls there is considerable divergence of opinion as to what should be taught, but for young children there seems to be much more unanimity of opinion.

Most of the subjects which have always been considered basic, are still basic to-day—such as reading, writing, and arithmetic. The methods by which they are taught are changing, but the subjects are very much a part of the curriculum everywhere.

There is an increasing recognition, however, oi the rights of the child—the right to happiness both in and out of school, the right to his full individual development, the right to be guided into an understanding of the human and physical world in which he lives. There is a greater awareness than ever before that such happiness and growth depend upon the child's physical and mental health; upon the exercise of discipline developed from within rather than imposed from without; upon the encouragement of individual abilities as well as the acquisition of the skills needed by all; upon an appreciation of beauty and a chance to develop self-expression through some form of creative art; upon the ability to communicate with others; upon an understanding of the scientific age in which we live and an ability to adjust to it and make use of it for worthy ends; and upon an intelligent participation in the life of the society or societies of which one is a member.

Recognition of these rights has led to curriculum changes in many places. Some of these are outlined below :—

Health Education :

When observance of the simple rules of bodily cleanliness, of proper sleep, of as much sunshine and fresh air as is possible, may mean the difference between life and death and the difference between combatting epidemics and helping them to spread, Health Education looms large in the work of the classroom teacher. Most teachers will want to advise and consult with the local authorities to see in what ways they can be of help to them in combatting disease and stengthening their pupils. Teachers will want to teach some of the elementary facts about health, and encourage the children to make up simple plays about them, draw posters to help combat disease, and listen to talks and watch demonstrations arranged by government health authoiities. In the school itself teachers will want to carry out these simple rules of health by taking their classes outdoors as much as possible, by having nap periods for the smaller children, and by insuring the most complete sanitation possible

* For a further elaboration of these changes see question 22.

in the buildings. Close co-operation should be encouraged with the home on all these points.

Communication :

Written communication has always been an important part of school in every part of the world. It will undoubtedly remain so. But educators in various parts of the world are more and more stressing the fact that most children will communicate orally most of the time. With this fact in mind, they are emphasizing the importance of oral communication as an essential of classroom work, particularly with small children. Teachers in war-devastated countries may want to consider the merits and demerits of this emphasis.

The Creative Arts :

The more the psychologists delve into the inner life of children, the more importance they attach to music, painting, rhythms, dancing, plays, and all forms of handicraft for small children. These activities release children from all kinds of inhibitions which need channels for positive outlet. Imagination and creativity are an integral part of boys and girls and need to be provided for in their learning experiences. No teacher can supervise all these subjects, but he or she can provide the ways and means for something of the creative arts in the life of his or her school children, and can often enlist the aid of others in the community in other phases of this work.

Science :

The mechanization of the modern world and the discoveries of recent months and years have made educators realise that we are living in an industrial world, and that our education must help us prepare for such a life. Scientific interests are most likely to develop in the young adolescent, but teachers are more and more trying to help young children understand and appreciate the world around them by observance and understanding of the simple phenomena of nature in the weather, in the growth of crops, in changes in seasons, in the stars, and in a simple understanding of human growth and development. With very young children much of this is intended to cultivate and feed the sense of wonder in them, as well as to help them achieve a feeling of at-homeness in the universe and to give them a sense of the permanent and imperishable.

Social Studies and Civic Education :

There is a noticeable trend all over the world to combine geography and history into what some people are calling the social studies, and to have children study ways of living in their own immediate environment first, then in different parts of the world under widely varying conditions. This approach is based on the theory that children are most interested in their first few years in the world in which they live—which is the local community—then in the world into which they are growing—which is their nation and the world. With the development of world communication, world transportation, world government, more and more attention is being given with older students to world geography and world history and simple international relations and current affairs.

Combined with this is the emphasis upon the school and classroom as laboratories in citizenship training. It is increasingly realized that the basic attitudes and actions which are developed in the human relationships of the classroom and school are those which will be applied later to civic, national and world affairs. Bearing this fact in mind, more and more teachers are looking upon their classrooms as miniature democracies in which future citizens of the community, nation and world are being trained.

3. Our school buildings are destroyed or badly damaged. How can we teach under such conditions ?

Twisted steel girders and crumbled concrete, charred timbers and red-powdered remnants of brick walls, are gaunt reminders in all the war-devastated countries of the school buildings which once served society. In many instances the damage is irreparable. In some places, the courageous action of parents, teachers and governments has already brought about reconstruction. In thousands of towns and villages, there is the will to repair and rebuild, but materials and money are lacking.

Meanwhile, teachers ask how they can adjust to such conditions. And at the same time as they ask the question, they are answering it by courageously carrying on classes in churches, temples, private homes, attics, cellars, tents, barns, abandoned factories or mills—wherever there is shelter.

Some schools have wisely shifted their time schedules so that education can be carried on in the summer months, just as schools changed their programs during the war to save fuel by having long vacation periods in the winter. This is more difficult in rural areas where the children are needed to help cultivate and harvest the crops, but it is possible in many localities.

In quite a number of communities, teachers and pupils have devoted some of their precious school time to the work of rebuilding damaged schools or helping to construct new buildings. Where this can be done as an integral part of the school program, under the skilled direction of local craftsmen, it can be a very valuable educational experience. The use of tools, the drawing of plans, the mathematical calculations, the group experience of working together, are all a part of learning and should be welcomed as a most realistic approach to education. This is particularly true with older boys, whose experience of adult life during the war years has tended to make them highly critical of the school as unrealistic. Nor should the psychological effect of such work be overlooked. Participation in any such project can develop a spirit of interest in the school, a sense of concrete accomplishment, and a feeling of partial ownership—all of which are to be encouraged.

Where schools do have to endure bitter cold weather, high winds, and lack of fuel, the length of the school day will of course need to be shortened. Little learning takes place when children are so uncomfortable physically that they cannot concentrate on their studies. Teachers and students may go through the routine of learning, but learning does not necessarily follow. Under such conditions, when students insist on continuing school, as they are doing in many, many places because of their eagerness to learn, special attention must be given to warming exercise at frequent intervals. These may vary from brief group calisthenics to group games with small sandbags to replace the all too precious bean-bags of the days when food was more plentiful. Occasionally, ingenious teachers and students have contrived games which involve mathematical, geographical or other knowledge. Aside from the physical exercise, and in some instances, the information these games provide, there is much value in the fun which teachers and pupils have *together* in this way. If rightly entered into, they can enhance rather than detract from the relationship between pupils and teachers.

In some places school is being carried on in the ruins of the old building, when it might better be carried on elsewhere. Attachment to the old school, even if in ruins, is understandable, but not always commendable. During bad weather, school must of course seek any available shelter, but there is nothing sacred about a school site or school building, and if a better spot can be found elsewhere, it ought to be used. Apart from practical considerations, the psychological effect of studying in a bombed building is not good when teachers are trying to develop in children whose early years have been overburdened with sorrow and suffering a spirit of joy, of optimism, of looking to the future. Wherever and whenever possible, schools should avail themselves of the seashore or lake shore, the olive grove or apple orchard, some site overlooking a fjord or some other spot of native beauty. The atmosphere in which study is carried on is important, and the out-of-doors is an ideal place to meet whenever possible. In some countries schools are actually being built to provide " open-air " classrooms when the weather permits.

In some localities the possibility has been realistically faced that there will be no really adequate rebuilding program for years, and these communities have laid out for themselves a program of minor improvements, some of which can be made each year over a long period of time. In this way they hope not only to achieve more in the way of actual reconstruction and refurnishing of schools, but also to develop the feeling of accomplishment as they slowly progress towards their long-term goals.

Thus, courageously, imaginatively, teachers and students are carrying on in war-devastated countries, even without school buildings,—realizing that education is a process rather than a place, and as such can continue even under the most primitive conditions.

4. We have very few textbooks for our classes. What can we do under such circumstances ?

A report from Poland on education in that country reveals several ways in which teachers have partially overcome the handicap of having few textbooks for their classes.

In several cases older brothers and sisters have spent long hours typing out in duplicate entire textbooks or parts thereof, making this a part of their contribution to the education of their family and friends.

In a few cases business firms with mimeographing machines have been persuaded or have volunteered to use this equipment to duplicate lesson outlines or parts of textbooks, since the printing of new textbooks is still quite curtailed.

In many schools the lessons for the day are copied on the blackboard or substitute blackboard by a child who volunteers to do this job before the opening of school. This in itself is a good exercise which can be turned over to a more capable child in the group, and his work carefully checked by the teacher. It likewise enlists the interest of a child and gives him or her a sense of accomplishment and important participation in the work of teaching.

Where paper is available or notebooks can be purchased (usually at exorbitant prices) groups of children have made their own group textbook, sharing in the selection of materials, taking turns in preparing parts of the notebook, studying together from " their " book as it is assembled. Ideally, each student should be able to prepare his own book, but paper shortages to-day make this impossible. On the other hand there are distinct advantages in this group method of learning, as elaborated by a Dutch educator, who writes :—

" In some subjects, e.g., in pedagogics and Dutch, group-tasks are set. Four or five students study the task together ; in turn they are writer, leader or simple worker. The gusto for their work, the increased neatness, the wish to excel as a group, the unrestrained way of intercourse, the necessity of learning to get on with each other, all these and many others are striking characteristics of this manner of working. The inner activity, which ultimately furthers growth most of all, is far more stimulated in the group than in the ' hermit-study ' at home or by working separately in exclusive classroom teaching."

"The pupil has much more satisfaction in his work. He learns fewer things by heart, but he understands the relationship between things oftener and more thoroughly. The potentialities slumbering in the pupils have probably been roused more in general, have been activated more powerfully and brought to a more complete functioning—which is the main purpose of teaching."

In many schools study outlines, pictures, charts, and graphs have been developed on long sheets of paper and then posted around the room to be used by the entire class and by on-coming classes. When boys and girls know that paper is scarce and that their work will be posted and used by other children and even other classes, they usually take great care and pride in the preparation of such study materials. This device also has the advantage of transforming the classroom from a dull room without any personal touch into a colorful laboratory or workshop, to which the children have contributed and towards which they have a feeling of partial ownership.

There is no doubt that the textbook has been the greatest aid to the teacher in the past, but in many cases it has had an unfortunate monopoly. The community or town, for example, can be looked upon by the teacher as a textbook or a whole series of textbooks. One volume is that of local history. Another is a volume on science, with long chapters on geology, botany, entomology, ornithology. Another might be on local folklore, music, dancing and handicraft. The pages of these volumes lie open to the imaginative, resourceful teacher just as they did to Heinrich Pestalozzi, the great Swiss educator, when he developed his advanced ideas on education with a group of orphans without educational equipment except for the cracked walls of an old castle—and the great out-of-doors.

If children are encouraged to bring in specimens of rocks, birds, flowers, leaves and bark of trees, these can be arranged and labelled quite simply and serve as a museum or science textbook. Brief walking trips around the community to see such sights should be an integral part of any school program.

People in the local community constitute another substitute for textbooks, and in some instances they prove far more interesting than the written word. Men and women who have travelled, those who read well or are good story-tellers, those who have managed to salvage old costumes or pictures—all these and others can be drawn upon as human textbooks. Care must often be exercised in the choice of such persons and in the way their information is presented, checked, and used; yet they can not only contribute to the lives of children, but can achieve a sense of satisfaction themselves in having contributed to the education of others.

Where there are newspapers, they can also be used as textbooks. The names of the places mentioned can be used for simple geography lessons, and leading articles on world affairs for teaching current events and history. Words used in the articles can serve as the basis for spelling lessons. And the stories referring to science can be used for lessons in that subject. Students can be led eventually into developing their own classroom newspaper after a careful study of a good paper or a variety of newspapers (in order to avoid any charges of politics in the classroom).

Where pictures or newspaper clippings are available, scrapbooks can be assembled by children with great pleasure as well as educational profit. These can also be passed on to other children and groups and used by them as textbooks.

The experience of doing without textbooks, difficult as it is, may even help us to enlarge our conception of education to include a wider variety of "supplementary textbooks" such as has been suggested.

5. We have no educational materials. Do you have suggestions for teaching under such conditions ?

Several suggestions along this line have already been made in the foregoing question. Here we shall attempt to carry still further this extremely important aspect of discovering and making educational materials. In all this work there is much to be gained by the students doing the work themselves, or with the help of parents.

Blackboards are of course extremely important, as they can be used for demonstration purposes *with* large groups of children as well as *by* large numbers. Often rough slate can be found in the neighbourhood or obtained by trade from a distance. Where that cannot be done, the walls of the schoolroom can be painted with a special black paint concocted by some local painter. Where that is impossible and wood is not too scarce, a board of the right size can be made and at least two coats of special paint applied to make a smooth writing surface. In some places compressed fibre building board known as " hardboard " has been used as an admirable substitute. Manufactured in Canada, Finland, Italy, Sweden, the United Kingdom and United States, it has proved of great value.

Boards of " sawdust cement " are also used. These consist of softwood sawdust, cement and lime mixed together in the proportion of one part cement, two to three parts sawdust, and one third part hydrated lime. To them is added sufficient water to bring it to a consistency of moist earth. It is allowed to stand for a half-hour and more water added if necessary. Put into prepared wooden moulds, oiled as if for ordinary cement purposes, the mixture is then pressed in by hand and trowel to make the surface smooth. After twenty-four hours this is taken out of the mould and allowed to mature under damp sacks for a week before drying. This substance warps easily and should therefore not be less than 2.5 cm. thick, and the drying done slowly and evenly on both faces. It can be drilled, nailed or sawn when thoroughly dry, and the surface painted. If desired, 5 per cent of carbon black, lamp black or black pigment can be used in the original mixture.

Still another type of blackboard can be made by painting a smooth wood surface with adhesive paste (preferably with gum arabic added), on which charcoal can be used. This has also been used as a substitute for individual slates.

Chalk.

Two methods of making chalk are suggested as having proved successful in many instances :—

(*a*) Mix plaster of Paris into a smooth cream paste with water ; pour into wooden or clay moulds. This must be done quickly, as the material hardens rapidly.

(*b*) Prepare 2 kg. of plaster by grinding and sieving it ; mix with approximately 2.2 kg. of water. If only a small quantity of plaster of Paris is available, it is as well to use a small quantity of it instead of the plaster, as it quickens the set. Soak together for two minutes, then stir, strain and allow to stand until the mixture has thickened to a pourable consistency. Stir and pour into moulds.

Moulds for chalk may be prepared in the following way :—

Moulds can be made of wood. Two identical grooved plates should be fastened together in which about twenty chalks at a time can be set. Moulds can also be made by taking a thick block of damp clay and making a series of holes with a peg, corresponding to the required size of the stick of chalk. Cut across the holes while the clay is damp and allow the two parts to dry. When the mould is needed, fasten the halves together tightly. When the chalk has set, separate the parts of the mould and dry the chalk at a temperature lower than 65 degrees Centigrade.

Charcoal.

Charcoal for writing on the surfaces mentioned above may be prepared as follows :—

Fill a cocoa or similar tin, which has a well fitting lid, with twigs of various thicknesses, after boring a small hole in the centre of the lid. Place the tin in or on a fire and good charcoal will be produced. The stream of vapour which issues from the lid will within a few minutes become inflammable, and when this burning has ceased the operation is complete. It takes about five to ten minutes and will produce sticks of charcoal similar in consistency to chalk.

Maps.

The bare white surface of a room can sometimes be used for a large wall map of a country, a continent or even the world, so that it can be seen and used by all the pupils for a variety of purposes. Experience leads one to urge that such maps be kept very simple rather than trying to load them with a mass of detail.

Maps can also be made in sand trays, easily constructed by students or parents, or where these are lacking, in dirt trays—much less satisfactory, but suitable in an emergency.

If calico is available, a large wall map can be made with Indian ink.

Globes.

For the teaching of world geography, globes are indispensable. They can be made by cutting strips of cloth or any material, sewing them together and filling them with sawdust or other material after stitching upon them, preferably in coloured thread, the outlines of the main land areas. Efforts to make a globe by interlacing wires and placing a cover upon them have not proved very successful. If rubber balloons were available, it would be possible to use them inside a cover which had been previously painted. On that cover it would be possible to mark the main land areas and lines of latitude and longitude.

Music.

In some English schools children have made their own pipes, decorated them and formed small orchestras of considerable merit, thus making practical connections between handicraft, art and music. As a rule hollow bamboos have been used as material, for treble pipes twelve inches and for alto pipes sixteen inches in length ; but elder wood has been employed as a substitute. Eight notes can be played by using the eight holes bored in the pipe. For the mouthpiece, which must be cut to shape, a cork is also necessary.

A simple, though more primitive, possibility lies in the use of jars or bottles which can be filled with water to various levels so as to produce the notes of the scale when struck with a stick or piece of metal.

Puppetry.

" Glove puppetry " again combines handwork and exercises in language with a minimum of material. The glove puppets are shown above a screen that hides the performer, who thus escapes from the shyness which often overtakes children when trying to act.

A puppet head should be not less than the size of the performer's closed hand and may be merely a silhouette cut out of stiff paper or cardboard. This should have a loop on the back, so that it will fit on to the finger. The more serviceable type is modelled from clay or papier mache with a cardboard tube in the middle which slides on to the finger.

The usual way of working the puppet is to put the head on the first finger and cover the remainder of the hand with cloth. If the head is placed on the first finger of the right hand, the second finger will become the puppet's right arm and the thumb its left arm. The cloth covering the performer's hand can be the puppet's dress. A more elaborate method is to make a glove to cover the hand and then add a dress over it. The puppet is realistic enough without legs though those can be sewn on to the front of the glove if desired.

Arts and Crafts.

Tools and media for writing, drawing, painting or pattern work can be simply made from materials that are available.

A feather, damped and smoothed downwards into a point, provides a readymade brush capable of bold or delicate work in outline or mass. Effective lettering suitable for large sheets can be done with the feather, and excellent pens for large lettering can also be made by cutting a cane or reed into a pen with a broad nib. For smaller work a quill of goose, turkey or crow is useful, but the rigidity of home-made nibs from fine canes is helpful for young children. The cane nib gives a smooth continuous line for drawing, while a burnt stick provides a clear dry line.

Soot mixed with cold water and strained through a fine net makes an effective writing ink, or a good medium for monochrome wash paint. Ready-made colors are quickly obtained by crushing fresh leaves and petals—sometimes with a drop of water added to assist the process—and crushed berries undiluted provide potent colors. The pigments obtained from dandelion, marigold, geranium, elder or scraps of cabbage leaf, by the simple crushing process approximate to the natural color of the plant ; it is possible to obtain materials by boiling from walnut shells and onion skins ; blacks can be obtained from burning date or grape stones, but soot and lamp black provide a readier source.

Chalk, apart from its obvious use on slate or old linoleum, makes a body color when mixed with water. A pigment binder, such as mucilage from plants, or a gluey solution from fish or animal offal, can be used.

Chalk is also a first-rate medium for penknife carving ; clay for modelling in slab or round form for coiled and hand-made pottery is available in many districts ; papier mache from scraps of waste paper can be employed in making tray and bowl shapes and puppet heads.

The following mixture will not harden and can be used again and again :—

> " Grind up ordinary ashes from the fire until they are fine and smooth ; add a small quantity of slaked lime and mix together with a little water."

For modelling material which will harden and take paint, the following has been recommended where flour is available :—

> " To make one cup of flour paste, as follows :— Take one tablespoon of flour, mix to a smooth paste with a little cold water, add enough boiling water to make the mixture about the consistency of thick soup, add a teaspoonful of alum ; then add a smooth and whitening stuff, such as is used for whitewashing buildings, until the mixture is like dough and suitable for modelling."

For adhesives, the infusion of certain seeds and roots, as linseed, quince, marshmallow, acacia, cherry trees, and certain stems such as bluebell, are said to be useful ; but bone glue, skin glue and fish glue can be obtained by boiling and skimming unwanted fats.

Counters and matching equipment can be made from acorns, shells, coloured straws or match sticks. Storage receptacles can be provided by baskets made from willow or hazel twigs, rushes or straw.

Arithmetic.

The teaching of arithmetic can be carried on realistically and effectively without much material. Children can learn to take attendance and keep simple attendance records ; make calendars and keep graphs of weather changes ; measure heights and keep records of growth of the children in the classroom, of plants, and pets ; and other similar activities involving simple mathematics and at the same time developing responsibilities.

In teaching simple arithmetic, strings knotted at correct intervals provide rules for measuring. The study of plants, grown from seeds in the classrooms, affords a root from which education in many directions may branch out.

Spelling.

For teaching spelling each child can be provided with a pack of letters made of cardboard, with which amusing competitions can be held. Stories told by the teachers can be retold by the children, and dramatized by them.

Making Balls.

Unfortunately no method of improvising a large bouncing ball has been discovered, but a non-bouncing ball is better than nothing. For many minor games a felt or other strong material cover filled with coir, kapok, newspaper, rags or sawdust is quite effective. Sawdust filling makes the heaviest ball. The material should be cut on the straight and not on the cross, and half-inch seams should be allowed. Cut six sections and also circular pieces for top and bottom. The case should be filled from the side, a gap being left in one seam for the purpose.

Another type of ball can be made by winding strips of thin rag round a large cork until it is approximately the size desired. Then sew down the end and make the " skin " by crocheting with string.

Still another variety of ball can be made as follows :—

Thoroughly wet a double sheet of newspaper and a piece of brown paper about a quarter of its size. Mould the newspaper into a round ball, making the outer surface as smooth as possible ; then cover this newspaper ball with two or three layers of wet brown paper ; squeeze out as much water as possible and tie a length of strong string once round the paper ball, tying the ends at the top, so dividing the ball into two sections. Use another piece of string to divide the ball into four sections ; repeat twice more so that there are finally eight divisions like the sections of an orange ; do not tie the strings too tightly. You are now ready to weave the cover. Two lengths of thread, each about three metres long, will be found sufficient. Use fine string and a short, strong, blunted needle or a small bodkin. Fasten the end of the thread firmly to the top of the ball where the strings have been tied. Working from left to right, clockwise, round the ball, weave round the strings by passing the needle over and backwards under each string. Having completed one round, finish off. Start the second round at the other end of the ball. Always work from top and bottom alternately towards the centre. Try to press each round of string close together so as to cover the brown paper. Next press the ball into shape by rolling along the floor with the foot, and allow to dry. Cover the string with a fine coating of glue, as this will help to keep the string in its place and to keep the ball dry. This type of ball can be made very cheaply and quickly and different colored thread or string coverings may be used.

An improvised hoop can be made from willow sapling : thoroughly dry the switch, bend it into a circle of the required size and bind with strips of any strong material cut on the cross.

6. There is a great shortage of teachers and our classes are consequently very large. How can we devise ways of handling such large groups ?

To cope with a group of students ranging from 50 to 150 is a tremendous task and one which few teachers outside the war-devastated countries have ever faced. Adjustments have been made, however, to these appalling conditions, and the experiences of different teachers under such circumstances can be shared and adapted to similar conditions elsewhere.

Large groups like these can be broken into smaller units, and older or better students used as tutors or teacher assistants. A Belgian teacher who has tried this plan recommends highly that these positions of teacher assistants be made quite coveted posts. She recommends further that a panel or group of assistants be selected and the younger students allowed to choose their " tutor " or helper. In this way the rapport between student and tutor is good, and discipline becomes a minor rather than a major problem. This relationship can help the learning situation immeasurably. These helpers or assistants should meet occasionally at special times, to prepare themselves further for their work.

In some instances, interested mothers or graduates of the school will volunteer to act as teacher assistants one or two days or afternoons a week. Where this is done, relations between the home and school may be strengthened However, the wisdom of using parents and older students at the same time is dubious.

A great many communities have found it feasible to invite retired school teachers to return to the schools, but in most instances they have found it wise to give them only part-time work or to give them very small groups of children so as not to drain their limited energy. The same procedure has been followed with married women who were formerly teachers and whose home responsiblities have permitted them to give a limited amount of their time to teaching. It is advisable to have a large percentage of young teachers in any group of teacherss but the contributions which older teachers can make should not be overlooked.

In some schools the older students have been put in charge of the play periods, and the younger children have been sent out in shifts during the day. Consequently there are fewer children to be handled in the classroom at one time and fewer children on the playground simultaneously. The burden of numbers is thereby reduced for both teachers and play supervisors.

In most communities there are skilled plumbers, carpenters, electricians, seamstresses, weavers, or other craftsmen whose interest and help might well be enlisted in the school. To them small groups of students could be sent a few hours a week, thereby providing vocational education for older boys and girls, strenghtening the ties between the school and the citizens of the community, and enriching the school curriculum, as well as reducing the size of classes for short periods.

A French administrator, faced with large classes and a scarcity of teachers, chose a small group of the most troublesome—and in many cases the most alert—boys in a large class and established a special group for them under the leadership of the most popular and ingenious of his teachers. By separating this small group who had been bored by the slow pace of the class, and giving them an enriched experience, he assisted them immeasurably in their educatiou, and considerably lessened the disciplinary problem in the larger group. Under expert, imaginative leadership, this plan proved highly successful.

In several countries the radio has proved to be a valuable ally of the teacher, bringing into the classroom new voices, new ideas, and new information, thereby supplementing and enriching what often tends to become the monotonous routine of the daily schedule. The potentialities of the radio as a teaching aid are tremendous, particularly for the small and isolated rural and village schools. It is not too much to expect nation-wide broadcasts in all countries in the near future, with teaching materials provided ahead of time for the teacher and pupils.

At least equal importance can be attached to the use of the moving picture as an educational device, but so far it has been more difficult to get movie equipment than radio sets.

A few activities can be carried on in large groups, and in some of them the larger groups adds to the stimulus. This is particularly true of group singing and folk dancing, as well as mass calesthenics. In England and in parts of the United States choral or group reading has won many adherents, who see in this group activity an easy and enjoyable means of learning beautiful poetry and prose, a way of encouraging shy students to participate in oral reading without being singled out and made self-conscious, and a method of utilizing all qualities of voices without demanding musical talent on the part of pupils. Under such conditions mass drill may also be used, although this method of learning is not recommended when conditions are normal.

To solve the problems raised by large classes and few teachers, these are some of the devices which have been used. Most schools have resorted, of course, to two or more shifts of classes per day, with a consequently shortened school day for each group. This is generally recognized as an unsatisfactory, although often a necessary solution to the difficulties in war-devastated countries. But it is recommended only as a last resort, after all other efforts have failed.

7. We should like to go back to school, or travel abroad, but this seems impossible just now. How can we improve our background for teaching while still on the job?

The fact that already overburdened teachers are seeking ways of improving themselves professionally in out-of-school hours is characteristic of their devotion to their task, and encouraging for the future of education in war-devastated countries. Although highly commendable in intent, each teacher should carefully consider whether he or she can afford, physically, psychologically and financially, to do much beyond the demands of the day. Each person must determine what activities will bring the greatest renewal of physical strength, the greatest buoyancy of spirit, the greatest freshness of approach, the greatest widening of horizons, without further overtaxing his or her physical, emotional and financial resources.

Many teachers are so driven by economic circumstances that they will have practically no leisure time. Every spare moment has to be used to eke out their existence by more profitable pursuits than teaching. This is tragic, but true. Yet, even these persons have a few minutes now and then, or occasionally a day, to devote to activities other than school or job. For them, even more than for others, the wise use of their precious free time is important.

For many teachers the greatest self-improvement may come through activities completely unrelated to or only remotely connected with teaching. Change is essential in the life of everyone, and particularly important for those who work intimately with other human beings. Each teacher needs to determine for himself or herself what change in environment, in daily schedule, or in activities will contribute most to his or her physical, mental and emotional health.

The pursuit of personal hobbies—music, handicraft work, gardening, hiking or a host of other means—may be the most effective preparation for enriched teaching.

Close contact with the soil and nature—can bring much needed change for some.

Active participation in the business, civic or religious life of the community—may bring a fresh outlook and valuable experiences for others.

Travel—even a few miles may provide a new horizon, a respite from the cares and responsibilities of the local community, and new sights, new faces, new ideas.

There are of course many teachers who have been cut off from professional reading and professional contacts during the war, who yearn for a renewal of these activities and associations. Many of these persons are quite able to embark upon some in-service training, and they should be encouraged in their efforts. Several suggestions can be made for a variety of approaches, based upon successful use of these methods in other places, such as the following:

Round-robin or circular letters can be written by widely-separated colleagues, in which they discuss in general their work or specific problems which have arisen, sharing with one another their thoughts, experiences and methods.

Small conferences or study groups are especially helpful as a method of in-service training. When brief lists of questions to be discussed and possible reading lists can be circulated before such meetings, they are likely to be more successful for all participating.

Co-operative purchasing clubs for obtaining books and educational equipment have been very successful in some localities. In this way teachers have shared the costs and the materials purchased, and have sometimes received reduced prices for their combined purchases.

Compilation of lists of typical questions troubling teachers and their submission to government inspectors or other competent educational authorities have sometimes caught the attention of busy executives and conserved time for them by answering the queries of several teachers at one time rather than individually.

The publication of news-letters, journals, mimeographed, or even typed letters has proved efficacious almost everywhere.

A thorough study of the local community or region, or some phase of it, can be made, and the places and persons connected with such a study sought out. The information thus obtained can be used to great advantage later on with pupils. This can be done whether books and written material exist or not.

A personal reading course can be undertaken by a teacher on any subject he decides upon, if the materials can be borrowed from individuals or some regional or national library. Similarly, teachers who want to travel and cannot do so might well determine to read about a given country or area of the world, as if they were actually planning a trip there, giving themselves excellent background for a trip, if that should prove possible later on, or in any case giving them much pleasure and profit.

Correspondence with teachers in other countries can be arranged with mutual profit to both parties.

Radio talks, discussions, forums, and programs have sometimes been arranged in order to reach isolated teachers and large numbers of educators.

These are but a few ways in which teachers can improve themselves for their work in the classroom, while remaining on the job. The ingenuity and imagination of teachers will doubtless produce many other stimulating and satisfying experiences.

8. There are many adults and older young people who had little or no education during the war, who are returning to school but who are crowding our limited facilities. How should we handle this situation ?

Those who have had experience with mixed age groups in all kinds of classes are agreed that this is a poor policy and should be discouraged. The diversity of age, of social maturity, of interest, is so great that one group or the other will suffer ; despite the best intentions and ingenuity of the teacher, he or she will neglect one or the other, or so divide the attention between the various groups that all will get inadequate attention.

It is therefore urged that adults and older young people should not be mixed in classes with younger pupils except in rare instances.

The decision as to the best use of the teacher's time and energy is, of course, a matter for the local or national educational authorities to determine. They may decide to divide the school day into shifts so that both or several groups may receive some instruction.

Or, they may search for some educated and respected individual in the community with little or no teaching experience, who can nevertheless give direction and leadership to classes for adults or youth. For a person with native ability and a desire to perform a useful civic function, such classes afford a rare opportunity. Almost everyone who has taught adult classes or groups of young people who come to school voluntarily after a day's work elsewhere, testifies to their keenness to learn and the joy and satisfaction in helping them achieve this desire.

Oftentimes such schools can be organized outside the regular state system. In the Scandinavian countries particularly, the co-operative movement has carried on an extensive educational program ; in Greece the Zoe movement within the Greek Orthodox Church has conducted for many years Sunday Schools which are really adult education classes ; in England and elsewhere labor unions have sponsored a great deal of education, most of it quite unrelated to any political philosophy or point of view. These efforts of non-governmental bodies of widely differing background give some indications as to ways of meeting this problem of large numbers of adults who want to acquire further education.

Again, the radio and educational films are rich in possibilities for mass education. Oftentimes the support of officials responsible for these media of mass communications can be enlisted and a large number of people very effectively reached. Canada has had particular success in this use of radio for reaching people in widely separated parts of the country, and her success may well encourage others to do likewise.

9. Our children are restless, nervous, irritable. How can we help them to overcome these characteristics ?

This is the most common complaint from all the countries, and understandably so. Restlessness, nervousness, irritability are all outward indications of inward disturbances, and those disturbances are many and varied in nature. One can only remove these characteristics by delving into the causes from which they arise.

One of the primary causes, of course, is lack of food and lack of a balanced diet. The absence of Vitamin B (found particularly in " greens " and leafy vegetables) is particularly related to irritability, nervousness, inability to concentrate, the loss of memory and mental depression. Where improved rations from outside agencies or from local agriculture have been possible, much of this irritability has disappeared or been diminished. But good food or enough food will not solve this problem alone.

Some of this irritability and nervousness and even aggressiveness is due to another kind of hunger—psychological hunger. In its report on "Special Problems in the Liberated Countries" a special commission of enquiry from the Conference of the Allied Ministers of Education in London, summarized, under the following six categories, the factors which had caused the greatest mental and emotional disturbance to children in war-devastated countries :—

1. Exodus and deportation.
2. The presence of the Germans.
3. Bombing.
4. Shock due to arrests, searches, murders.
5. The presence of the Army of Liberation.
6. The break-up of family life.

In an extensive survey of 3,000 children and the effects of the war upon them, Professor Wallon and Professor Zazzo of the Laboratoire de Psychobiologie de l'enfant in Paris, discovered the following sixteen principal topics most frequently mentioned by them : food, atrocities, bombardment, barricades, fighting, festivals, the presence of Germans, requisitions, resistance, Hitler, Petain, de Gaulle, war material, destruction and ruins, prisoners, and freedom regained.

What a catalogue of experiences for those young persons for whom a secure home life and the uninterrupted affection and love of parents are known to be the primary requisites for stable, normal emotional development. Little wonder that they are to-day restless, nervous, and irritable. For, as a stream, that has been dammed by a fallen tree and the accumulation of debris which the water carries with it, begins to backwater and then to overflow its banks, so these children have begun to overflow the banks of normal living after years of being restrained and inhibited by their lack of normal outlets.

Faced with such situations in every group of children, what can be done ?

Every effort must be made and every effort is being made nearly everywhere to produce enough food and to distribute it so that children will have not only an equal amount with adults, but more than adults, in view of their greater need for it during this period of growth. But quantity is not enough ; increased care must be taken as to the kinds of food that are given to children, particularly in special supplementary diets in schools. This must be looked upon as an essential part of education, and not a necessary evil to be tolerated as long as food conditions are poor. In many countries supplementary meals or food have become a regular part of the school day in peace-time, and it is quite likely that this movement will spread to other countries as soon as conditions permit. This is in line with the concept of education as the development of the whole child, rather than merely his intellectual life.

Then, special attention should be given to restore the family and community to a semblance of normal living. In its close relationship with the home and community, the school can serve as a cementing agency, as a core of community feeling, as the center of the new life of the village and region. All the work involved need not, cannot possibly devolve upon the teacher; it must be a community project in which the teacher co-operates and in which older students in particular are given responsibility. Every device to develop the solidarity of the family unit and the community must be used. The celebration by the entire community of special events, community folk dances, community singing, community work on the school building or some other building or place of common interest—all these and other means must be found to help children (and adults) develop or re-develop that important sense of belonging to something, of being an important link in an important chain.

In the school and in the classroom, every student needs to have the feeling that he or she is wanted, respected, cared for. Individual attention is out of the question in large classrooms, but the development of the tutorial system of teaching, with older or better students helping younger ones, will give more students more attention and help. The development of club activities " within the school and outside the school " designed to promote the special interests of pupils, will give a great many more of them the opportunity to be somebody, to count as a person rather than as just one more boy or girl in the mass.

The teacher carries a great responsibility at this critical juncture in the life of war-devastated children to communicate confidence, to express appreciation, to applaud effort. Standards in many cases will have to be lowered to meet the lower vitality of children, but this lowering of intellectual standards is nothing compared to the need for emotional adjustment on the part of emotionally fatigued and maladjusted children. Learning depends in large part on the inner stability and confidence of the child. This will be better rebuilt by encouragement rather than discouragement, appreciation rather than adverse criticism, by praise rather than blame.

Outlets must also be found for the pent-up emotions and experiences which lie hidden deep within the minds of so many children, and when unexpressed otherwise, come out in physical and mental restlessness, in nervous gestures and habits, speech disorders, general irritability, and aggressiveness.

Outlets are numerous and depend upon the child and his troubles.

For small children and boys and girls up to twelve or thereabouts, play is perhaps the greatest release. In make-believe activities they can retaliate against the world, letting a teddy bear or a doll represent another child whom they dislike or a parent or acquaintance against whom they wish to rebel. In play they can relive disastrous experiences and overcome their fear of them, and they can find in play and in playthings some of the love they have longed for and missed in real life ; hence the close love of children for certain objects and their frequent reluctance to part with them or even to share them.

In simple art work, crayoning, or painting others find their greatest self-expression. A teacher of concentration camp children stresses something of the value of this work in these words :

" After forgetting to make comparisons with real objects, and after brushing away the fear that what is painted may not be either correct or beautiful, the child falls back on his own resources and creates images which are purely the outcome of his mood, telling us his wishes and fears. By the very things he notices or over-emphasizes in colour or size, he is able to express what he is not capable of saying in words. It is the non-verbal or inarticulate type who very often produces the most eloquent pictures under these conditions. The happier for being rid of a secret, children expand and develop more easily. There is less to be carried along and progress can be made."

Simple rhythms with small children serve the same purpose. Given a little music and a sympathetic atmosphere in which to express himself in whatever way he wants, the small child will again find release and happiness in his own simple dances, strange as they may seem to adults.

For older boys and girls dramatics hold a primary interest. The timid boy who can become king or general or chief engineer if only for the duration of a play, is gaining emotional outlet, a place in the sun, self-satisfaction. The not too attractive girl who plays the part of the heroine likewise achieves something in dramatics that she has longed for—and needed—in her own development.

Opportunities for free writing, with not too much criticism of what has been prepared, gives scope to the older adolescent. In themes, in plays, in autobiographies, many points will emerge which will help the understanding teacher to help a child, and even if not seen or understood by the teacher, will free the boy or girl of facts and fancies which were poisoning their nervous systems.

Particularly with older boys physical labor has the same therapeutic effect and should be encouraged without mention of the psychological implications behind it. If such work is constructive, important work, and realized as such by the boy, he will gain much satisfaction from it ; if it is compulsory and unimportant—" made work "—its benefits are small or non-existent.

The approach to the nervous, restless, irritable, aggressive child is a complicated one, but a gratifying one for the sensitive, understanding, ingenious teacher.

10. Some of our children seem to take pleasure in destruction. How can we cope with this situation?

Destructive impulses exist in all normal children and at certain ages destructiveness is to be expected ; its absence should be considered a sign of abnormality rather than normality. This is especially true of very small children and of boys in the stage of puberty and early adolescence. This fact helps to explain the satisfaction and enthusiasm with which destruction is witnessed and undertaken by some children. During the war, for example, many small children took delight in the air-raids and destruction rather than being frightened by these occurrences.

On the other hand destructiveness in an older child usually indicates unhappiness and maladjustment. Reacting against someone or something in his environment, the boy or girl shows his resentment or fear by some form of destruction. Such action is a danger signal ; it signifies inner turmoil, conflict, grievance.

The experiences of the war have caused a perceptible rise in the number of such cases. Separations from family, grim experiences during the war, anxiety over the future, fear of maltreatment and a host of other reasons have aggravated the tendency towards aggressiveness. In mild cases only, irritability and nervousness have indicated the inner unhappiness ; in more acute or obvious cases, destructiveness points to an internal trouble finding an outlet in this way.

In such situations, the wise teacher will look beyond the outer manifestation of disorder to the inner disturbance. And in some cases he will be glad of this outlet and of this arrow sign leading him into the child's past as an explanation of his present action.

Since destructiveness is a natural part of growth, it must be capitalized and channelled into useful activities. The normal boy of ten, eleven, twelve, or the somewhat retarded older boy should be encouraged to help demolish old buildings, to throw rocks into buildings to serve as the base for new floors, or into crater holes to fill up the yawning chasms. Wherever possible he should be given hammer and saw and helped in turning his desire to destroy into useful channels. He can also be encouraged to plant his own small garden and to tend it. In such activities both his destructive and constructive tendencies are used.

In older boys and girls, whose desire to destroy was encouraged rather than discouraged during the war in all kinds of sabotage, similar activities of a constructive nature must be developed. Their creative talents and energy are like a rushing torrent of water which has lost its course. It will take time to cut new channels, and they may be cut in the wrong places unless some help is given from outside. The same energy must now be harnessed to combat hunger, filth, disease and poverty as has been used to derail trains, blow up munition depots and carry on guerilla warfare.

One practical illustration of how this type of situation was successfully met, comes from the Netherlands. Partially because of lack of wood for fuel and partially because of a desire to destroy, buildings were being torn apart and the wood smashed or carried away to be burned. In the Hague and elsewhere a tree-planting campaign was started among school children to plant hundreds of trees in the parks and along the streets and it was soon discovered that these trees were not being molested by the children, who seemed to take pride in their common endeavour.

Similarly, good tactics have been used elsewhere to channel destructive energies into constructive activities. The Union of Czech Youth and the Union of Slovak Youth have spent thousands of hours removing rubble in war-torn areas and in rebuilding damaged buildings all over Czechoslovakia. The Boy Scouts have done similar outstanding work in Greece. At the close of the war Polish boys went to the western areas of their country, enlisted the support of the survivors, and set out to clean and rehabilitate whole towns. Their work was outstanding and their enthusiasm and courage raised morale immeasurably, as well as accomplishing much physical reconstruction. Likewise, boys from Yugoslavia and Poland have arranged exchanges and have assisted in the rehabilitation of each other's countries. Many other youth groups in all war-devastated countries have done their share in this way to counteract the terrible losses of these war years.

Within the school itself active games such as bowling or skittles, bean or sand-bag activities, and running games will help to release tension which will otherwise find outlet in destruction. Construction of all kinds should also be encouraged in the classroom and school as well as in the community.

Teachers should take every opportunity to express satisfaction when children are careful of materials and to minimize comments on destructiveness.

Many children will respond to such simple treatment. There are cases, however, that will not respond to such methods. These are the persons for whom special attention should be provided. These are the ones whose cases have become so aggravated that they need the help of trained psychologists and psychiatrists wherever they can be secured. These are the cases which are much too involved for the teacher, no matter how much he or she desires to help. These are the cases for medical attention and treatment where it is available.

11. Many of our children read only sensational books and stories when they do read. How can we prevent this ?

It is not surprising that school children in war-devastated countries are reading sensational literature. In many ways it is normal and natural for them to do so. Boys and girls everywhere in peace-time read much more sensational literature than most adults realize. This is particularly true of the boy between 8 or 9 to 14 or 15.

An authoritative study made by Mr. A. J. Jenkinson in England just before the war and published under the title "*What Do Boys and Girls Read,*" proves conclusively that a large proportion of private reading in normal times by normal boys and girls is sensational—adventure stories, thrillers, "bloods," detective stories. Speaking of this data, the author says "Any attempt to suppress any boy's interest in adventure stories would be ill-advised. For the adventure story reveals those 'real interests' upon which successful education must base itself. A good deal of this reading, however, is an end in itself, it is a form of satisfaction which children require as a compensation for the deprivations and struggles of growing up." And a little further he remarks " nor has any correlation between interest in ' bloods ' and cultural achievement either at the time or later in life, ever been made." He considers this interest " a stage of growth and not an ailment."

Delight in adventure, heroism, and sensationalism are normal and natural aspects of development, particularly in the pre-adolescent and early adolescent boy. Like many other phases of everyday living, they have been accentuated by the war and brought out in bas-relief by the events of the last few years. Everywhere there has been excitement, thrilling adventure, heroism, murder, intrigue, sabotage. Accustomed to such excitement, their appetites developed for it, young people still have a craving for adventure, and it must be assuaged somehow. Reading about it is one way of relieving it, one way of substituting for its absence now.

The most certain way to encourage it is to forbid it, or to disapprove of it directly or even indirectly. Forbidden fruit is still the most tempting.

A Norwegian teacher, confronted with this situation, discussed it openly and frankly with her older students and helped them to understand why they were interested in such reading. She also concluded with the comment that it was an aspect of adolescence, or, in adults, of retarded maturity, and left them with the desire to " grow-up " and grow out of the need for such childish enjoyments.

Another way to handle this situation is to provide young people with good literature of adventure—books, stories, plays, and biographies which involve courage, excitement, novelty. Every country has a wealth of literature of the finest style, which is thrilling and exciting and which has a tremendous appeal to young people. Wherever possible this should be made available.

Similarly, a serious search must be made for activities in peace time which are equivalent in their demands and their excitement to the adventures of war-time. Teachers, parents, youth leaders, church and civic authorities might well share their thinking in a community on ways and means of finding such substitutes. For some it will be in the form of developing youth recreational activities—perhaps a youth center, for others the demolition of old buildings and the erection of new ; for still others in hiking and mountain climbing—or in travel abroad when that is possible. The sponsoring of large-scale, mass musical, dramatic and dance festivals can be encouraged and many of the techniques abused by the fascist governments in recent years can be used for proper purposes to-day by democratic governments.

For the younger boys the secrecy, symbolism and camaraderie of clubs can provide this much coveted adventure. Teachers in war-devastated countries are usually aware of the values of such organisations just as they are aware of their dangers when they become the tools of unscrupulous or designing leaders or the cover for political movements. Here as elsewhere, there must be wise, careful, non-political adult leadership.

Occasionally the phrase " sensational reading " is used as a synonym for sex literature. Having been exposed at an early age to the realities of living, often in a most raw and occasionally perverted form, it is not surprising to find the young people of war-devastated countries reading such literature and trying to satisfy their prematurely-aroused curiosity, or to find their way out of the perplexing experiences which they have undergone.

It is a normal and dominant desire to learn more about the processes of human growth and development. Where that desire is not recognized and met in a frank, open way by those responsible for the guidance of young people, it will be met by the reading of sex literature, much of it salacious in content and approach. The answer again, it would seem, is to provide adequate information from the proper persons rather than to encourage recourse to such reading. Here again, the teacher should enlist the help of those in the community most concerned with the healthy development of young people, and together try to develop a sane, healthy approach to youth on these problems. The close collaboration of home and school is to be desired and sought after in this respect. This whole problem is a difficult and delicate area for education, but it is a tremendously vital and important one and cannot be side-stepped without dire results to the individual and to society.

12. Some of our children will not play with others at recess time. What should we do about this ?

Complete and free participation in play with other children is a normal, natural activity of the inwardly secure and well-adjusted child. It indicates enough freedom from self, that he or she can also take part in the life of others, thus becoming a member of a social group.

In any group of children there are likely to be some who have not achieved such independence and the hanger-on in group games and activities of all kinds is not a peculiarity of war-devastated countries. The disruptions of war, however, have caused a marked increase in socially unadjusted children, and a consequent number who cannot participate in group life.

Cases of children at any age who do not play with others bear investigation, but those of boys and girls around the ages of ten to twelve need particular notice, for that is the period of maximum play when the cases of inability to play tend to be fewest and therefore most acute.

The factors at any period which cause withdrawal from play activities are varied, but for the sake of simplicity, they may be classified under the following categories :—

First of all, non-participation may be due to fatigue, apathy, listlessness, inertia—the direct result of lack of good nutrition or a properly balanced diet. Noticeable and remarkably fast recovery has been noted in many countries when there was even a slight increase in food rations or in special allotments of vitamins, milk or cod liver oil.

Secondly, this reaction may be due to emotional fatigue. Children who have lost their parents or have failed to achieve a proper amount of personal security, are likely to develop a form of psychological paralysis, and to withdraw from group activities into their own inner world. They are afraid of new situations for fear they will not do well in them, and will be ridiculed or receive rebuffs from others. Their self-protection is to refuse to participate.

Understanding teachers can help provide situations where these children can participate successfully in the life of the group, and thereby achieve self-confidence. Often the teacher can enlist the support of socially secure pupils in encouraging such unhappy children to be drawn into the group. Sometimes the damage done to the child has already been so great that it will take a long time and careful and sympathetic handling to recover even in part. Teachers should not be too discouraged if their efforts do not show rapid results.

A third cause for such action may be rebellion against too much organized activity. Boys and girls who are achieving a sense of independence often resent the adult controls which are placed upon them and rebel in one way or another against them. If such cases are frequent, it may indicate an over-abundance of adult leadership with boys and girls who have been on their own at an earlier age due to the war. Here teaching methods will have to be adapted to the accelerated maturity of school children and more free play and student-organized activity developed.

In the fourth place, unwillingness to join in the activities of the group may indicate a real desire to be alone. This has been particularly evident in groups which have been herded together for long periods and have had little opportunity to be alone. This is a natural hunger and should be satisfied. Insistence that such persons join in the group activities will probably do more harm than good.

Lastly, such behavior may result from an over-zealous desire to learn and the belief that play is a silly waste of time and energy. Hence the teacher has the task of patiently and logically trying to persuade the boy or girl of the importance of well-rounded living and the necessity of keeping physically fit in order to learn more rapidly. There is much truth in the old adage that " all work and no play makes Jack a dull boy", even if it is difficult to persuade such students of its truth. Often this apparent desire to learn more is a rationalization of a fear of participating in the life of the group ; the child does not wish to admit this fact, so justifies his action by the apparently more noble thought of wanting to spend the time in learning. This is a common form of compensation.

Such action as has been described here, is particularly noticeable in war-devastated countries, but it is not peculiar to such areas. In any group of boys and girls in any part of the world there are those who do not participate fully in the life of the group. Teachers will want to work on this problem but not worry unduly if they do not achieve complete success.

13. Our children are hardened to the fact of death. How can we make them more sensitive to the importance and value of human life and personality ?

Teachers in all war-devastated countries, and to a lesser degree elsewhere, are perturbed by the callous, cynical attitude which so many children and young people exhibit towards death and human suffering. They fear that the grim experiences which the children have undergone during these war years will leave an indelible imprint on them.

And their fear is partially justified. It has been ascertained that even the smallest of children sense the loss of father or mother, even though they may not be able to express that loss verbally, or even though they do not mention this fact for many months. Yet, it is there, submerged in the unconscious, ready to assert itself sometime.

Those who have witnessed beatings, seen their own family tortured and persecuted, have been in the midst of air-raids where scores of people died around them, and have been forced in some instances, as was the case in France, to collect the shattered remnants of these bodies, could not be expected to go unscathed by these horrible experiences. Either they would build up a protective covering of hardness and resistance to these experiences, or they would be affected mentally. Grim as it may be, there is something to be thankful for in the very hardness they developed.

Adults have regarded death as a constantly recurring yet unusual and rare occurrence. They did not often forget that fact even when death became commonplace during the war. For children reared during the war years, death was commonplace—regular in some places as birth—often even more frequent, and they had not other experience with which to compare it.

Fortunately, as new life becomes more common and death less common, these facts will help to develop a better attitude among young people. Time will not remove the scars they have suffered, but it will heal the wounds.

Children who have experienced fear, separations, atrocities, death, are reported in many instances to want to read sad stories and sad plays. They should be allowed to do this, as it often acts as a release for pent-up emotions, and in some cases it may even be an attempt on their part to test their own recovery of sensitivity. Not having dared to allow themselves to express any feeling, having encouraged numbness in themselves, they are now testing themselves out to see if they can endure a little pain.

But along with such experiences as these, they must be exposed to beauty in every form. Their reservoir of beauty has been drained dry and it is incumbent upon their elders and friends to help to fill it up. Children and young people should be brought into close touch with nature through hiking and bicycling trips to spots of particular beauty. Camping trips out under the stars should be organized. Singing parties by the shores of lakes and the sea should be undertaken. Classrooms and homes should stress the beautiful in the pictures which are hung on their walls and in colorful decorations of every kind.

Use should be made of every available opportunity to mark festive occasions and celebrations, by some kind of special observance—a dance, community singing, a play, or party. As a teacher of orphan children has said: " Feeling pleasure gives one the courage to feel pain." Taut nerves can begin to relax after years of tension.

With small children the keeping and breeding of animals is recommended so that they will have the simple object lesson of the mother animal's love for her young. It is doubtful if these animals should be ones which can be used for food or commercial purposes, however, since small children associate themselves so closely with their pets that they cannot bear to see them killed, even if for a useful purpose.

Perhaps most important of all is the attitude of the teacher and others with whom children and young people associate, and their sensitivity to human life and personality. If the older persons treat everyone with respect, understanding, love, their example will speak far louder than any words they may utter on the subject, for attitudes like these are far easier caught by young people than taught to them.

14. Many of our children are intolerant and prejudiced, especially towards those of other racial backgrounds. How can we best develop in them tolerance and understanding?

An individual acquires attitudes of tolerance and intolerance not by conscious choice but through absorption in countless experiences in and out of school—from remarks made by adults ; from impressions of people gained from stories, movies, and cartoons ; from observation of treatment accorded certain people in the stores and on the streets. Undesirable attitudes cannot therefore be eliminated by a direct attack on them, by telling children they are wrong or by making any other verbal attack on them. Nor can positive attitudes be built by verbal preaching alone. A direct attack usually threatens the child, strengthens his defences, and thereby reinforces the attitude.

Proper indirect methods can be chosen, provided teachers are aware of the complex of factors which produce and change social attitudes in general, and attitudes towards race in particular. Teachers must also bear in mind that attitudes do not change easily—by some one single learning experience or even by a single variety of learning experiences.

Social attitudes are formed by several ingredients. One of these is knowledge and familiarity, particularly with the ways of life, special customs and behaviours of the people who are different from us. More and better information about people of different races and religions should, therefore, be supplied from the early years on. We need to watch for misinformation in our textbooks and to supplement any lack of information in order to produce a greater familiarity with—and therefore a greater " at-homeness " with—differences in human beings. These descriptions of differences should be tied up with some common human characteristics, a common human quality in all peoples. Thus in music lessons it could be brought out that all mothers love their children and sing lullabies to them but that the lullabies differ according to the background. All people pray to God and express thanks, but they may use different ceremonies, prayers and songs. In every subject in school there are opportunities for pointing out these similarities, and the varied forms they take.

Another ingredient of social attitudes is feeling, or sensitivity. To the extent that children acquire a cosmopolitan sensitivity, can identify themselves with increasingly varied types of human beings, their values, motives, and behaviours ; to that extent they will be immune to prejudice and intolerance and capable of tolerant attitudes. Often this sensitizing involves eliminating previously acquired negative attitudes at the same time. A strong, unpleasant experience with a member of another race, or a reinforcing series of less strong experiences, tends to create feelings of fear, of rejection, or of superiority towards the whole race or even to anyone who is different in any respect. For example, if one Jewish merchant cheats someone, he is inclined to feel that all Jews cheat.

These experiences are emotional and require other emotional experiences of opposite effect to replace them. Intellectual information and arguments are important, but they are not enough. Contacts with members of groups towards whom prejudice is held are helpful. Care must be taken that these " examples " possess characteristics which the children admire. These contacts can be promoted through sharing activities with children from other groups, visiting in community neighbourhoods differing from the children's own neighbourhood, or inviting representatives of other racial or religious groups to school to present something interesting, in which they are fully informed and competent.

The greatest and most accessible source for developing understanding lies in stories which present the kinds of people towards whom there is prejudice in a favourable and humanly warm light, so that children can identify themselves with these characters—their joys and sorrows, their problems, and their thoughts. Stories of the lives of the best representatives of other groups can also be helpful.

Many of our prejudices and intolerances stem from derogatory stereotypes current in our literature, newspapers, adult expressions at home and on streets. In each country rather commonly used derogatory epithets are applied to certain groups of people. These express the stereotypes or frozen group pictures about these people. They not only create negative attitudes but they also are applied to all individuals in that group irrespective of their personal differences.

Teachers need to help children analyse these stereotypes wherever they occur. For source materials or examples, the expressions of children themselves can be used. Stories, cartoons, and pictures using such stereotypes are a good source to point out the illogical nature of these stereotypes which are applied to some less rejected groups common in children's experience, such as a teacher, a policeman, a State official. Children can thus be helped to see how much each individual varies from any general fixed type. They can gradually learn to look for evidence before making judgments about all kinds of people, including those whom they reject for the time being themselves.

In many places the most modern, authoritative material on race should be used in the schools, particularly in biology classes. Such data should be introduced naturally in the course of the regular work, rather than as a "special topic" so as to avoid the implication of propagandising.

Finally, teachers need to analyse and to watch their own behaviour towards children. Derogatory attitudes may easily be conveyed through a slip of the tongue, a shrug of the shoulder, or a tone of voice when commenting on people and their behaviour. Furthermore, maintaining a humane and democratic spirit in the classroom is very important. Secure children need less to hate or to look down on someone else. In a humane, participating, and sharing atmosphere the children can learn and practice the skills in democratic human relations with which to combat intolerance and to implement tolerance.

15. Nearly all our children are eager for further education, but there are a few who see no reason for returning to school. How can we persuade them of the value of school?

One of the complaints of older boys and girls, expressed, or unexpressed but nevertheless existent, is their resentment over associating with younger boys and girls—" kids " as they call them. These older adolescents have achieved their independence much earlier than in peacetime, and they are anxious to convince themselves of their adult status by rejecting completely their younger colleagues.

Obviously these boys and girls need separate classes, often night classes, where they can carry on their education in groups of their own age and/or social maturity. Where such classes cannot be staffed by regular teachers, an older person in the community often can be found to devote one or two nights a week to such young people. Quite often the value of learning can be enhanced with such boys and girls if a successful business man or a respected farmer can be found who will teach such a class. In this way they are helped to disassociate learning from their former school associations, and consequently it takes on a new respectability in their eyes.

Another facet of this problem was outlined by the Conference of Allied Ministers of Education in London in 1945 when they wrote :—

" A grave problem for the future is set by the negative attitude adopted by many young people towards education ; ' What does it give us ? ' they are asking and ' Is all the hard work at school and college worth it ? ' They have before their eyes the discouraging example of their teachers, educated and highly qualified people whose present salaries are quite insufficient to cover even the bare cost of keeping alive, without eking it out by private lessons and manual work : years of strenuous effort lead to a life of misery—producing, as children see it, no results. From this they draw the logical conclusion that education is an expensive superfluity."

They have, of course, identified one of the gravest problems of education in every country—the economic status of the teacher. And their argument is one which is hard to meet. It is a problem with which national governments are wrestling and will continue to wrestle. In the meantime the only valid points which the teacher can assemble are those of the value of learning for cultural reasons and for the fuller enjoyment of life. The teacher's attitude towards living and towards education and the silent witness he or she makes by continuing to teach despite these difficulties may eventually carry weight with some of these present critics.

In some instances the schools are confronted with a new competitor—the lure of economic profit and the sense of importance, usefulness and manliness arising from a job—whether it is a fulltime, regular job, a black-market operation, or begging.

This will probably force many schools to re-examine the purposes of education in relation to vocational guidance and pre-vocational training. There is much to be considered in determining whether the schools should not place some emphasis in the later years on this aspect of education and thereby appeal to the youth to remain in school, as well as giving him a more realistic school.

The question of the proper school leaving age arises here, too. Countries which have raised the school leaving age, like England and France, are seriously studying the changes in curriculum which will be necessary to deal with these older boys and girls, particularly as they relate to vocational education.

During the war years some countries used the radio and the public press to persuade young people to remain in school, and in order to buttress their campaign they issued statements on the values of education by outstanding national leaders and particularly leaders popular with young people. Although this method may not be duplicated on a national scale, there is much to be commended in the method of enlisting the support of non-educational persons in persuading boys and girls over whom they have an influence, of the value of a good education.

This problem is further complicated where a boy or girl is the chief or sole means of support in a family. To add several hours of schooling at night to an already long working day requires more energy and desire to learn than can be expected of most young people. There again, only the assistance of the government in providing economic assistance for the family can really begin to solve the problem. Where such help is not yet forthcoming, it may be better to encourage such a young person to join a youth group such as the Boy Scouts or Girl Guides, the Junior Red Cross, the Y.M.C.A. or Y.W.C.A., than to spend all his or her spare time confined within school walls.

16. Our older boys and girls have had great responsibilities during the war and are accustomed to leadership. How can we match these responsibilities and opportunities for leadership now that the war is over?

There is no doubt that many youths played an outstanding part in the war. Their daring, ingenuity and courage were of tremendous value to the Allies. Even younger children showed outstanding traits of endurance, courage, imagination in their treks to discover lost parents, in their efforts to find food on which to survive, or in smaller tasks assisting the resistance or underground movements. Today's world seems drab and unheroic to them. Part of their sense of frustration comes from having lived life too fast and too early, and there is little that can be done to help them retrieve their lost youth. On the other hand, part of their frustration lies in their own lack of imagination and the lack of co-operation from adults in providing places of leadership for them. This involves a two-fold responsibility for education of the parents and education of the young men and women.

Elsewhere in this booklet suggestions are made of ways in which older boys and girls can be used as assistants to teachers, sharing in adult responsibilities, but subordinate to others.* In addition to such work there are innumerable opportunities within the life of the school for leadership. Each person with some special talent, from high-jumping or long-distance running, to wood-carving or needle-work, drawing or cooking should be seized upon and small interests or hobby groups given over to these persons with special talents. This can be arranged either within the framework of the school day or outside school hours.

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* See question 6.

Similar work can also be done with boys and girls who are not in school. In the United States there are organizations known as Big Brothers and Big Sisters which grew out of a realization that young orphans and juvenile delinquents often need substitute parents or older brothers and sisters with whom they could enjoy life and with whom they could share, on a voluntary basis, some of their problems. With thousands and hundreds of thousands of war orphans and children separated from their parents, there is room for many kinds of similar activities to serve the needs of these children.

In all of the war-devastated countries there is a tremendous amount of physical reconstruction to be carried on. It has seemed advisable in some places to give groups of boys—and girls—responsibility for rebuilding a section of a town or certain buildings, so that they could feel that this was their job, and that they would not be interfered with by adults and those " in authority." Such work can be rewarding where it is accompanied by some recreation and fun. Oftentimes this can be shared by boys and girls, the hard physical labour being done by the boys and the cooking of meals, the tending of smaller children in the community, and the preparation of materials for inside the new homes or community centers or school being done by the girls. The development within the past twenty-five years in many countries of *voluntary*, privately-organized work camps over week-ends or for an entire summer vacation by late adolescent boys and girls, with some adult help, bears testimony to the practicability of such a scheme.

Then there are the international organizations such as the Boy Scouts and Girl Guides, the Youth Hostel Movement, the Junior Red Cross and a score of others, branches of which can be developed in any community where older young people are ready and willing to help start such groups. The mushroom growth of some of these youth groups since the war leaves no doubt as to their popularity ; their continued growth is dependent in large measure on adequate leadership.

There is much to be said, likewise, for the revival of the old apprentice system of learning, which is still in existence in some parts of Europe, but has practically disappeared elsewhere. Many an older boy or girl today would like to prepare himself or herself for useful work by technical education, but the means are not available. In such instances they have often found apprenticeships with older persons and divided their time between schooling and actual work with someone in the profession or vocation into which they eventually intend to go.

Oftentimes a Youth Council can be set up within a village or city or large rural area, having as its aim, aid of all kinds to young people. In its membership there should be a large percentage of young people, and a sprinkling of understanding adults. To this body should come most of the questions related to young people, their education, their vocations, their problems, their responsibilities within the town or region. This is not a pattern that can be adopted and successfully carried out everywhere, but its success in numerous instances warrants investigation and exploration where people are seriously searching for ways of developing opportunities and responsibilities for older boys and girls.

17. Some of our young people resent and resist the authority of their parents, their teachers, and other adults. What can be done to develop respect for authority ?

This resentment and resistance is a common complaint of teachers in all war-devastated countries, and to a lesser extent all countries affected by the war. A report from the officials of one government is typical of many such summaries. It says : " Parents who used to be looked up to and obeyed are now treated cavalierly, on a footing of equality. Teachers are treated with impertinence. The street is turned into a cynical display of the most audacious liberties. No authority, religious or lay, escapes criticism and daring judgment. Respect has been dangerously undermined—respect for parents, respect for God and religion, respect for the weak, and the property of others." Reports indicate that this is particularly true of the young adolescent.

One does not wonder that insubordination is rife, disrespect evident, independence and arrogance offensively present. In many cases these are the young people who were taught during the war to disobey the occupying authorities. Resistance to authority was instilled in them. Sabotage and acts of aggression were encouraged and lauded. They have been taught disobedience to authority, and they are applying their learning ; parents, teachers and government officials now represent " authority " and they are now the ones who are being resisted, sabotaged, flaunted. No one in authority is immune.

Added to this explanation is the fact that many of these boys and girls who are today considered insubordinate and arrogant, were among those who were given much authority and trust during the war and years of occupation. They are mature beyond their years when measured by pre-war standards. Their standards of judgment are critical, acute, and they do not intend to obey anyone who has not in their opinion won their respect, anyone who has not earned the right to be respected. Often they have a keen sense of justice, and people are measured by their exacting standards. All too often these young people have lost all status now in the community ; they have been deprived of any responsibility and thrust back into the role of children. This is a rank injustice in their eyes and they are now retaliating against a society which permits such an injustice.

All this is aggravated by the natural struggle in the adolescent for his own independence from his family and other adult authorities. The transition from childhood to manhood has been accelerated and at the time it was made, there were few limitations imposed by society. Now that there are bonds being placed on his or her freedom, they come as a shock.

Another factor enters into this picture. Much rebelliousness is a sign of inner conflict, of personal insecurity. Not feeling secure in himself or herself, a person is continually on the defensive, either passively resisting the authority of others, furtively challenging the control of others, or openly attacking the authority of others. The small child takes it out on his toys or on his playmates, and society smiles understandingly in most cases. The older child takes it out on those around him, and too often society curses him, without understanding. Separated from parents, oppressed by their invaders, almost starved or deprived of adequate food, these young people have developed an outer veneer of security, self-confidence. Inwardly, however, they are disturbed, and with the pressures of war removed, they have exploded and their insecurity has exhibited itself.

Lastly, it is psychologically true that one absorbs much of the thing one fights against. Brutality, sadism, persecution, immorality, violence, intolerance were aspects of Nazism against which the Allies fought, but the germs of these diseases were no respecters of persons ; some of them were caught by youthful persons who had not built up an immunity against them. Horrible though this fact is, it must be realistically admitted and faced.

And the remedies ? Certainly one of the most urgent steps is the granting of as much authority and responsibility to these young people as possible. Having proved during the war that they can be relied upon, this same faith and trust must be placed in them to-day. In the previous question and answer (*), suggestions are made on ways of giving responsibilities to youth, which are just as applicable in answer to this baffling question. One example may suffice to illustrate this point.

Dr. Meerloo, a Dutch psychologist, tells the story of a Dutch boy of fifteen who worked with the underground press and did active sabotage until he was caught by the Nazis and imprisoned. He managed somehow to escape, to flee across Europe and finally to reach England. He had then reached the age of eighteen and was ready to enter the army. There his troubles began. Having developed an incredible degree of independence, he came into conflict with the rigorous authority of the Army and was only saved from court-martial by the intervention of Dr. Meerloo. Placed under an understanding officer, and given much responsibility, he gradually made an adjustment to army life and eventually became a relief officer in charge of displaced persons—people whom he understands because of his own experiences. Wise treatment of this kind can salvage a large percentage of such rebellious youth.

Teachers, parents, and all others in authority must likewise strive diligently to win the respect and merit the confidence of young people. They must be scrupulous in their meting out of justice. Real authority can only be won—and that after a long period of probation, and the passing of difficult "tests" of courage, constancy, fairness, firmness and friendliness. In the long run this is the only kind of authority which really counts. The approach of a Norwegian teacher to this problem is suggestive. She writes :—

"As a guiding principle I start with the assumption that where there is conflict, I am at fault. I am the grown-up person, who ought to have more understanding of a situation than a younger person. It is my duty to understand them more than it is their duty to understand me."

In some instances an approach can be made by persons in whom they have confidence and whom they respect, and the local situation thrashed out openly, freely, frankly with them. Where local officials are willing to enter into an agreement with young people, these older adolescents can frequently work out better than adults, problems within their own age groups. Among the juvenile delinquents of a few metropolitan areas in the United States youth governments have been set up within the framework of the regular government, but with considerable latitude for the young officers chosen by their peers. In most instances youth has worked out solutions to its own problems with much more success than had hitherto seemed possible. The mere fact of handing over responsibility to them is of utmost importance in such instances. Wherever the rules and laws of a group can be worked out by those affected by them, the better. But they must also share in the responsibility of enforcing their own group-determined regulations.

The more attention is paid to the preventive work of clubs and athletic activities, proper recreation, housing, employment and food, the less will have to be paid in the long run to the much more difficult and expensive job of rehabilitating youthful criminals.

18. Some of our older boys and girls continue to steal, gamble, and indulge in immoral practices. How can we develop in them better standards?

Every country involved directly in the war or even indirectly affected by it reports a lowering of ethical and moral standards and a wave of juvenile delinquency. These conditions are the concomitant of war and the aftermath of conflict. This does not lessen the problems to be solved, but it does

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*Question 16, page 32.

set them in their proper perspective and makes a wiser, saner approach possible.

It is also important in dealing with this question to remember that it is easier to see the evil effects of war on children and young people than to see the good effects. In the same way, most medical men are more impressed by the increase of tuberculosis than by the decrease of diabetes. If one keeps this approach in mind, there is less likely to be a wholesale denunciation of youth for its actions, and a more wholesome and objective approach to the questions of lying, stealing, gambling, and immorality among boys and girls will result.

The causes of this decline in standards are many but most of them quite apparent. Heading the list of reasons was the break-up of homes and the consequent removal of security for children and young people. Left to wander and fend for themselves, they fell easy prey to the vices they encountered. Secondly, there was the complete reversal of standards on the part of adults and the moral confusion in which many younger people were left. Liberty to them was a synonym for license. Things which had been wrong were now right—stealing was justified, lying was approved and even commended, killing was even considered necessary and heroic. Children did not always see the reasons for this shift in standards; they merely saw the shift, and adapted themselves to it. They have lived a major part of their lives under the standards of war and occupation, and they cannot return so easily and quickly to the standards of peace. Whereas their parents have had two standards and have never blacked out the peace-time one, these children have had but one standard and that a war-time one. Added to these explanations is the premature entry of children and young people into political life. And added to all these is the economic factor. The urge to live is a primary urge and it must be satisfied. Where lying or stealing or immorality meant the difference between life and death, there was no choice—life won. Indulgence in all these practices is also an emotional release for children suffering from internal conflicts; all children who lack love, for example, are not thieves, but nearly all thieves were once children who lacked love and a sense of fitting into society. And finally, there was the adventure involved in all these activities—from operating in the Black Market to indulging in sexual immorality. In many parts of Europe the Nazis deliberately planned demoralization and the results of their campaign are too frequently evident.

Having touched upon some of the major causes for the breakdown of the accepted moral standards of society, what can one do to combat this situation, to restore standards which society has found necessary and important for happy, wholesome group relations?

Anyone dealing with these problems should first of all endeavour to see them in proper perspective and to develop an attitude of objectivity rather than alarm. In dealing with the offenders, it is always wise to be disappointed in their actions, *surprised* by their conduct, but *never shocked*. And in viewing the entire situation, one need not be wholly discouraged. As one writer on the children of Europe has written:—

"Actually there is no occasion for despair. When one takes into account the abnormal conditions, the loss of home, family life, evacuation, intermittent school attendance, the miserable material conditions, the persecutions, the wonder is not that there has been so much lawlessness among the young—but so little. It is indeed remarkable that so many have remained as normal and usual as they have."

The improvement of economic conditions in a country is closely related to the improvement of moral standards. Where it is not necessary to steal, to beg, to distort the truth, most people are not likely to indulge in those practices. But the removal of poverty and distress will not remove all offences against the codes of society.

Basic to the restoration of moral standards is the conduct of trusted and respected adults. Their adherence to the ethical standards they wish to uphold, and their consistency of action is of tremendous importance as an example to the young. Verbal explanations are necessary and useful, but actions do speak louder than words. For the teacher this means that his or her unconscious, unseen influence is constantly helping to develop ethical standards. And without preaching these standards, the teaching of every subject can be permeated with the thought of restoring decent morality in the community.

Upon infrequent occasions, discussions of moral standards can grow quite naturally out of the literature that is being read or the history being studied. This has the double effect of making the lessons realistic, practical, related to life ; and providing a natural setting for free discussion of those aspects of daily living which are disturbing boys and girls as they try to adjust to post-war society. In many other cases, the teacher can work best through some older boy or girl or some adult in the community who has a closer relationship to the young person in need of help and counsel than the teacher.

And lastly, every encouragement must be given to students to find their niche in the community, and to provide opportunities for young people in the community. This is directly related to the question of providing responsibility for young people commensurate to their interests and abilities; for moral values are not produced in a vacuum, but in conjunction with a happy, healthy adjustment of the individual to himself and society.

19. We have many orphan children in our classes and many who have lost one parent. How can we best help them?

The greatest tragedy which can befall a child is the loss of both parents and a second tragedy akin to it is the loss of a father or mother. Thousands of children have experienced one of these tragedies, and they are undoubtedly the worst child victims of war. They are the ones who tend to show the greatest abnormalities, although of course this does not apply to all of them.

Even infants are not too young to realize the effects of separation, temporary or permanent, and although they cannot express their emotions verbally, they find ways of expressing their feelings in one way or another sooner or later. The small child feels the loss of his protectors and the loss of his main, and in some cases, sole source of love. The older child feels the loss less acutely and for different reasons, but nevertheless it is deeply felt. The older boy has lost his pattern when his father dies ; the older girl her ideal. In the later stages of adolescence the loss of the mother is felt most seriously by the boy, and the loss of the father by the girl.

As a result there are definite and noticeable changes in the conduct of children, varying according to their age, temperament, sex and previous emotional stability. The young child is more likely to want to talk about his loss ; the older boy or girl is more likely to be reserved except for occasional spontaneous outbursts. All children are liable to periods of intense grief, fear, and even a feeling of guilt that they were somehow involved in these losses. Their words may not betray them, but their actions are quite likely to show the effects of internal strain and strife. Boys and girls may become more aggressive, taking out their loss by bullying and tormenting younger children. They may react by flaunting the moral and social conventions of society as their method of retaliation against men and women who would permit such injustice and cruelty. Some may develop a veneer of hardness, fearful lest the granting of love to anyone again might result in further losses. Sometimes a child will develop acute self-pity, a feeling of inferiority—a very dangerous form indeed for a loss to take. Occasionally the loss of one parent may turn children towards those only of their own sex, with consequent disturbances.

In such a complicated situation, fraught with grave and great dangers, what can a classroom teacher do ?

First of all he can co-operate with families and officials in providing foster homes for children. In all countries to some extent, and in some to a large degree, relatives have already felt a keen responsibility towards such children, and have adopted them legally or provided a home for them. In many instances families which have lost their own children have felt a special desire to help children who have lost their parents.

Basically, the greatest help that can be given is finding and fitting children into a substitute home environment which is happy and secure. Considering this question of foster homes, two hundred child psychologists and educators, meeting at Zurich, Switzerland, in 1945 for the International Study Weeks for Child Victims of the War reached these conclusions among many formulated by them :—

1. Adoption into families works best with young children.
2. Before adoption, careful social enquiries should be made regarding the children and the adopting family.
3. Stability is much to be desired. The social status and the religion of the adopting family should be the same as that of the child.
4. Adoption might be a useful method of dealing with some young delinquents.

The teacher can also help in the encouragement of children's communities, such as have been successfully developed in the Netherlands, France and Switzerland where older boys and girls are brought together in large camps or groups and then broken into small " family units " with an adult or married couple serving in a cottage or barrack as the substitute parents.

For those who remain in the classroom, and their number in all war-devastated countries will be legion, the teacher can strive in as many ways as possible to show a sincere interest in and understanding of such children without obviously showing favouritism to them, for any special attention is likely to be resented. There is much which commends itself in the Chinese attitude towards the teacher as a person of special importance, who can act as an older brother or father substitute or be looked upon as a near relative.

A teacher can also encourage friendships between children who have suffered similar losses, as theirs is a common bond, and between children who have lost and those who have not. Friendship and companionship are of great importance in replacing the loss of familial love.

Teachers can provide outlets for such losses through the media of painting, music, handicraft, games, writing, dramatics and various other forms of creative art, mentioned in more detail in question one.

They can bring older men and women into touch with these boys and girls in natural and easy ways, helping to give them the adult companionship they have missed. And where the relationship is a friendly, out-going one, boys and girls who have lost their parents or a parent can be encouraged to take an especial interest in younger children, as this has been proved to have helpful effects.

And teachers can assist the remaining parent, where only one has died, to understand the peculiar behaviour of his or her child or children.

Writing about the needs of fatherless children, Dr. Isaacs has said much of value which can apply to motherless and/or fatherless children. She says in part, " In the first place, we must realize that the loss of the father cannot wholly be made good. . . . All we can hope to do, with the utmost goodwill and understanding, is to help the child to accept that loss and find his way out of the conflict of feeling it arouses. Moreover, the child must find his *own* way out. Just as children show their difficulties in different ways, so they will find different ways of overcoming them, whatever sort of help we give. . . . We can to some degree and in some form give him the support he looks for from the outer world, and the opportunities he so much needs to express his feelings and receive understanding."

And that is in itself a great deal.

20. We have many children afflicted with tuberculosis in our schools. What can we as teachers do for them?

Essential to the help which a teacher can render a child with tuberculosis and the help he can give medical authorities in preventing its spread, is at least an elementary knowledge of the disease itself.

Tuberculosis is a disease caused by a microbe known as the tubercle bacillus. It can be inherited, but such cases are extremely rare. A person can, however, inherit a susceptibility to the disease, and conversely, resistance to it. Cattle may be infected by the bovine type of TB, and milk from such cows may contain large numbers of bacilli. A very small percentage of cases of pulmonary TB and a sizeable percentage of non-pulmonary TB cases are caused by the bovine type.

Ordinarily, transfer of the tubercle bacilli occurs as a result of kissing. The infant and small child are therefore particularly susceptible as they are the centre of the affection of the immediate family, relatives and visitors. By coughing, sneezing and sometimes by laughter or emphatic speech, small droplets of saliva, laden with TB bacilli, are transmitted into the air for others to inhale. Shielding the public from such transfers by microscopic specks is extremely difficult. Transfer is at least as frequent in the community at large as in the home.

Children are very susceptible to infection, but after the age of two years such an infection is rarely fatal, although it may flare up into deadly illness during adolescence or early adult life.

Many people have tuberculous infection who do not develop tuberculous disease since the body has built up a protective wall against these germs which have entered the body in childhood.

The factors which determine whether infection becomes disease may be listed as follows :—

1. The amount of infection ;
2. The amount of bodily resistance ;
3. The conditions under which a person lives and works, and
4. A somewhat indeterminate factor of specific resistance which may either be inherited or acquired through gradual and minimal exposure to infection.

There is no guarantee of protection against TB by vaccination, although a preparation known as B.C.G. (bacillus of Calmette and Guérin, two French scientists) has been widely used in Brazil, Canada, Cuba, Denmark, Sweden and elsewhere with encouraging results, producing a relative immunity or increasing bodily resistance towards the disease germs.

For children who come from homes where there is an active case of tuberculosis, a simple skin test can be given by injecting a small amount of tuberculin into the skin and examining the site of injection two days later.

If the area is reddened and edematous, it indicates that the individual has at some time been infected by the tubercle bacillus. Originally the Von Pirquet method was used ; to-day the Mantoux test is more often given—injecting by means of a hypodermic needle. If the findings are positive, an X-ray examination of the chest should follow to determine whether the individual has a healed infection or whether the disease is in a progressive state. In France, as far back as 1943, children were no longer admitted to school without a doctor's certificate stating that they were not suffering from open tuberculosis. A child who has a positive tuberculin reaction but whose X-ray reveals nothing, who is apparently in good health, and who after a thorough investigation of his associates at home and elsewhere is found not to be in contact with an open case of TB, usually does not need special care and is not capable of transmitting the disease. He should, however, be carefully watched through adolescence and early adult life and given annual X-ray examinations if at all possible.

Unfortunately TB may reach an advanced stage before symptoms develop, so that emphasis is now placed on the tuberculin testing and X-ray examinations of all school children as well as the general population.

Although many other forms of treatment are used, *complete rest* is the universally accepted modern treatment for tuberculosis of the lungs. This is best achieved in isolated places, where the patient can be completely separated from well-intentioned but disturbing relations and friends.

Teachers can do a great deal to help children and parents understand these facts, and accept the necessary preventative and remedial measures growing out of them. Moreover, they can encourage children to observe, so far as post-war conditions permit, these conditions for building up immunity :—

1. Sleep 8–9 hours every night.
2. Obtain as well balanced a diet as possible, including, when available, milk, green vegetables and fruit.
3. Avoid contact with persons known to be tuberculous.
4. Submit to tuberculin test and, if possible, chest X-ray.
5. Have as frequent medical examination as possible, yearly if possible.
6. Avoid open sneezing, coughing and the emission even of small drops of saliva by outbursts of laughter and emphatic speech.

Teachers can do much in the school and in the community through giving instruction in these facts, through dramatizing them in plays, and by means of posters, and by encouraging observance of them in every possible way.

21. We have many crippled children in our schools and communities. What can we as teachers do to help them?

One of the terrible consequences of the war has been the marked increase of crippled children. There have always been a small number who have suffered from congenital defects and some who have developed physical abnormalities in childhood or youth, but their number has been measurably increased in war-devastated countries by malnutrition and injuries incurred during the occupation and the war. There was a time when such children were considered outcasts—and they were therefore abandoned, disposed of, or neglected. In this respect we have advanced ; to-day the care and treatment of such handicapped children is one of the tests of an enlightened society.

Fortunately, many of these war victims can be salvaged physically and psychologically. In some instances proper food and care can accomplish miracles. In others, as a result of modern medical research and surgery, cases can be greatly inproved which were once considered incurable, particularly if they are caught in the early stages. In some instances where medical science cannot help, the proper handling of cripples can lead to lives of usefulness and happiness rather than those of idleness and misery. Psychologically, it is also important to lose no time in beginning suitable treatment, before the child slips into the "slough of despond" from which it is difficult to rescue him.

The teacher can therefore help most by exerting every effort to bring these children into touch with medical authorities. Sometimes this means long correspondence with national officials, or intervention through local officials. Sometimes this means persuading families to press their cases or to accept temporary separation from their children where special institutional care is possible. Sometimes it means arranging transportation of children to the capital or some other metropolitan centre with more adequate medical facilities. Oftentimes the interest and persistence of the teacher may mean much to the child's future.

In larger cities and in areas with dense population, special schools can sometimes be established for handicapped children, or special classes within a school can be set up for physically abnormal children. But the number of instances where this can be done is quite small in comparison to the needs.

What, then, can the teacher in a regular school and a regular classroom do for and with crippled children?

First of all, he or she can develop an environment in which the child is regarded as being wanted and considers himself or herself a full-fledged, participating member of the group. Creating such an atmosphere means that as few references as possible are made to the actual physical disability and every effort is made for the crippled child to share as fully as possible in all school activities. Where a child cannot possibly take part in sports, he or she should be used to help keep score. Without giving the child a sense of being singled out, he or she should be given special assignments in the classroom which will help to compensate for inability to do everything which physically normal children can do. One writer on crippled children has suggested that they should be helped to develop "self-respect, self-reliance, self-help, the determination to conquer hampering physical conditions, and the ambition to achieve success in life." The head of a large and long-established school for crippled children in England recommends that "to have a great deal expected from them is more likely to produce good results than to expect only a fraction of what physically normal children achieve."

Since much of their ability to learn depends upon their physical comfort, teachers should be alert to this aspect of their life in the classroom. Older students may be encouraged to build special ramps, or handrails, or even crude wheel-chairs for crippled children; and where crippled children are forced to lose part of their school time, older or further advanced students may be used as special tutors. Since an additional amount of rest is often required for handicapped children, this should be arranged if possible during the day rather than resorting to a shortened day in school.

Teachers will probably be unable to do much to provide special diets for crippled children, but they should keep in mind this aspect of their development, and use their influence to arrange special rations where that is possible, especially of milk or dried milk.

Where individual assignments are possible and individualized instruction is carried on, some special attention can be given to crippled children. Stories of adventure appeal to them particularly, since they can live out in this way experiences which they can not have in real life. Biography is another means of helping the crippled child. In reading or in stories told by the teacher, the figures of outstanding world figures who were cripples can be used—such men and women as Helen Keller, Franklin D. Roosevelt, Charles Steinmetz, Ludwig van Beethoven and Lord Byron. Crippled children also find keen enjoyment in music and in dramatics.

It is especially important with crippled children that teachers, parents and friends begin quite early to face the vocational adjustment which they eventually will have to make. No lasting good can be accomplished through shying away from the difficulties which face them, and much harm can be done by minimizing these difficulties. A careful analysis should be made of the kinds of jobs a cripple can do, and an attempt made to find the one for which each person can prepare. Such jobs as watch making and repairing, handicraft work, typing and secretarial work, accounting, and other sedentary positions are more likely to be open to cripples, although there are examples of cripples in almost every conceivable job. Teachers can encourage children to develop hobbies which can develop into vocations, as well as to develop hobbies which will enrich their spare time throughout life. Since crippled children will tend to spend more time alone than others, this is an important aspect of their preparation for life. Wherever possible, they should be urged to develop specialities in which their knowledge and skills are sought after.

Teachers should bear in mind the great need for co-operation with the home and community in every phase of this educational work with crippled children. All that is accomplished in the classroom can be nullified by the home and the community unless there are common purposes and common approaches. The physical and psychological rehabilitation of these handicapped boys and girls is a part of the work of the teacher, but it is also a part of the work of the larger group—of the community, and society in general.

22. What is happening to the educational systems of other countries? Are changes being made in their structure or methods?

Everywhere people are engaged in the reconstruction of their educational systems. In Greece, Luxembourg, Poland and Yugoslavia, the material damage has been enormous and the efforts there are concentrated largely on the physical reconstruction of schools, libraries, laboratories and universities. In Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, France, Great Britain, the Netherlands, and Norway, there was also much damage, but proportionately it was not so great, and consequently more attention can be given to the organizational and curricular aspects of education. In the Orient, governments are concentrating chiefly on physical reconstruction.

Coupled with this concentration on physical reconstruction has been the emphasis on the physical rehabilitation of children. In several countries the Ministries of Education and Health have co-operated to provide special meals for children and to distribute extra milk through the schools. In France most of the nation's milk supply is distributed in that way. In Great Britain every school child receives milk and most children receive their midday meal in the school.

In the reform of the educational system itself, there has probably been more change in England than in any other country. Discussions which had been going on for several years, culminated in the Education Act of 1944, which radically alters English education. Although extremely comprehensive in its final form, the Act can be fairly briefly summarized.

Under the new Act the public education system of England and Wales is to be organized into three steps :—primary education (2–11), secondary (12–19), and further or adult education. All children are required to stay in school until the age of sixteen. After that they must attend a continuation school for at least one day a week until the age of eighteen. Some, of course, will continue attending school full time and will proceed to university. In addition to raising the school-leaving age, this places a new emphasis upon nursery schools and adult education.

Further, there are to be in the State system no schools for privileged classes; all schools which receive aid from the State are to be on terms of equality. Teachers will also be paid on the same scale no matter whether they teach younger children or older boys and girls. It is hoped thereby to raise the status of schools which have been less favored in the past and to widen the opportunities of a good education for all.

Lastly, medical inspection and treatment are to be provided free throughout the entire state school system, and special attention is being devoted to handicapped children.

This Act represents real progress and has had a remarkable degree of support from all groups of English life. Its ultimate fulfilment will depend, of course, upon more buildings, more teachers, more equipment. This will take time, but progress is already being made in this direction.

To transform an administrative framework, however, does not necessarily mean true educational reform, and British educators realize this very well; they know that changes in education chiefly take place in the classroom. Here, too, there is considerable change taking place, and many schools are becoming experimental, venturing into new ways in an effort to meet the individual needs of children, to strengthen in pupils their belief in and practice of the democratic way of life. Much use is also being made of auditory and visual aids in schools at all age levels and in all parts of England.

In France, too, there is a general ferment in education highlighted by the appointment by the Ministry of Education shortly after the Liberation of a Commission headed by Professor Langevin, to which has been entrusted the task of planning a complete reform of French education. The final conclusions of the Commission have not yet been submitted, but it is evident that their objective is to ensure all children equality of educational opportunity. It is likely that the school leaving age will be raised to fifteen or sixteen, as in England.

Up to seven the French child will be in a primary school emphasizing the techniques of communication; from seven till eleven he will be in another primary school emphasizing the techniques of acquiring knowledge, developing the powers of observation, expression and action. From eleven to fifteen he will pass through the first cycle of secondary education, where the primary objective will be to discover his or her special aptitudes, particularly as they relate to later vocational life. The intellectually more gifted pupils will then be sent on to institutions of higher learning.

In France it is also recognized that administrative reform is not enough; that a new spirit must be infused into any new organization. In an effort to develop a more experimental program predicated on the importance and wisdom of the activity method, approximately two hundred schools are experimenting in what is called "Les Sixièmes Nouvelles." In these new groups, the classes are small, and the teaching is concentrated on the native language, science, history and geography.

Administrative reform is being planned as well in Czechoslovakia. Although similar to the programs in France and England, there are certain outstanding differences. For example, the State is to have complete control over all schools, rather than having dual systems of state schools and independent schools. Another feature of the Czechoslovakian proposals is the provision of tertiary schools for young people over the age of fifteen. One group would be industrial, commercial and technical schools providing a four-year course and preparing some of their students for the Universities ; the other would be professional schools providing two-year courses for students not intending to enter the Universities.

In Poland changes in the educational system are likewise under way which aim at a democratisation of instruction.

In the pre-war days compulsory education included in principle all children between 7 and 14, and the program of the bulk of primary schools was based on the understanding that the graduates thereof would not seek further education. The present reform extends the compulsory education to the age of 15, and introduces only one primary school system, replacing the former system of three levels of elementary schools. After the completion of the new primary schools, the graduates may enter any secondary school. The secondary education is to be compulsory between the ages of 15 and 19. Those juveniles who start to work after the completion of primary schools will be compelled to attend special courses for at least 18 hours a week, in the morning and at the cost of the employer.

Provision is also to be made for young children in public nursery schools, lasting three years, between the ages of 4 and 7.

The catastrophal lack of teachers caused Poland to set up emergency training institutions with a period of instruction of six months, which should be followed by further personal self-education on the part of the teachers. Recognizing the need for teacher training, Poland is preparing to transform gradually the present teacher training colleges into teachers' academies, which will be schools of university rank.

Into this entire system of public instruction are to be infused new methods and ideals in education aiming at opening the gates of the schools of the highest rank to the wide masses of working people.

Space will not permit a detailed analysis of all the administrative changes in national systems of education, or even a summary of all the frontier thinking and experimentation going on in various countries, but this brief account may give some indication of the thinking and legislative action in a few nations at the present time.

23. What are various nations doing or planning to do to help the children of war-devastated countries?

It is understandable that those who are carrying on teaching under the most primitive conditions should wonder what is actually being done or planned to help them in their enormous job of educational reconstruction. It is understandable, too, if they should be impatient at times because practical help is not forthcoming more quickly and more abundantly.

Much help has been given, more is on its way—even though it is small compared to the needs. Gradually the people of the world are being aroused to the conditions which exist and are being interested in providing educational relief. But once the conscience of the world has been stirred to provide assistance, there is the slow job of collecting money and materials, obtaining supplies, arranging transportation of these supplies, or arranging for transfers of personnel.

Already a variety of organizations are at work on this highly important and urgent task of educational relief. One category of such organizations is the international voluntary organizations, such as the Junior Red Cross, the World Student Relief (composed of Pax Romana, the International Student Service, and the World Student Christian Federation), the International Save the Children Fund, the International Young Men's and International Young Women's Christian Associations, the World Association of Girl Guides and Girl Scouts, the International Boy Scouts Bureau, and the International

Jewish relief organizations—to mention but a few. Through the support of their branches in various countries they are raising money and furnishing help to mothers and children ; providing scholarships abroad for students, doctors, social workers, teachers, technicians ; establishing summer camps and children's communities ; arranging for children to spend a holiday in more fortunate countries so that they may be physically rehabilitated ; sending thousands of boxes of simple educational materials prepared by schoolchildren in more privileged countries to children in war-devastated nations.

Then there is the work of thousands of private individuals and scores of private groups. The Canadian Broadcasting Corporation, for example, has provided a large number of school broadcasting records for the schools of Europe ; and the Canada and Newfoundland Education Association has sent several tons of pens, pencils, notebooks, erasers and other basic equipment as initial shipments to help the schools of war-torn Europe. In the United Kingdom the sum of £10,000 had been raised by the summer of 1946 by the gifts of schoolchildren through the Council for Education in World Citizenship to be used for the purchase of necessary classroom supplies for schools in various nations. The American Book Center had meanwhile started its shipments of large quantities of books for the restitution of libraries throughout the world. Coincident with the opening of schools in the United States in the fall of 1946, will be the launching of a nation-wide campaign for help to the schools of war-devastated countries. This is being conducted by the Commission for International Educational Reconstruction, a national group composed of nearly twenty of the leading educational organizations in that country.

Help is also coming directly from some governments, where that is constitutionally possible. The United Kingdom has made a contribution to European schools of large numbers of wall maps and educational films, and Denmark has offered working facilities in its laboratories to over 100 graduate scientists from the liberated countries. Hundreds of students from Poland, who had received their theoretical training in their home country have now received laboratory training in Denmark. Several governments are sending specialists into various countries to advise in the work of educational reconstruction ; are sponsoring the exchanges of students, teachers, professors ; and are arranging for parties of school children to have a holiday in their countries.

A few intergovernmental agencies are also engaged in differing ways in the work of educational relief. By the terms of its charter UNRRA is debarred from giving direct educational relief, but it has been permitted to provide equipment, including books, for technical training in health, welfare, industry and agriculture. In order to consolidate the gains made by this international body, a Fellowship Training Scheme has been established and over 150 persons selected to undergo special training abroad. Upon the completion of their work, they are obligated to return to their native countries to carry on work there. Moreover, UNRRA's shipping services have carried to the needy countries quantities of books and supplies which have been contributed from various sources.

Although a very new organization and one still in the stage of a Preparatory Commission until November 1946, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization has been able to bring together from all sources information upon the extent and nature of the needs which exist in war-devastated countries, to disseminate widely this information to groups and governments in a position to help, and to assist in co-ordinating the work of various agencies in educational relief. Working through its Technical Sub-Committee on Educational Relief and Rehabilitation, UNESCO is arranging for the shipment of educational supplies contributed through it to needy schools.

In these and other ways the world is beginning to show its belief in the importance of educational reconstruction. Those concerned with this enormous task are confident that further proof of this spirit of co-operation with the educators of the war-devastated countries will be forthcoming in the months and years just ahead.

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The mimeographed report *Special Educational Problems in the Liberated Countries,* issued by the Conference of Allied Ministers of Education, summarised a great deal of material from many countries of Europe and has been an invaluable source of information.

The unpublished manuscript of a book on children in Europe has been made available by Mrs. N. Donahaye, and from it much background material and several illustrations have been drawn.

Among the several books consulted for this study, Anna Freud and Dorothy T. Burlingham's *Infants Without Families* and *War and Children* have been particularly helpful. The volume on *Helping Teachers Understand Children*, prepared for the Commission on Teacher Training of the American Council on Education, has been another productive source. The pamphlet of the Ling Physical Education Association, *The Use of Exercise in the Post-war Rehabilitation of Children in Occupied Countries* has not been drawn upon heavily in this booklet, but it is a source which teachers in the war-devastated countries should find extremely helpful. Thanks are expressed to the publishers of these books for permission to quote from them, and to the Cambridge University Press for permission to quote from Sir Richard Livingstone's *Education for a World Adrift* and to Methuen and Co. for permission to quote from *What do Boys and Girls Read ?* The pictorial material has been supplied by courtesy of UNRRA, the Polish Government, and the New Education Fellowship.

None of the persons or organizations mentioned bears responsibility for the material presented in the foregoing pages ; theirs has been a generous service of counsel without commitment on their part. The responsibility for editing this document has been borne by Leonard S. Kenworthy of the Education Section of UNESCO.

NOTES.

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