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Papers submitted for  
Section II Education and Recreation



EIGHTH PAN AMERICAN CHILD CONGRESS  
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PAPER prepared by:  
Luis Felipe Gonzalez F.,  
Founder and present Vice-  
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the National Children's Bureau  
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Section II  
Education and Recreation

NEED FOR TEACHING CHILD TRAINING IN HIGHER GRADES  
OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS, IN HIGH SCHOOLS, IN GIRLS' NORMAL  
SCHOOLS AND IN SCHOOLS FOR MOTHERHOOD TRAINING

Training of children fails to cover the period between infancy and school entrance which is considered the most sensitive period in the child's life. This age has its special characteristics in the conditions of environment and training which act with greater force than at any other time of life, and it is at this period that the child is left to the care of his own home.

It would not be wrong to say that this training is much influenced by the servants and by the destructive influences of the street where the child spends more time as he grows.

From the time that private organizations and the public school became interested in child training this problem became more and more an important social function, and a new science has developed, based on the observation and study of the child, for the organization of more rational educational methods based on psychology.

This has been the origin of pedagogy. But this scientific work has been applied exclusively to the child during the time he spends in school and not to the child in the home whose training is the task of the parents particularly the mother who is the child's natural teacher—a function requiring proper educational training without which it is impossible to train properly children of that age.

The training of children during school hours is school pedagogy; their training during the hours when they are at home is home training (pedagogia familiar). The preschool age, that is from birth until school entrance, presents problems of training because this is a period of organization, of acquisition of experience, adaptation, and habit formation which requires as stated previously educational preparation

from the mothers. It is during that period that the child's instincts, motor functions, senses, and language develop, habits are formed, and social adaptation takes place.

Parents must be well prepared to give the child a sensible and scientific training. It has always been said that the child's training begins from the cradle and every moment of his life should be devoted to training. These concepts of parental responsibility for the future of the children and for the training they should give to the children in the first few years of life, so important in man's life, have brought about a new field in education known as training of children in the home, which has made increasing progress in Europe in the last 40 years.

The friends of child training in the home gave it much publicity at the International Congresses held at Liege in 1905, Milan 1906, Brussels 1910, Liege 1930. Another Congress was held in Brussels in 1935 where representatives of more than 20 countries participated, and important discussions were conducted by specialists in home training whose reports presented by themselves an extensive library on this subject. Since 1930 the International Institute for Child Training has been functioning in Liege for the purpose of getting together persons from various countries, combining their efforts and particularly collecting documents and promoting child training in the home in all countries.

Since 1938 there has been a growing interest in the child training function of the family. The main points of their adopted plan are as follows:

1. Family.--To teach directly to future parents and particularly mothers the best methods of training children in the home, in their preschool period and at other opportune times.

2. For the purpose of giving better education to the parents in their function of child training it is desirable to introduce classes in child training in all higher primary schools and the high schools for girls.

3. Social work.--All social work should try to put families in better condition so that they could fulfill well their training functions. The best way to do it is for the social welfare agencies to promote meetings of fathers and mothers, to organize consultations on child training and to do educational work through the means at present available.



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On the basis of the above statement I make the following recommendations to the Eighth Pan American Child Congress:

1. To recognize that it is important for parents to know how to train their children in the entire preschool period.

2. The American International Institute for the Protection of Children with headquarters in Montevideo should promote competitions for the best works on the subject.

3. Instruction in child training should be made a required subject in primary schools, high schools, normal schools for girls, and schools for motherhood training.

4. The various child welfare agencies should undertake an intensive campaign for child training and should organize consultations for this work.

OCTAVO CONGRESO PANAMERICANO DEL NIÑO  
WASHINGTON, D. C.  
Del 2 al 9 de mayo de 1942

TRABAJO sometido por  
Luis Felipe González F.,  
Fundador Vice Presidente y  
Actual Director del Patronato  
Nacional de la Infancia de  
Costa Rica

Sección II  
Enseñanza y Recreo

NECESIDAD DE LA ENSEÑANZA DE LA PEDAGOGÍA FAMILIAR EN  
LAS CLASES SUPERIORES DE LAS ESCUELAS PRIMARIAS IN LOS  
COLEGIOS DE SEGUNDA ENSEÑANZA, EN LAS ESCUELAS NORMALES DE  
MUJERES Y EN LAS ESCUELAS DE MATERNIDAD

En la educación de los niños se presenta una gran laguna en el período comprendido entre la primera infancia y el de la niñez, es decir, desde que el niño nace hasta su ingreso a la escuela. Según se ha afirmado este es el período mas vulnerable de la vida del niño. Tiene esta edad sus características propias, en las condiciones del medio y de la educación que actúan con mas fuerza que en cualquier otra época de la vida y es en este período en que el niño está abandonado a la acción de sus propios hogares.

No es aventurado afirmar que esa educación está muy influenciada por los sirvientes y por la obra destructora de la calle en la que el niño ambula a medida que va desarrollándose.

Desde que el problema de la educación de la infancia preocupó a las sociedades y la escuela pública fue adquiriendo cada vez mas el carácter de una elevada función social, se formó una nueva ciencia fundada en la observación y estudio del niño para el establecimiento de métodos educacionales mas racionales con fundamento en procedimientos rigurosamente psicológicos.

Esto ha sido el origen de la Pedagogía. Pero esta actividad científica se ha concretado en su aplicación exclusivamente al niño durante su permanencia en la escuela, pero no el niño en el hogar cuya dirección educacional descansa en los padres, en particular en la madre, que es la maestra natural del hijo, cuya función exige una preparación pedagógica adecuada, sin la cual, no puede educar eficientemente a sus hijos en este período.

La primera es la Pedagogía Escolar y la segunda es la Pedagogía Familiar. La edad preescolar, desde que el niño nace hasta su entrada a la escuela ofrece problemas de educación ya que este es un período de organización, de adquisición de experiencia de adaptación y de formación de hábitos que exige como se ha dicho antes una preparación pedagógica a las madres. Es durante esta edad cuando se presenta la canalización de los in-



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stintos del niño, la educación de la actividad motriz y de los poderes sensoriales, la formación de hábitos y de nuevas disciplinas, el cultivo del lenguaje y su adaptación social. Los padres deben estar bien preparados para dar al niño una orientación educacional consciente al par que científica. Se ha dicho siempre que la educación del niño comienza desde la cuna y todos los momentos de la vida es sujeto de la educación. Estos conceptos en relación con la responsabilidad de los padres en el porvenir de sus hijos y la atención que estos deben tener desde el punto de vista educacional en los primeros años de la vida que tanto deciden en el destino del hombre, han hecho pensar en la necesidad de una nueva Pedagogía y son estas razones las que han dado origen al desarrollo de la nueva ciencia conocida con el nombre de Pedagogía Familiar cuyo progreso viene intensificandose en Europa desde hace cuarenta años.

La acción de los propagandistas de la educación familiar ha venido desarrollándose en Congresos Internacionales en Lieja en 1905, Milán en 1906, Bruselas 1910, Lieja 1930. Nuevamente en Bruselas en 1935 se reunió un nuevo Congreso donde estuvieron representados mas de veinte países en el cual hubo importantes discusiones sostenidas por especialistas de la Pedagogía Familiar cuyos trabajos e informes presentados forman por si solos una lujosa biblioteca de Pedagogía Familiar. Desde 1930 figura en Lieja el Instituto Internacional de Pedagogía Familiar, cuyo objeto es el de agrupar las personalidades de naciones diversas, sus esfuerzos, sobre todo de reunir los documentos y promover la obra de educación familiar en todos los países.

A partir de 1938 se manifiesta cada vez mas con mayor interés por la función educadora de la familia. He aquí los puntos esenciales del plan de propaganda que se ha adoptado:

- 1º. Familia. Enseñar directamente a los futuros padres y a las madres en particular los mejores métodos para la educación de los niños en el seno de la familia en la edad preescolar y en toda ocasión oportuna.
- 2º. Escuela. A fin de mejorar y preparar mejor a los futuros padres en su misión educadora, conviene que en todas las escuelas de enseñanza primaria, superior, y colegios de segunda enseñanza de mujeres se den clases de Pedagogía Familiar.
- 3º. Obras Sociales. Todas las obras sociales deben tender a poner a las familias en las mejores condiciones para que puedan cumplir bien su misión educadora. El mayor medio es el de que esas obras sociales favorezcan las reuniones de padres y madres, organizar consultorios de pedagogía familiar y de hacer una obra de propaganda por medio de los procedimientos de difusión de idea que hoy se disponen.



En virtud de lo expuesto propongo al Octavo Congreso Panamericano del Niño las siguientes recomendaciones:

10. Reconocer la importancia del conocimiento de la Pedagogía Familiar de parte de los padres para que puedan cumplir mejor la función educadora de los hijos en todo el período pre-escolar de estos.

20. Que el Instituto Americano de Protección a la Infancia con sede en Montevideo promueva concursos para la preparación de las mejores obras de Pedagogía Familiar, aprovechándose de las fuentes de que hoy se disponen en la formación de esta nueva actividad científica.

30. Que se incluya en las clases superiores de las escuelas de enseñanza primaria y en los colegios de segunda enseñanza, escuelas normales de mujeres y en las escuelas de maternidades, con el carácter de obligatorio la asignatura de Pedagogía Familiar.

40. Que las diversas obras sociales de protección a la infancia realicen una intensa propaganda en favor de la Pedagogía Familiar y organicen consultorios de esta nueva actividad científica.

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Section II  
Education and Recreation

THE NEED OF MEASURES AGAINST SCHOOL CHILDREN'S PARADES  
UNSUITABLE TO THE CHILDREN'S AGE AND HEALTH

The primary school and the high school are the best centers of collaboration for the protection of the children's health; at the same time these institutions, because of the defects of their systems, anti-pedagogical methods and general defectiveness of their various activities often contain elements harmful to the children's health.

It is customary in the American countries to hold school parades on national holidays or in honor of high officials or foreign delegations, to hold civic or religious festivities, and to commemorate historical facts, etc., events which in most cases are well justified but if carried to an excess are harmful to the children's health. Many of these parades are outside of the children's interests, and the teachers are compelled to require from the children a strict discipline contrary to the child's freedom and spontaneity.

These parades last frequently several hours so that the children are compelled to walk or to stand up for a long time; and in this way the children in their efforts to protect their bodies, often break the rules imposed on them. The situation is still worse in the cases of younger children.

On such occasions the children go often on long marches, are exposed to bad weather, and are unable to take their meals at their accustomed hours. These parades which are frequent in some countries and are carried out under the above conditions are very harmful to the children's health.



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In view of the above I submit to the Eighth Pan American Child Congress the following recommendations:

1. Children less than 10 years of age should not participate in school parades.

2. Children more than 10 years of age may participate but not for a very long time, nor should a change be made in meal hours; the conditions under which the parades are held should be adjusted to the children's ages, state of health and nutrition.

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Sección II  
Enseñanza y Recreo

NECESIDAD DE REACCIONAR CONTRA LAS PARADAS Y  
DESFILES ESCOLARES INADAPTABLES A LA EDAD Y A  
LAS CONDICIONES DE NUTRICIÓN Y DE SALUD DE LOS MENORES

Así como la escuela primaria y el colegio de enseñanza secundaria constituyen los mejores centros de colaboración para la protección de la salud de los menores, de igual manera estas instituciones por defectos de organización de sus sistemas por sus métodos antipedagógicos y por deficiencia en general en sus diversas actividades conspiran no pocas veces contra la salud de los educandos.

Es costumbre muy corriente en los países de América la organización de paradas y desfiles escolares con el fin de celebrar fiestas patrias, homenajes a altos funcionarios y delegaciones extranjeras, de realizar festividades cívicas o religiosas, conmemorar hechos históricos etc., actos en la mayoría de las veces muy justificados pero que si abusan de ellos en perjuicio de la salud de los menores. Es de notar que muchas de esas paradas y desfiles estan fuera de los intereses de los menores y obligan a los preceptores a exigir de ellos una rigurosa disciplina contraria a la libertad y espontaneidad del menor.

Estos desfiles se prolongan no pocas veces por varias horas, obligando o bien a caminar mucho, o a estar de pie lo que hace al niño o al joven buscar la defensa de su cuerpo rompiendo la disciplina a que lo han sometido.

En cuanto a los escolares de poca edad, el problema se presenta en peores condiciones.

Es corriente exponer a estas largas caminatas o a estacionarse en un lugar por mucho tiempo bajo las inclemencias del clima, y a sufrir una alteración de las horas señaladas para tomar sus alimentos. Estas paradas y desfiles que en algunas Naciones se realizan con frecuencia y en las condiciones dichas vienen a irrogar en perjuicio muy sensible en la salud de los menores.

En atención de lo expuesto someto a la consideración del Octavo Congreso Pan Americano del Niño, las siguientes recomendaciones:

1º. Deben evitarse las paradas y desfiles escolares para los niños menores de diez años inclusive.

2º. Para mayores de diez años, las paradas y desfiles escolares deberán llevarse a cabo sin abusar del tiempo empleado en ellos, ni alterar las horas de sus alimentos y en todo caso, realizar dichos actos ajustándose a la edad, a las condiciones de salud y de nutrición de los educandos.



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Section II  
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IMPORTANCE OF TEACHING PRESERVATION OF THE CHILD  
(PAIDOFILAXIS) IN NORMAL AND IN SOCIAL SERVICE SCHOOLS

From the study of the child originated the term paidology (science of the child) which was approved as a science by the Congress of Philosophy assembled in Geneva in November 1904. This term was also the subject of Congresses held in different countries of Europe, of laboratory studies and of various reports. The science of the child has been the foundation of the modern science of education and other scientific fields such as child care (puericultura), pediatrics, and the science of preservation of the child. Paidology which deals with the knowledge of the nature of the child has been included in the curriculum of normal schools because it gives introductory information on education and it is an indispensable science for study by persons training to become teachers. Just as indispensable as a knowledge of paidology in the study of the nature of the child is a knowledge of problems relating to child welfare, such as protection of the expectant mother, protection of the family against the threat of breaking up; prevention of and penalties for desertion of children, measures for improvement of the legal, social and physical condition of children born out of wedlock by providing sufficient food, medical care, education, legal aid and correctional and protective work for the needy children. Other important subjects are prevention of child mortality, delinquency, habitual begging, vagrancy, and prostitution by minors; protection of the child from demoralizing factors, cruelty, premature exploitation by work, wrong educational methods and those unsuitable for his physical and mental development; protection of the children's property, guardianship of children so as to protect their property from unscrupulous parents. These and many other aspects constitute an extensive field of study and application of the scientific and social movement in favor of the child, which is included in the new science, that of child preservation (paidofilaxis). This science should also be introduced in the curriculum of normal schools because its knowledge will help the teacher to understand the school child's problems. The ignorance of the subject will prevent the teacher from doing effective educational work.

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Modern social work has also produced a new educational institution, the school of social service, which trains persons to do social work in the homes, schools, hospitals, and clinics. The social workers connect the institutions by which they are employed with their coordinating center. In child-welfare work the social worker's report is important because it is a social diagnosis of the causes which produced the difficulty. The social worker's task consists in ascertaining the nature of the situation, the causes and extent of the difficulty and the degree of participation and influence of each person concerned. In accordance with the diagnosis, treatment or aid is given, the most adequate and most suitable to the child's needs. For the social worker each child is a new case which, similarly to an illness, has its history which may or may not have deep roots and which permits her to reach the diagnosis and decide on treatment. From the above it is seen that the social worker must also have a knowledge of problems of child welfare; and for this reason it is necessary to introduce the subject of preservation of the child (paidofilaxis) in the schools of social service which are at present special organs for the training of social workers.

On the basis of the above statement I suggest to the Eighth Pan American Child Congress the following:

To recommend the introduction in normal schools and schools of social service of the teaching of paidofilaxis for the study and solution of the problems concerning children.

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Sección II  
Enseñanza y Recreo

IMPORTANCIA DE LA ENSEÑANZA DE LA PAIDOFILAXIS  
EN LAS ESCUELAS NORMALES Y ESCUELAS DE SERVICIO SOCIAL

El estudio del niño que dió origen a la Paidología, término que quedó consagrado como una ciencia en el Congreso de Filosofía reunido en Ginebra en noviembre de 1904 y ha dado nombre a los Congresos celebrados en diferentes países de Europa, a la fundación de laboratorios y publicación de obras, ha sido el fundamento de la Pedagogía Moderna y de otras ramas científicas como la Puericultura, la Pediatría, la Paidotecnia y la Paidofilaxis. La Paidología, que ofrece el conocimiento de la naturaleza del niño, por su carácter propedéutico se ha incorporado a los planes de estudio de las Escuelas Normales como ciencia indispensable para el estudio de los ramos educacionales para aquellas personas que van a ejercer la profesión del magisterio. Al igual que el conocimiento de la Paidología para el estudio de la naturaleza del niño es imprescindible para el maestro conocer los problemas que se relacionan con el niño, base de la protección a la infancia, tales como la protección de la madre encinta; la defensa de la familia ante los peligros que amenazan su disolución; la profilaxis y sanciones contra el abandono de menores; la preocupación por el mejoramiento de las condiciones legales, sociales y corporales de los hijos naturales, mediante la asistencia alimentaria, médica, educacional, judicial, enmendativa y preservativa del niño necesitado; la prevención de la mortalidad, delincuencia, mendicidad, ambulancia y prostitución de menores; la defensa del niño de los estímulos que en el presente incitan su corrupción; la protección del niño contra la crueldad; el trabajo prematuro de explotación del mismo; la defensa del niño como estudiante de los recursos anti-pedagógicos y medios inapropiados a su desarrollo físico y mental; la defensa del patrimonio económico de los menores, su tutela de los padres poco escrupulosos al respeto de la propiedad ajena. Estos y otros muchos aspectos constituyen un extenso campo de estudio y aplicación del movimiento científico y social en favor del niño comprendido en la nueva rama científica, la Paidofilaxis, que debe también figurar en los planes y programas de estudio de las Escuelas Normales ya que su conocimiento servirá mucho al maestro para comprender mejor al escolar en relación con los problemas de éste, y su ignorancia no le permitirá realizar una obra educacional eficaz.



La obra social moderna ha dado también origen a una nueva institución docente, la Escuela de Servicio Social, que prepara a personas para realizar un trabajo social de investigación ya sea en los hogares, en las escuelas, en los hospitales o en las clínicas. Son las Visitadoras Sociales, los elementos preparados en aquellas Escuelas, las que establecen el nexo entre las instituciones dichas y el centro coordinador de ellas. En la protección a la infancia el informe de la Visitadora Social es fundamental porque sirve de diagnóstico social en que se constata las causas que ha producido la situación angustiosa de un menor. La labor de la Visitadora consiste en determinar la característica de la situación, las causas de la necesidad y el grado en que éste se encuentra detallando las relaciones e influencia de cada una de las personas. De acuerdo con el diagnóstico se da el tratamiento o forma de asistencia que convenga, el más adecuado desde el punto de vista técnico y adaptable a las exigencias especiales del necesitado. Para la Visitadora cada niño es un caso nuevo que, como una enfermedad, tiene también su historia que puede o no tener raíces profundas, por lo cual llega a un diagnóstico, al que corresponde un tratamiento definido. Por lo expuesto se ve que la Visitadora Social requiere también conocimientos en relación con los problemas y protección de los menores. De ahí que sea indispensable el establecimiento de la enseñanza de la Paidofilaxis en las Escuelas de Servicio Social, instituciones que constituyen hoy órganos específicos de carácter docente para preparar elementos para el servicio social.

En virtud de la relación anterior, propongo al Octavo Congreso Panamericano del Niño lo siguiente:

Recomendar la enseñanza de la Paidofilaxis, actividad científica para el estudio y solución de los problemas de infancia en las Escuelas Normales y Escuelas de Servicio Social, asignatura que deberá figurar en el plan de estudios de esos centros docentes.



EIGHTH PAN AMERICAN CHILD CONGRESS  
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PAPER presented by:  
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Section II  
Education and Recreation

SCIENTIFIC STUDY OF THE CHILD, DIFFERENCES BETWEEN  
SCHOOL CHILDREN AND THE FORMATION OF HOMOGENEOUS GROUPS

(Resumé and Conclusions)

Man is but the final product of an evolution which begins with birth. Physically and mentally he goes through a constant process of evolution, the two aspects of which are growth or development and learning. The course of this evolution depends not only on the hereditary peculiarities of each individual but also on his environment.

To educate the child, which is one part in this evolution and is needed to fit him for life, it is necessary to understand him: first, to understand his body, the growth of which is subject to a variable rhythm with periods of rapid change alternating with periods of rest, differing according to the individual and his environment; second, to understand his intelligence, which also is subject in its evolution to a variable rhythm with different states or periods which are as yet not well understood; and third, to understand his emotions which likewise are subject to a not fully understood evolution.

To understand, in short, the individuality of each child, it is necessary to determine what is characteristic of the stage of evolution through which he is passing and what is

inherent in him by virtue of individual variations. The teacher working with the physician, can follow this plan -- as far as his professional training permits -- to get an understanding of the child: a) Intelligent and discreet observation of the child at play and in his various spontaneous activities, interpreting his conduct, noting his reactions, etc.; b) Observation of the child under controlled conditions; c) Experimental or psychological observation which will provide an objective understanding; and d) Systematizing of all these data and of the antecedents of the child himself to obtain the most complete idea possible of his personality. This study, to be undertaken when the child first enters school, and revised and amplified periodically, and registered on his record, will give a picture of the child's evolution, will serve as a basis for the differentiation of pupils and will guide the teacher in his choice of the proper pedagogical treatment for each pupil.

When the child is thus studied and understood scientifically, not just for the sake of science but rather to utilize the advances of science for the benefit of the child himself and his education, there arises as a corollary the need to differentiate between children in order to fit the pedagogical method to the individuality of each child. Consequently the planning of homogeneous courses is necessary which will bring together children at the same mental level; will lead to better results in school work; will facilitate the work of the



teacher; will guide the child toward the type of work most natural to him; and will provide a basis for controlling the child's progress through educational tests which are useful not only to measure exactly his progress in scholastic work and to give each student a means of determining his own progress, but also because it allows the teacher to know the results of his work and the changes necessary in methods of instruction and at the same time serve to complete his understanding of the child.

These conclusions are then suggested:

A) A scientific knowledge of the child is necessary as the basis of an education which will respect his individuality.

B) Education should be based on the differences between children and should vary in accord with biopsychological evolution and individual variations.

C) The planning of classes to bring together children of similar mental characteristics is recommended in all schools. These classes should not exceed, if possible, 30 students; this will allow the teacher to give more attention to the slowest students in the group and to observe which of the students are capable of greater attainments.

D) The formation of homogeneous classes and the testing of the progress made through objective examinations or instruction tests are complementary and the practice of both systems is to be recommended.

OCTAVO CONGRESO PANAMERICANO DEL NIÑO  
WASHINGTON, D. C.  
Del 2. al 9 de mayo de 1942

Tema libre sometido por:  
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Sección II:  
Enseñanza y Recreo  
Sr. Dr. William G. Carr,  
Presidente.

EL CONOCIMIENTO CIENTÍFICO DEL NIÑO, LA DIFERENCIACIÓN  
DE LOS ESCOLARES Y LA FORMACIÓN DE GRUPOS HOMOGÉNEOS

(Resumen y Conclusiones)

El hombre no es sino el término de una evolución que comienza con el nacimiento. Física y mentalmente atraviesa por un proceso de evolución constante que adopta las formas de crecimiento o desarrollo y de aprendizaje, cuyo curso no sólo depende de las peculiaridades hereditarias de cada individuo, sino también de su medio.

Para educar al niño, etapa de esa evolución, necesaria para la adaptación, es preciso conocerle, 1º - Conocer su cuerpo, cuyo crecimiento está sujeto a un ritmo variable, en el que se advierten crisis y momentos de reposo, que varían según los caracteres individuales y del medio; 2º - Conocer su inteligencia, sujeta también, en su evolución, a un ritmo variable, con estadios o períodos diferentes, todavía no bien determinados; y 3º - Conocer sus sentimientos, sujetos, igualmente, a una evolución no bien conocida.

Para conocer, en fin, la individualidad de cada niño, será preciso determinar qué le es propio como característico de la etapa de evolución por que atraviere, y qué como inherentemente por virtud de las variaciones individuales. El maestro, de acuerdo con el médico, puede seguir este plan--hasta donde se lo permita su preparación profesional--para conocer al niño: a) Observación hábil y discreta del pequeño en el juego y en sus diversas manifestaciones espontáneas, interpretando su conducta, anotando sus reacciones, etc.; b) Observación del niño colocándole en condiciones en que deba obrar y controlando su estado; c) Observación experimental o psicológica de cuanto permita un conocimiento objetivo; y d) Sistematización de todos estos datos y de los antecedentes del propio niño para obtener una idea lo más completa posible de su personalidad. Este estudio, realizado al ingresar el alumno en el primer año escolar, revisado y ampliado periódicamente, y registrado en la ficha respectiva, dará a conocer la evolución infantil, servirá de base para la diferenciación de los escolares y orientará al maestro en la determinación del tratamiento pedagógico que corresponde a cada alumno.

Estudiado y conocido científicamente el niño, no precisamente para el progreso de la ciencia, sino para aprovechar los adelantos de ésta en beneficio del propio niño y de su educación, surge, como corolario, la necesidad de diferenciar los escolares para adaptar las técnicas pedagógicas a la individualidad de cada uno. Consecuentemente, se hace necesaria la formación de cursos homogéneos que recojan a los niños de un nivel mental análogo; que permitan obtener mejores resultados en el trabajo escolar; que faciliten la labor del maestro; que muevan al niño a un trabajo más natural, y que constituyan una eficaz preparación para el control del aprovechamiento mediante tests de instrucción, útiles no sólo porque miden en forma precisa el trabajo escolar y permiten al alumno un autocontrol de su aprovechamiento, sino porque dan a conocer al maestro los resultados de su labor y las rectificaciones necesarias en los métodos de enseñanza, a la vez que le sirven para completar su conocimiento del niño.

Se proponen, pues, estas conclusiones:

A) El conocimiento científico del niño es necesario como base de una educación que respete la individualidad del mismo.

B) La educación debe descansar en la diferenciación de los escolares y ha de variar en función de la evolución biopsicológica y de las variaciones individuales.

C) La formación de clases que agrupen a los niños de características mentales más análogas es recomendable en todas las escuelas. Estas clases no deben exceder, a ser posible, de 30 alumnos, lo que permitirá al maestro favorecer el trabajo de los más lentos, de acuerdo con el ritmo del grupo, y observar cuáles de sus alumnos son capaces de una actividad mayor.

D) La formación de clases homogéneas y la comprobación del aprovechamiento escolar mediante pruebas objetivas o tests de instrucción, se complementan, siendo recomendable la práctica de ambos sistemas.

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Section II  
Education and Recreation

SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITIES NECESSARY TO FREE MEN

"It is the common fate of the indolent," wrote an Irish champion of liberty, "to see their rights become a prey to the active. The condition on which God hath given liberty to man is eternal vigilance."

In a recent nation-wide study of democratic practices in the secondary schools of the United States two thousand high school students in forty widely scattered areas were asked to write on the subject "What democracy means to me."<sup>1</sup> The students were selected at random. Their ten minute written replies are significant. Of the 90 percent who wrote intelligent replies, over two-thirds defined democracy solely in terms of rights and liberties without reference to any responsibilities entailed. Only 27 percent gave evidence of awareness that in a democracy citizens have obligations as well as privileges.

Practically all the students who defined democracy referred to civil liberties and the rights of individuals. Most of them mentioned our political institutions, especially universal suffrage and consent of the governed. Only a small fraction, however, referred to the economic elements of American democracy. Few indicated that democracy is also a way of life, a quality of personal relationship. This lack of understanding of our basic democratic faith, and especially of the necessary close relationship between responsibility and privileges, is probably typical of the pre-war thinking of millions of people in the United States. We took our rights for granted without an adequate understanding that, in the words of the Irish patriot, "the condition on which God hath given liberty to man is eternal vigilance."

The Social Ideals to Which We Give Allegiance

The confusion, or lack of understanding of the values to which we subscribe as a nation requires clarification. What are our democratic faiths? What purposes should guide the education of youth? To what ideals should we as people give, in both peace and war, our "last full measure of devotion." The democratic faith to which we are responsible has been phrased in many different ways. Four necessary elements in this faith will be dealt with here:

Respect for the individual person regardless of difference of race, religion, intelligence, economic or social status.

Perhaps there is no aspect of our democratic tradition on which there is greater agreement or one which is more consistently disregarded in our society.

Educational Policies Commission, Learning the Ways of Democracy. Washington, D. C., National Education Association, 1940, pp. 47, 48.



Obviously, this is a democratic precept. In Fascist countries people of certain races are persecuted as a matter of public policy. In Germany and Italy as well as in the conquered countries, Jews are subjected to intimidation, confiscation of property, the terrors of concentration camps, brutal starvation and murder. In these same countries, religious leaders and institutions also suffer persecution. In many nations the "rich and the well born" are protected by social institutions against the rights of the common people who are striving to gain equal opportunities for themselves and their children.

A fundamental danger among democratic peoples is that we cease to give our allegiance to the basic tenet of our democratic faith, respect for the individual person. In time of war this danger is multiplied tenfold. We are fighting a war to preserve democracy in the world. It may be that we cannot win it without giving a much higher degree of participation and equality to minority groups, to millions of Negroes, and to hundreds of thousands of our people who are more recent arrivals from Mexico, Central American and southern European countries—peoples who have not yet attained a high degree of economic or social status in the United States.

Do we really want to win the war badly enough to abolish the special privileges that divide us as a people? It is common knowledge that our ten or eleven million Negroes are discriminated against throughout the country. Negro schools are not supported as are white schools. Socially, Negroes are discriminated against everywhere. They are largely excluded from defense industries. They must take the menial, poorly paid jobs. Naturally, great numbers of Negroes feel that this is not their war, even though they are willing to make it so. Other minority groups likewise are skeptical, and understandably so, of our much-vaunted democratic ideal of respect for the individual person.

The war now offers a great opportunity for moving ahead toward greater equality, increased respect for the individual person in all the Americas through greater equality of participation of all our racial groups in the present war. The successful prosecution of the war requires that all participate. We should strive to make gains in this direction which will be lasting in time of peace. The education of youth should be guided by this great faith. It is a precept to which youth of all free, democratic peoples can give their full and enthusiastic devotion.

Participation of the individual in accordance with his ability in planning, executing and evaluation of results.

A democratic society is impossible without the participation of all citizens in policy making. Universal suffrage is a guarantee that the people, through their elected representatives, determine national goals and at regular intervals review or evaluate the action of their representatives. This method of conducting group affairs is also used by lay organizations of all kinds in order that members may be able to check the activities of irresponsible or ineffective individuals who for the time being may be exercising power.

Such democratic participation in policy making is at the heart of democratic living and is anathema to a Fascist ideology. In a Fascist society, it is believed that only the "leader" and his personal representatives have the intelligence or the right to determine or participate in making decisions affecting the welfare of all.

If we are to preserve and extend democratic participation in the democracies we must necessarily become even more concerned than we have been with intelligent and effective methods of participation in group planning, execution and evaluation of results. This emphasis is no less important in time of war. Indeed, it may well be that in the sanguinary battles we are now fighting on sea and land it will be impossible to win unless the people in both armed services and civilian life feel their responsibilities so keenly that they make an all-out cooperative effort.

The leaders in a democracy are not super men. Nor do they have divine wisdom. The humblest workers in factories, farms, government, transportation, can furnish ideas and techniques, point out dangers and opportunities which will further a more successful all-out effort. We must delegate great responsibilities to our leaders. But we must also work out more democratic ways and means in our armed forces and at home in order to make use of all of the intelligence of all of the people. If we can do this we can win the war. And if we can do this in war time we should be intelligent enough to preserve this democratic gain in times of peace. The participation of all in policy making is essential to free men.

#### Freedom of discussion of controversial issues.

Inherent in the democratic process in school and society is the necessity for the discussion of controversial issues. The necessity of freedom of speech is recognized in the United States Constitution, and indeed in all Bills of Rights which have been wrung by the people from their former masters. The basic decisions in a democracy, as in every society, are made at the point of controversy. If the people are not to be allowed free discussion of controversial issues, they obviously cannot participate intelligently in the determination of policy. Failure of the people to do this means the inevitable death of democratic institutions and ways of life.

Conversely, in a dictatorship, the people have no right, let alone obligations to free discussion. Persecution, concentration camps or death is in store for those who dare to attempt freedom of speech. People cannot be given this right because if they had it they might be led to think differently from their masters, and even to rise against them. The small group in power in a Fascist state, for their own protection and security, promulgate the doctrine, which is anathema to a democracy, that creative intelligence resides only in the small group of people at the top and that people cannot be trusted to discuss controversial issues. The common people think as they are told to think. Indeed, so much is the intelligence of the masses despised that Hitler in Mein Kampf develops an elaborate argument for the use of propaganda devices which will be effective in leading the great mass of people to accept events, "facts" and ideas as true which those in power know are not true but which they wish the masses to believe.

The United States is at war. Why then should one talk of freedom of discussion? Do not the conditions of war prevent it? Must we not "give up this right for the duration?" These are some of the questions that we are now asking ourselves. The implications of these questions is that whatever may be true in time of peace, in war a democratic people no longer have the responsibility of maintaining, in the news, on the public platform, and in our schools, freedom of discussion of controversial issues. Nothing could be further from the truth.

In war, as in peace, social policy should be determined, improved and given orientation through freedom of discussion. We entered the war by act of Congress

after months of controversy in the Congress and in the public press. Our duly elected representatives have, after free discussion, delegated many powers to leaders of the armed forces and the defense program.

A free people have the peculiar responsibility of maintaining criticism of the acts of their leaders in war in order that efficiency be maintained, that mistakes be rectified and that high morale be maintained. Nothing is more devastating to morale and the successful prosecution of a war, than when the people become convinced that even though badly led they no longer have the right to offer criticism. Conversely, because we have decided to enter the war, and to win it, we have the responsibility as a people, and our leaders have the responsibility, of suppressing such news and such subversive Fascist propaganda as will hinder the prosecution of the war. But here, too, to maintain morale which is necessary to win wars the people should have the right to criticize the exact nature and character of the censorship to which we are voluntarily subjecting ourselves. The war offers a real opportunity to think through and practice the basic right of freedom of speech to which we have long given allegiance.

Use of the experimental method of inquiry in social affairs, i.e., the selection of problems to be solved, the collection of facts, the distinguishing between facts and opinions, examination of assumptions, the determination of possible solutions and the testing of those solutions in action.

The use of the experimental method of inquiry by the great mass of people, like that of freedom of discussion, is essential to the maintenance of democratic government and democratic ways of life. People must not only be able to discuss controversial questions. They must be taught to use careful methods of inquiry with regard to these questions in order that they may act wisely and in accordance with their best interests. The careful method of the determination of the problems, the collection of facts, the examination of assumptions which lie back of the facts and the testing of alternative solutions to the many problems of society—these are important questions which cannot be answered intelligently in any given situation without careful inquiry and experimentation. If a democracy is to function successfully the people must not only be guaranteed the right to think through and work out their problems on an experimental basis; they must be encouraged and taught how to use this method in solving both personal and social problems.

Such methods, applied to controversial social and personal problems, are not allowed in a dictatorship. Correct answers are handed down by the leader in power. A dictatorship represents a reversion to a barbaric type of society, one ruled by force and by God-given-insight on the part of the leader of the tribe. The leader not only tends to despise the intelligence of his followers, he generally fears such intelligence as well. He must, therefore, use the gestapo, or other secret agents, to stamp out freedom of thought and action on the part of his followers, and even destroy the processes of thought which make thinking or action intelligent.

The experimental method of inquiry is not less, but more important in war than in time of peace. Inefficiency, and mistakes which are not immediately rectified by careful research and experimentation, may not be of crucial importance in the easy going life of a people at peace. In war time they may lead to disaster in both the armed forces and the army of workers which support the men at the front. We all have the urgent responsibility of using the experimental method in the solution of our problems in war and in peace.

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### Education for Social Responsibility

We have examined the ideals to which we as free men should give our allegiance in peace and war. Two points of emphasis are here made which are deemed essential to social education adequate to modern demands.

#### Education is needed which stresses knowledge of social forces.

Democratic people must have knowledge of the promises, the methods and the achievements of the totalitarian movements. No basic consideration of this question can be made without reference to certain historical factors which have made possible the rise of totalitarian states. A classic example is, of course, that of modern Germany. Here was a people who for generations had been trained in the arts of war, a people who were relatively unfamiliar with republican democratic institutions and, moreover, a people who were suffering from military defeat and what they regarded as an unjust peace. But these factors, fundamental as they are, did not furnish the immediate stimulus for the rise of fascism. Long continued and chaotic economic conditions led the German people in the post world war period toward totalitarianism. Their monetary system fell apart. They were struggling to regain world markets in the face of high tariff barriers raised by other countries. Millions were unemployed. Their capitalistic economic institutions were not meeting the necessary need of the German people. Under these conditions and because of their history, they finally turned to one leader, a Fuhrer, who promised to give them prosperity and reestablish their national honor, which under the democratic Weimar constitution they had been unable to do for themselves. They were willing to give up the privileges of free men--the right of freedom of speech and of the press, free representation, freedom of labor to organize and to strike, control of the armed forces, for the promise of freedom from want, freedom from fear, and freedom from a sense of war guilt. Having once given up these rights, their new masters organized the German economy for war and led the common people, step by step to war.

It is not sufficient to condemn all Germans and all other totalitarian enemies as perverted and base. This has been tried and has notably failed to weaken the Fascists. Let us not make the grievous error of assuming that all German people or the Italian people, or the Japanese people, or indeed any people who have turned or may turn to fascism are by nature base, cruel and that punishment is the only remedy. An understanding of the historic process which has caused the development of militant totalitarian force is necessary else the same conditions which caused its rise elsewhere may yet, during war time or the subsequent period of peace, spread this doctrine throughout the world. We are facing a revolutionary ideology which is more powerful than armies, a doctrine which finds its origin and thrives in any society beset with economic and social inequalities, economic uncertainty, and want among the great mass of the people.

In fascist countries totalitarian leaders early develop a "grand program." Appeals are made to the heroism and idealism of youth who under Hitler were to build "a new Germany and a new world." To accomplish this they were told that implicit faith must be placed in the Fuhrer. They too were promised "blood, sweat and tears." The owners of great wealth were promised security, laborers were promised jobs, albeit jobs at greatly reduced wages. But by the time they discovered this, they had given up their rights to use democratic means to better their state. Fear and terrorism are used as weapons against these people who hesitate to support the new regime. Nazi doctrine is spread among democratic peoples through the use of the very rights of freedom of speech, press and assemblage which are still



of men and women. These are the methods of fascism which even now are all too successful among democratic peoples. They must be understood if they are to be successfully combatted by free men.

• Social vision is necessary in any society. The education of a democratic people in time of crisis must necessarily stress the powerful social forces in the modern world. The conditions out of which fascism arose abroad, the methods it uses in coming to power, the weaknesses in our own society which must be overcome if democratic institutions and ideals are to continue and the democratic values which can guide us in the solution of the problems which face us, furnish the basic subjects of modern education in a democracy. These are the areas in which we must have knowledge if we are to continue to live as free men. But knowledge is not enough.

The ideals of democracy are worth working for and worth defending.

The two thousand odd high school students who before Pearl Harbor wrote on the subject "What democracy means to me" showed in their replies that they accepted the freedoms of democracy just as they accepted many other conditions which affected their lives. Democracy existed and it was good. People enjoyed, to some degree at least, freedom of speech, press, and assemblage. These rights were accepted as inevitable, in the nature of things. Only a fourth of the replies showed a feeling of responsibility for defending and extending these privileges. These youth were but reflecting the dominant attitude of the American people.

Militant fascism has been sweeping over Europe and is threatening our very existence. The first open attack came at Pearl Harbor. It has involved us in a war on all the continents of the world. But even now we do not fully understand the tremendous force of the armies and the ideologies we are fighting. Such understanding is necessary if we, as a people, are to realize our full responsibility.

Is democracy worth fighting for? We are coming to realize we will have to fight for it, that we are in a major crisis struggling for all that we hold dear. Developing the realization of the actual forces at work in the modern world constitutes the finest type of education for social responsibility. Knowledge of our danger can release in our people the energy and force necessary to work for, and defend, our democratic heritage. All public officials, teachers in our schools, newspaper men, foreign correspondents, labor and industrial leaders, and lay citizens who are helping to educate the American people to a realization of the real danger to democratic ideas and institutions are engaged in a great public service. They are making clear to us that the ways of democracy are worth fighting for. Democracy must be defended and even extended if the war is to be won and a just peace achieved.

We are living in a revolutionary period in human history. Conflicts of ideologies among the peoples of the world have always existed. From time to time these conflicts break out into open rebellion against old established ways of behavior and social organization. In the modern world the break with western democratic civilization and Christian ideals has been precipitated by the rise of totalitarian states. The resulting conflict of values, the struggle for dominance of one ideology as against another has now involved all the great powers in a world wide catastrophe.

Is democracy worth fighting for? The will to live, the will to exist as free men, is the dynamic which will give us all courage to carry on. It is not a silly dream that we are again fighting to save and build a finer democracy. It is a great dream, one which can be achieved if we but have the knowledge, the vision,

## Résumé

"It is the common fate of the indolent," wrote an Irish champion of liberty, "to see their rights become a prey to the active. The condition on which God hath given liberty to man is eternal vigilance."

In a recent nation-wide study of democratic practices in the secondary schools of the United States two thousand high school students in forty widely scattered areas were asked to write on the subject "What democracy means to me."<sup>1</sup> Two-thirds defined democracy solely in terms of rights and liberties without reference to any responsibilities entailed. In this they were but reflecting the pre-war thinking of millions of people in the United States. We took our rights for granted, without an adequate understanding that, in the words of the Irish patriot, "the condition on which God hath given liberty to man is eternal vigilance."

To what ideals should we as a people give our allegiance in peace and war? What purposes should guide the education of youth in a democracy? What are our democratic faiths? And how should we educate for democratic living? These are a number of the basic questions which now face us as a people. Four elements of our democratic faith may give us guidance.

Respect for the individual person regardless of difference of race, religion, intelligence, economic or social status.

There is no aspect of our democratic tradition on which there is greater agreement, or one which is more consistently disregarded in our society. In fascist countries minority and religious groups are persecuted by the state as a matter of public policy. In the United States discrimination, which often amounts to persecution, is carried on by private groups and private individuals, in spite of a widespread belief in democracy. If we are to preserve and extend democracy at home and abroad respect for all persons and races must become a more universal faith among our people. In war we cannot afford the luxury of discrimination against minority and special interest groups. We need their enthusiastic support. In peace we can only expect to develop a humane society through real respect shown to every individual person who comprises society.

Participation of the individual in accordance with his ability in planning, executing and evaluation of results.

A democratic society is impossible without the participation of all in policy making. This is particularly true in time of war. In the sanguinary battles we are now fighting on sea and land it will be impossible to win unless the people in both armed services and civilian life are encouraged to participate fully in an all-out effort. The leaders in a democracy are not super men. The humblest worker in factories, farms, government, transportation, can furnish ideas and techniques, point out dangers and opportunities which will alone make possible a successful war effort. Such democratic gains can and should be preserved in peace time.

Freedom of discussion of controversial issues.

Inherent in the democratic process in school and society is the necessity for the discussion of controversial issues. Basic decisions in peace and war are made

<sup>1</sup>Educational Policies Commission, Learning the ways of Democracy, Washington, D. C. National Education Association, 1940 pp. 47-48.

at the points of controversy. To maintain high morale and to rectify mistakes the people must exercise freedom of speech. Major uncriticised and unrectified mistakes of leaders may not be crucial in time of peace. They may mean the difference between winning or losing the war. Conversely, the people in war time have the responsibility of refraining from fascist propoganda which has the effect of weakening our war effort. A democratic government has the right of suppressing irresponsible, defeatist or fascist speeches and publications in order that the war, which the people have through their democratically elected representatives decided to fight, may be won.

Use of the experimental method of inquiry in social affairs.

The use of the experimental method of inquiry by the great mass of people, like that of freedom of discussion, is essential to maintaining democratic government and democratic ways of life. The common people must be allowed and encouraged to sift out rumor from fact, and to use those methods of careful thinking which are anathema to a fascist society where the "leader" tells the people what to believe. Free methods of inquiry are essential to an all-out war effort. They are essential to the intelligent operation of society in peace time as well.

What type of education is necessary for social responsibility among free men? Education is needed which stresses knowledge of social forces in the world today. Social vision is necessary in any society. The education of a democratic people in time of crisis must necessarily stress the powerful social forces in the modern world. The conditions out of which fascism arose abroad, the methods it uses in coming to power, the weaknesses in our own society which must be overcome if democratic institutions and ideals are to continue, and the democratic values which can guide us in the solution of the problems which face us, furnish the basic subjects of modern education in a democracy. These are the areas in which we must have knowledge if we are to continue to live as free men. But knowledge is not enough.

It is necessary to realize that democracy is worth fighting for and worth defending. We are living in a revolutionary period in human history. Conflicts of ideologies among the people of the world have always existed. From time to time these conflicts break out into open rebellion against old established ways of behavior and social organization. In the modern world the break with western democratic civilization and Christian ideals has been precipitated by the rise of totalitarian states.

Is democracy worth fighting for? The will to live, the will to exist as free men, is the dynamic which will give us all courage to carry on. It is not a silly dream that we are again fighting to save and build a finer democracy. It is a great dream, one which can be achieved if we but have the knowledge, the vision, and the courage necessary to its fulfillment.

OCTAVO CONGRESO PANAMERICANO DEL NIÑO  
WASHINGTON, D. C.  
Del 2 al 9 de mayo de 1942

TRABAJO sometido por:  
Samuel Everett,  
Universidad de Northwestern,  
Evanston, Illinois.

Sección II  
Educación y Recreo

LAS RESPONSABILIDADES SOCIALES DE LOS HOMBRES LIBRES

(Resumen)

Un irlandés paladín de la libertad escribió lo siguiente: "Es el destino común del indolente ver sus derechos usurpados por el activo. Dios concedió libertad al hombre, pero sólo a condición de que mantuviera vigilancia eterna."

Como parte de un estudio de amplitud nacional sobre la práctica de la democracia en las escuelas secundarias de los Estados Unidos, se pidió a dos mil alumnos de escuela superior en cuarenta diversas regiones del país que disertasen sobre el tema: "¿Qué significa la democracia para mí? 1/ Las dos terceras partes de los alumnos definieron la democracia solamente en términos de derechos y libertades, sin hacer referencia a ninguna responsabilidad concomitante. Reflejaban así solamente el pensar de millones de personas en los Estados Unidos antes de estallar la guerra. Tomábamos nuestros derechos sin examen crítico, sin comprender que, según el patriota irlandés, "Dios concedió libertad al hombre, pero sólo a condición de que mantuviera vigilancia eterna."

¿Qué ideales debemos como pueblo servir tanto en la paz como en la guerra? ¿Qué propósitos deben guiar la educación de la juventud en una democracia? ¿Cuáles son nuestros artículos de fe democrática? ¿Cómo debemos educar para la vida de la democracia? He aquí algunas de las preguntas básicas que debe contestar nuestro pueblo. En esto nos pueden orientar cuatro elementos de nuestra fe en la democracia.

Respeto al individuo, no importa su raza, su religión, su inteligencia, su condición económica o social.

No hay aspecto de nuestra tradición democrática en la cual estemos todos más contestes, ni tampoco otro que más persistentemente olvide nues-

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1/ Comité de Política Educativa, Learning the ways of Democracy, Washington, D. C., Asociación Nacional de Educación, 1940, páginas 47, 48.



tra sociedad. En los países fascistas, el estado persigue a las minorías y a los grupos religiosos como cuestión de política pública. En los Estados Unidos, se lleva a cabo una parcialidad, que frecuentemente es una verdadera persecución, por grupos privados e individuos privados, a pesar de la general aceptación de la democracia. Si queremos preservar y extender la democracia tanto en el país como en el extranjero, hay que generalizar en nuestro pueblo un más profundo respeto por todas las personas y todas las razas. En tiempos de guerra no podemos permitirnos el lujo de parcialidad en contra de minorías y grupos especiales. Necesitamos su más entusiasta apoyo. En la paz, sólo podemos establecer una sociedad humana por medio de verdadero respeto hacia todos los individuos que la integran.

Participación del individuo, de acuerdo con su habilidad, en el trazado de los planes, su ejecución y apreciación de los resultados obtenidos.

Es imposible una sociedad democrática sin la participación de todos en la delineación de su política. Esto es especialmente cierto en tiempo de guerra. Será imposible vencer en las sangrientas batallas que se traban ahora en mar y tierra si todo el pueblo, tanto los que están en las fuerzas armadas como los que permanecen en la vida civil, no participa en la máxima medida en un esfuerzo total. Los dirigentes de una democracia no son superhombres. El más humilde obrero en las fábricas, en el campo, en el gobierno, en la transportación, puede suministrar ideas y técnicas, señalar peligros y oportunidades que harán posible el éxito en el esfuerzo bélico. Estas ganancias de la democracia pueden y deben ser preservadas en la paz.

Libertad de discutir temas en controversia.

Inherente a la acción democrática en la escuela y en la sociedad, es la necesidad de discutir temas en controversia. De eso se derivan decisiones fundamentales tanto en la paz como en la guerra. Para mantener el conveniente estado de ánimo y rectificar errores, el pueblo debe ejercitar la libertad de palabra. El que pasen sin crítica y sin rectificación los errores de los dirigentes, tal vez no sea grave en tiempos de paz. Pero pueden decidir la victoria o la derrota en tiempos de guerra. Inversamente, en tiempo de guerra el pueblo tiene la responsabilidad de abstenerse de hacer propaganda fascista que pueda debilitar nuestro esfuerzo bélico. Un gobierno democrático tiene el derecho de suprimir discursos y publicaciones irresponsables, derrotistas o fascistas, de modo que la guerra, que el pueblo por medio de sus representantes democráticamente electos haya decidido luchar, conduzca a la victoria.

Uso del método experimental de investigación en asuntos sociales.

El uso del método experimental de investigación por la gran masa del pueblo, lo mismo que la libertad de discusión, es esencial para mantener un gobierno democrático y democráticos modos de vida. Hay que permitir y estimular al pueblo a que distinga entre el rumor y el hecho, y usar aquellos métodos de discernimiento claro que son el anatema de una sociedad fascista donde el "caudillo" ordena al pueblo lo que tiene que creer.

Son esenciales los métodos de libre examen para un esfuerzo bélico total. También son esenciales para el funcionamiento inteligente de la sociedad en tiempo de paz.

¿Qué tipo de educación es necesaria para la responsabilidad social entre hombres libres? Aquél que hace hincapié en el conocimiento de las fuerzas sociales en el mundo de hoy. Toda sociedad necesita visión social. La educación de un pueblo democrático en tiempo de crisis tiene necesariamente que hacer hincapié en las poderosas fuerzas sociales en el mundo moderno. Las condiciones de las cuales surgió el fascismo en el extranjero, los métodos que empleó para conquistar el poder, los puntos flojos en nuestra propia sociedad que deben ser subsanados para preservar las instituciones e ideales democráticos, y los valores democráticos que pueden guiarnos en la solución de los problemas con los cuales nos enfrentamos, éstos son los puntos básicos de la educación moderna en una democracia. Ese es el terreno que debemos conocer si deseamos continuar viviendo como hombres libres. Pero no basta el mero conocimiento.

Es necesario comprender que vale la pena pelear por defender la democracia. Vivimos en un período revolucionario de la historia humana. Siempre ha habido conflictos de ideologías entre los pueblos del mundo. De cuando en cuando, esos conflictos estallan en abierta rebelión contra viejos y establecidos métodos de conducta y de organización social. En el mundo moderno, la creación de estados totalitarios ha precipitado la ruptura con la civilización democrática de Occidente y con los ideales del Cristianismo.

¿Vale la pena pelear por la democracia? La voluntad de vivir, la voluntad de existir como hombres libres, es la dinámica que nos dará a todos el valor de proseguir. No es vano ensueño el que estemos nuevamente peleando por salvar y perfeccionar la democracia. Es un gran sueño, uno que puede ser realizado si sólo tenemos el conocimiento, la visión, y el valor de plasmarlo en realidad.

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PAPER prepared by:  
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Section II  
Education and Recreation

CHARACTER EDUCATION IN CHILDHOOD AND YOUTH

The Concept and Challenge of Character Education.--At the outset of any study of character education as it has been developed in the United States, a distinction should be made between conforming character and constructive, or dynamic, character. Perhaps this distinction can be amplified best by a few comparisons and contrasts.

In the first place, let us contrast constructive character education with moral education. In the latter, at least as it has been frequently practiced, the goal has been adjustment to the standard practices of a given time and place. Thus morality is usually geared closely to the status quo. This is little different from conforming character, but it is very different from constructive character. History's greatest geniuses in character have decried the status quo in the values and spirit of their times and have condemned the narrow vision and smug contentment of the "moral" men among their contemporaries. One of the challenges to education in constructive character is that it shall never be so lacking in its emphasis upon creativeness and volitional factors that it eschews change and finds its goal in repeating today the goodness of yesterday. The misunderstanding of this dynamic nature of character has been responsible in some programs of character education for too much emphasis on relatively minor matters of good conduct at school and manners at home, and too little stimulation to youth toward the development of larger values and social responsibilities.

This leads us to a second contrast: that between individually centered character and socially centered character. Obviously, there is no complete contrast here, for there can be no character education which is so individually centered as to have no social aspects, and none which is so socially centered as to leave out of account the habits and values of the individual. But there can be a relative emphasis upon personal morality which leads to very different results from emphasis upon social responsibilities. Character education can, and frequently does, set out to teach the individual the habits and the principles which will enable him to solve adequately for his own peace of mind the problems which thrust themselves upon him. The criterion of the success of such education would be adjustment to his personal values irrespective of any obligation on the part of the individual to reconstruct those values in light of changing social demands. Adjustment has been so much emphasized in the psychological and psychiatric literature in recent years as a goal in therapy that it has proved tempting as a goal in other areas. In character education, however, this is not an adequate objective.

In the first place, as Roback<sup>1</sup> says, "Far from character depending upon adjustment, adjustment is a function of one's character." That is, an individual can

<sup>1</sup>Roback, A. A. The Psychology of Character. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co.

learn to adjust his problems to his private satisfaction by dulling his conscience by cajolery, or by hypocrisy. Such adjustments may show smoothness of personality but not character—not even conforming character. Furthermore, personal adjustment may be achieved irrespective of social adjustments or maladjustments. Character education should, of course, seek to impart desirable personal habits and ideals which will enable the young to adjust ethically to the problems which force themselves upon him in a more or less personal way. This is the goal of education for conforming character. Much education in the homes, schools, and churches in the United States is at this level. This is not criticism, because one would have to know the age and stage of character development of the learners before one could be critical of the level at which educators were working. But we can say that there is a level of character education beyond that of adjustment. All education which seeks to eventuate in constructive character should be social education in a social setting. It should reveal social-ethical problems in the child's own world and help him in their solution.

Thus we come to the final comparison or contrast which will be mentioned. It is the comparison of character and citizenship. The view is more and more taking hold in the schools that character education and citizenship training should blend. Such a view greatly broadens the challenge of education for character, and at the same time provides firmer roots for citizenship training. All too frequently education for citizenship has dealt with history, with facts about the structures and functions of governmental agencies, with knowledge of civil and political rights, with knowledge about political parties and about the operation of the legislative, judicial, and executive branches of the state and federal governments. Such emphases are valuable. Indeed, the understanding and appreciation of democracy as a way of government and of life would not be complete without such knowledge. However, to have children begin their study of citizenship exclusively with such formal impersonal concepts, when opportunities for the practice of what we might call personalized citizenship or constructive character lie on every hand, seems to overlook some important roots from which more vital citizenship might grow. Thus at the lower age levels the character-citizenship blend would serve to make citizenship training less abstract and more personal and operational. At the higher ages the blend would help character education to throw off its self-consciousness and its smack of personal goodness by supplying an objectivity of outlook and a social consciousness.

So much for the concept and challenge of character education. An attempt has been made to show that constructive character education, as it is conceived of in the most modern schools, is not geared to the mere maintenance of certain minimum ethical standards; it does not find its main challenge in the reforming of those falling below certain standards of order and respectability; it is not satisfied with the notion of adjustment to what is. It is conceived of, rather, as education toward a healthy personal discontent; it prepares for change; it seeks to give to individual habits and values a social meaning and content. It seeks through a blending with citizenship education to achieve a growing social consciousness linked to personal values.

Methods and Procedures.—In discussing the methods and procedures in character education in the United States, one must recognize the contribution of the schools, the homes, the church, and various service and recreational organizations. But the very mention of all these institutions and agencies concerned with character education makes it obvious that the programs of each of these cannot be described separately in this paper. Perhaps the best that can be done in the space available is to single out for discussion some of the main methods and procedures which are



being employed by the schools, and in discussing these refer incidentally to their use in other organizations, especially where such use is in any way unique.

The usual classification of methods in character education involves a distinction between the so-called direct and indirect methods. Under the direct method are included all those devices and procedures which lay great stress upon verbal learning and in which the learner's attention is centered mainly upon knowledge of right and wrong and his obligation for action consistent with this knowledge. Under the indirect method, on the other hand, are subsumed all those procedures designed to educate through activities in which the learner's attention is centered upon problem-solving and first-hand experiencing.

As thus stated, the distinction between directness and indirectness refers primarily to the learner, or rather to the direction of the learner's attention --whether inward toward self-improvement or outward toward doing what the situation demands. But directness and indirectness may apply to the teacher as well as to the learner. The teacher may consider his character education functions as direct responsibilities or as indirect or incidental responsibilities. Point is given to this distinction by the frequent mention of the incidental method in character education. By this is meant that the teacher will, without any very definite objectives or any direct planning, introduce character instruction "as the spirit moves him." This leads us to propose in the discussion to follow that we distinguish between directness from the point of view of the teacher and directness from the point of view of the learner. Thus we have (1) the direct-direct method and procedure, (2) the indirect-indirect, and (3) the direct-indirect. Let us consider each of these briefly.

Direct Method and Procedure (Direct-Direct).--This method implies direct and definite planning on the part of the administrator and the teacher. To the learner it is equally direct. Not infrequently the period in which the instruction is given is designated as the period for character education or moral instruction. Typically the instruction leans heavily upon the theory that knowledge and appreciation of desirable behavior can be taught by the direct study of traits and ideals and that such knowledge and appreciation will lead, at least in some measure to desirable practices in real situations.

Among the detailed devices ordinarily employed in this direct plan are: the discussion of traits; the study of codes and the surveying of ways in which these might be applied in home, school, and play; the study and sometimes the memorization of maxims, proverbs, and well-worded expressions of ideals; the use of rating scales (both for self-ratings, as was employed by Benjamin Franklin, or for student ratings of each other); dramatization and pageantry involving emphasis on traits or ideals in the abstract or in connection with the lives of well-known individuals of the past or present.

Perhaps few schools or other organizations use this method in quite the extreme form illustrated by the school system in which the superintendent boasted that he knew exactly what was going on in every classroom in his school system between 9:00 and 9:30 each morning. On Mondays all the children were studying morals; on Tuesdays, manners; on Wednesdays, thrift; etc. For the instruction to have functioned in accordance with so definite a plan and timing, it must have been direct-direct indeed.

In few, if any, schools today would one find this method operating in so extreme a form as this, but many schools use it in a modified form. To have a

definite plan which teachers, students, and parents clearly understand, and which can be carried out in regular class periods, appeals to many school administrators. However, most educators have been influenced more or less by the emphasis of Dewey and others upon learning by doing. The direct method, therefore, as it is most often observed today is supplemented somewhat by attempts to encourage or help the learner to practice in real situations the codes, mottos, and ideals which he has studied in the abstract. In essentials, however, the procedure is still direct from the point of view of the learner as well as of the teacher. The attention of the learner is still mainly upon the development of values and virtues by the direct study of them. That there has been a modification in the direction of stressing the importance of applying what one has learned does not change the basic idea that character development may proceed directly from the verbalized study of traits and ideals, and that while practice and applications may extend learnings they are not essential at every step in the process.

Incidental Method (Indirect-Indirect).---Those subscribing to this method believe that character is "caught and not taught." Advocates of it stress the many opportunities of the athletic coach and the teacher of subjects like literature and history to influence their charges indirectly. Through the force of the teacher's own personality and character, by a word here, a question there, praise here, and a mild rebuke there, it is averred that important character education is provided. There are no definite goals agreed upon and no plans made. It is the method of the individual impact of one personality upon another. Such impact, it is believed, cannot be planned or plotted, so character education by this method is left to the indirect forces of the character of the teacher upon the character of the learner. Almost every adult will testify to the great influence upon his character of some person or persons whose lives wrote indelibly upon his--an influence that was without words and apparently without plan.

There can be nothing but praise for such an emphasis on the effect of direct leadership and example in character and citizenship education. But, as so often happens in the work of institutions like the school, the church, and social service agencies, when a method or procedure which seemed so spontaneous and incidental in a great leader is systematized into a plan for others to follow, it becomes something that catches the form but misses the spirit. The apparent indirectness of the method by which the leader exerts his influence may be mistaken to include indirectness or indefiniteness of his goals or plans. The greatest leaders of youth do not lack definite goals or plans, be their method as observed by the learner ever so informal and unplanned.

Let us take school athletics as an example of an area where the incidental method has often been applied. Here the character objectives, being incidental have too often been brushed aside by the more direct and immediate objective of winning games. In saying this there is no intimation that in interscholastic or interclass sports the winning of games is unimportant. Indeed, schools or clubs whose teams do not win a reasonable number of games often come to lack that powerful impetus to group morale which comes from having something to rally around. It is interesting to notice how often it is some type of physical contest, rather than mental, that gives youth a feeling of being part of something bigger than himself, that links his interests with that of his group, and provides emotional toning to this group endeavor and the sharing of purposes. But how often is the athletic coach directly and primarily interested in such things? In an experimental study, Hackenberg and others compared the athletes and nonathletes of

three schools on certain character traits to which athletes should have made some contribution. In only one out of the three schools did the athletes surpass the non-athletes even slightly.<sup>1</sup>

It has been mockingly said that when an athletic coach cannot win games he stresses character development. The indirect implication here is that when one is winning games he does not need to stress the contribution of the program to character and citizenship education. This, we suspect, is the heart of the matter. Most athletic coaches, due to the system under which they have been trained and that under which they are working, consider the winning of games to be their primary job. Anything else is secondary or incidental. And what is incidental in education is, as some wit has said, likely to become accidental. That this has happened in some schools with winning teams is implied by the fact that the sportsmanship of the team and its supporters is restricted and one-sided, that school spirit is linked to winning, and that the criterion of what is fair on the field or the gymnasium floor is what one can get away with.

In calling attention to the limitations of the incidental method in games and athletics, we have meant only to use this area as an illustration. The same phenomenon of the unplanned and the incidental being pushed out by the planned and the immediate could be illustrated in the fields of literature or history or science. If the primary test of efficiency of instruction in those fields is the knowledge amassed by the students, and if there are no direct provisions for development in character and citizenship, it will be the exceptional teacher (and sometimes not the most effective teacher for the job) who will take detours from the direct course of his factual instruction for the pursuit of values which the school system considers as demanding only incidental attention. Some natural leaders of youth will make important contributions under such a system, or any system. But how much more work of this kind would be done if those great teachers were rewarded for their achievement by being given greater opportunities to reveal to others the basic philosophy and planning in their teaching which seems so natural and planless on the surface? It is not only the rare and exceptional teacher who exercises influence for good or for ill upon learners. If, therefore, the majority of teachers are to wield their greatest influence in character and citizenship development, it would seem that they should be encouraged not toward vagueness and improvising in character education but rather toward the recognition of their responsibility for definiteness of goals and of planning.

The Indirect Method (Direct-Indirect).—The third and final method which we shall discuss is that which is direct and planned from the point of view of the teacher but indirect for the learner. The distinguishing feature of all the devices which will be mentioned here is that the learner has his attention directed not upon improvement in character but rather upon activities involving actual choices in the area of character and citizenship. The intention is to avoid the gap between knowledge and practice by having the learner grow in action and knowledge simultaneously. Self-consciousness and all the attendant defense reactions of the learner in areas where right and wrong are being directly considered are to be avoided by dealing not with traits and values in the abstract but with real situations which the learner faces. It is assumed that every right response in the presence of the wrong, and every best solution in the presence of the second best, can be made to carry with it logical and commonsense conviction

<sup>1</sup>Hackenberg, J. L., Yeich, E. B., & Weisenfluh, L. A. The effect of athletics on certain character studies. Journal of Educational Sociology, 1933, vol. 7, pp. 264-268.

which will decrease the need for so much stress upon traits and upon rightness and wrongness in the abstract.

The indirect method has been employed extensively in homes, schools, recreational and service organizations, and to some extent in church schools. Of course, the activities have varied with the institution and with the age of the learners. But a notion of the scope and variety of activities can be given by some samples of those which have been employed in schools. In the following list the first eleven have been tried in an experimental study by the writer with pupils ranging in age from 12 to 16.<sup>1</sup>

1. Student selection of their own class and club officers.
2. Special activities organized around commemorative days and other special occasions. For example: Thanksgiving in which trusteeship was the theme and experience in sharing paralleling the Community Chest campaign, was featured; Christmas in which the spirit of giving was practiced in the renovating of toys for younger children; Arbor Day; Washington's Birthday; etc.
3. Good sportmanship at games.
4. Honor: Accuracy in news and reports.
5. Honesty in examination: First-hand study of conditions, and first steps toward a cooperative honor system. The problem of shoplifting in local stores and the effect on prices.
6. Fire prevention.
7. Fun-making at Hallowe'en: Freedom and responsibilities; substitute activities.
8. Law and the police: Contributions of these to the citizen. Responsibilities of the citizen for their success.
9. Health: First-hand study of sanitary conditions at home and in stores where food is purchased. Cooperating in preventing spread of disease. Quarantine. First aid. Committee to communicate with sick members of class.
10. Library unit: Care of books. Responsibility in borrowed property. Public property vs. private property.
11. Thrift and economic planning vs. dependence on luck and gambling: budgets, systematic savings, and insurance. Use of a motion picture depicting the beginnings and undermining results of gambling.
12. International and inter-racial understanding: The exchange of scrap-books with children of similar age in foreign countries. The application of learnings to problems of racial nationality, or religious prejudices in election of pupils to clubs or to offices in one's school or community.
13. Recreation
  - (a) Drama: A standing committee of students, with adult leadership, on the drama. One important duty of this group would be to work for the improvement of tastes in motion pictures. A weekly or semi-weekly list of the best of the motion pictures in commercial theaters for the guidance of youth who are going to see something and might be directed to the best available and protected from the worst. Other committees as the occasions demand.

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<sup>1</sup>Jones, Vernon. Character and Citizenship Training in the Public Schools--An Experimental Study of Three Specific Methods. Chicago: Univ. Chicago Press, 1936, pp. 404.



- (b) Radio: Standing committee of students to educate tastes. The advertising of the best programs might be one function.
  - (c) Reading: Joint committee of students and teachers working steadily toward education of tastes by calling attention to best modern books and magazine articles suitable to the age and interest of the group. Work to make easily available in libraries the best of these books and articles.
  - (d) Music: Activities designed to extend popular appreciation of good music, and to stimulate group loyalty and feelings of togetherness by mass participation.
14. Club activities. These have been extremely varied, extending from clubs centering around special interests of youth, such as various agricultural and hobby clubs, to whole organizations patterned on the club idea, such as the Boys' Club, Girls' Club, the Scouts, and the like. One point in common in all such club work, as far as character education is concerned, is the emphasis on learning by doing.

In addition to such activities as given above, mention should be made of plans for stimulating and rewarding notable progress on the part of children in character and citizenship development. These plans sometimes take the form of giving tangible awards, especially at the younger ages. Experimental results do not unqualifyingly support the use of tangible awards, but it seems that such awards may at times be helpful if the attention of the child is not directed from the task at hand to award winning. In a word, tangible awards are good to the extent that they become progressively unnecessary as motivating factors. At the higher age levels, noteworthy achievement is sometimes rewarded by special citations or promotions in rank in a club or society. Cases are on record where school citizenship was greatly improved and much parent interest stimulated by the establishment of honor societies where election to the different grades in the society was accomplished by suitable formality and ceremony.

The above discussion of detailed activities is given with the idea of illustrating in a variety of areas the procedure which is designed to lead to development in character and citizenship through direct practice and experiencing. Many of these activities, and others like them, have been employed not only in schools but also in service and recreational organizations, in summer camps, and to some extent in church schools.

One of the main unsolved problems in connection with this emphasis upon activity is whether or not the learner gets enough experience in thinking through the activities to basic meanings. If the child or youth learns only what the specific activity teaches, and does not generalize to fundamental meanings and does not see applications of what he has learned to other situations, then there is to this extent a limitation to the activity method in its extreme or pure form. By "pure" activity method we mean that in which the learner is concerned primarily with the activity for its own sake. In its extreme form the learner enters into an activity which has been planned by adults and becomes immediately absorbed in the activity with little thought of the problem or problems which the activity is designed to solve. When the activity is over there is little or no evaluating of it from the point of view of meanings.

This is not a criticism of the activity method, as such, but only of an extreme form of it. The writer tried out under experimental conditions for one school year two forms of the activity method, employing many of the activities mentioned at the beginning of this section. One form of the activity method employed was an extreme form in which all discussion of objectives, meanings, etc.,



was reduced to the minimum. It was as far as possible activity and nothing but activity. The other form employed was the activity-plus-discussion method. Before each activity was undertaken, a free discussion was conducted on the problem which was to be taken up. The planning of the activity was discussed. Then after the activity was completed discussions were conducted on the meanings and significances of what had been done. For experimental purposes, the activities taken up by the two methods were identical. The results indicated clear superiority for the activity-plus-discussion method.

This conclusion seems to be worthy of considerable emphasis. The indirect method, in concentrating upon learning by doing, does much to avoid the character consciousness resulting from too much attention to the direct study of traits in the abstract. In this it is strong. But it may go to such extremes in emphasis upon doing, that it fails to give sufficient attention to meanings and to genuine mental experiencing. In this it is weak. True experiencing requires planning, physical and mental activity involved in execution, and the thinking through of the activities to meanings. The indirect method should never go to the extreme of concentrating on mere activity; it should always provide for the mental and emotional reactions necessary to convert activity into true experiencing.

So much for the discussion of what is probably the main set of practical problems in character education, namely, methods and procedures and their relative strengths and weaknesses.<sup>1</sup> There are, of course, many other problems which should be discussed, but space will permit mention of only two more. The first of these is the relation of the church to character education.

The Church and Character Education.--That religion and the church have strong and unique contributions to make to character development, few will deny. Throughout recorded history the church has stood, at least in its ideals, for the highest in character that man has been able to conceive. Its influence has been both individual and social. It has influenced every man's philosophy in some way. In the case of most men it has stirred altruistic impulses, contributed toward their orientation in life, and sustained confidence and hope. Counting among its heroes some of the greatest models of character development in history, it has, through literature, music, and oratory, motivated all who have come under its influence to emulate these examples. As a force in social education, its influence has been sometimes unifying, sometimes disuniting, depending upon whether basic religious principles or narrower denominational interpretations were in the ascendancy. Sometimes savage battles have been fought along the lines of cleavage created or reinforced by denominational interpretations. But consistently the Christian Church has held high the doctrine of personal worth and the brotherhood of man, which for centuries has been the brightest light of hope for eventual order in international affairs.

But how has this potential strength of religion and the church been put to work for education in character and Christian citizenship among children and youth? Within a given church or denomination, character education has usually been sought through special religious education programs, such as Sunday Schools, through parent education, or, in parochial schools, through attempts to have religious and character education permeate instruction in all branches of study. This

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<sup>1</sup>For a valuable book on educational methods in education for citizenship, see Stoddard, A. J. (Chairman, Educational Policies Commission): Learning the Ways of Democracy. Washington, D. C.: Educ. Policies Comm., 1940.

intra-church work in character education would form the subject for an important chapter in any comprehensive study of character education in the United States, but we can only make bare mention of it here.

The goals and methods of instruction are in a general way covered by the goals and procedures already discussed. The largest problem, however, of the church and its relation to character education remains to be mentioned. It is the problem of relation of the church, and religious education in general, to the education in character and citizenship attempted by the public schools. One of the basic guarantees of personal liberty in the Constitution of the United States is the freedom to worship in accordance with the dictates of individual conscience. In conformity with this guarantee, it is clear that no particular religious interpretation and no denominationalism of any individual or group can be taught in the public schools.

The crux of the problem is, therefore, how to get the added motivation and reinforcement for character and Christian citizenship which religion and the church might supply without endangering the guarantees to freedom of religion and conscience. This is, in the judgement of the writer, one of the two or three biggest problems facing character education in the schools and social service agencies in the United States today. It is one of the biggest problems because, if it should be solved adequately, all the educational forces and religious forces could effectively join in education for character and Christian citizenship. If, however, an inadequate or shortsighted solution to it should be pressed upon the public schools, they would almost certainly be split by controversy and their present contributions, including their democratizing effect, lost forever. Several different plans are being tried in attempts to solve this problem--all with some elements of strength and some elements of weakness.

One plan which is being tried in rather homogeneous communities is for the regular day-school teachers to give whatever religious instruction and religious reinforcement they deem necessary in connection with the character and citizenship education which they are providing. Another plan is for the leading representatives of the different religious denominations in a community to agree on what religious instruction may be safely given by teachers to support the character and citizenship program. A variation of this plan is to have leading representatives of the different denominations come to the school and give talks or lead discussions on those basic religious principles which are non-controversial and which may lend support to the character education program. Still another plan, and one which is receiving much attention at present, is that of excusing students from school during school hours for one or more periods weekly to go to their respective churches for religious instruction.<sup>1</sup> The ideal here is to have the religious instruction in the churches and the character education in the schools jibe in such a way that each reinforces the other. This plan has much to commend it in communities where denominational differences are pronounced, but the difficulty of attaining ideal integration is obvious.

In addition to these plans involving an attempt to work out a liaison between public schools and churches there is, on the one hand, the plan illustrated by the parochial school in which religious instruction pervades all the instruction, and, on the other, the plan of many public schools and recreational agencies of

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<sup>1</sup>For a detailed description of this plan, see Davis, M. D.: Weekday classes in religious education. U. S. Office of Education, Washington, Bull. 3, 1941.

providing as well as possible the motivation for character growth without recourse to any religious reinforcement except that normally supplied by the home and church. This last-named plan, if it be called a plan, is by far the one most frequently found in the United States. The very fact that this is so indicates the serious lack of any fully coordinated plan of character education which effectively joins the efforts of the two institutions in society which are most vitally concerned with the character development of the young. Some observers, being impressed with this lack of coordination, have advocated the outright introduction of religious education in the public schools, but the prevailing opinion in most sections of the United States, supported by not a few decisions of State Supreme Courts, is that the introduction of religious instruction in the public schools against the conscientious objections of minorities would be too great a price to pay in the form of threats to religious freedom for the possible gains in character education. Until suspicious denominationalism gives way to emphasis upon basic religious principles which all religious leaders can agree upon, and until more educators become convinced of the vital role which religion can play in the development of youth, it appears that the full potentialities for coordination between school and church will not be realized.

The Home and Character Education.---A second source of incoordination which should be mentioned is that between home and school. Hartshorne and May,<sup>1</sup> in an extensive investigation, found that the correspondence between a child's idea of right and wrong and that of his parent was much closer than that with his day-school teacher's or his religious instructor's opinions. This is easy to believe when it is considered that there are few actions or attitudes of children reacted to so strongly by parents as those involving problems of character, and that the control on the part of the parents is of such long duration, is so continuous, and involves such a variety of experiences. It is in the home that most of the values, motivations, and thwartings of the child have their immediate or remote origins.

The extent of this home and parental influence has not been overlooked by educators, but the problem of effectively linking the home and the schools has been a difficult one. Several promising attempts to effect a better liaison have been made, each with some success. The Visiting Teacher Movement has been one. This plan involves the use of professional social workers to establish and maintain active cooperation between the home and school in the case of problem children. This movement has emphasized the great values accruing from the cooperation of home and school and has revealed methods and procedures which might be employed by classroom teachers if they could be given some special training and could be prevailed upon to do more home visiting. Child guidance clinics have also served to stress the importance of cooperation of the home in all remedial work involving personality or character problems of children. Parent-teacher associations have been organized with the idea of effecting closer cooperation between the home and the school. And, finally, we might mention the slow but challenging method of so educating and serving older youth that they will maintain their contact with and interest in the school after they have graduated or withdrawn. The time interval between leaving school or college and the establishment of one's own home today is not so great but that the school through its adult-education and community-center programs might hold the interest of young people until they themselves become

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<sup>1</sup>Hartshorne, H., & May, M. A. Studies in the Nature of Character. 3 volumes (See Vol. III: Studies in the Organization of Character, 1930). New York: Macmillan.

parents. Any linking of one school generation with the next through common loyalty to the school sets the stage for superior cooperation of the home and school in character and citizenship education.<sup>1</sup>

The Teacher as the Keystone in Character Education.—We have reserved for the concluding section of this article, not a method or a procedure or a problem, but a matter about which there is unanimous agreement. In planning this article it was decided that questions of methods, procedures, and interrelations should receive main attention, but it is hoped that the spirit that gives life to the forms has not seemed lost or forgotten. Concerning the framework of procedures and methods for character education in school, there have been interesting experiments but there are still differences of opinion. But about the guiding spirit in that framework there is no debate. The teacher—all that he is and stands for—is the keystone in whatever structure of character education is built. No matter how sound the general plan or how good the method, it can fail of success in the hands of the ineffective teacher. Conversely, the teacher who is a genuine leader of boys and girls, while not uninfluenced by the goals and procedures in the system in which he works, shares a spirit which transcends the system. It is his spirit and example which will determine whether the instruction will be a formality or true experiencing; it is what he is that will create doubt or confidence; it is what he is that will deaden or inspire. In Tom Brown's School Days we have this truth simply expressed from the point of view of the learner: "What was it," asks Tom, "that moved and held us childish boys? We couldn't enter into half we heard; we hadn't the knowledge of our hearts or the knowledge of one another.... But we listened, as all boys in their better moods will listen to a man who we felt to be, with all his heart and soul and strength striving against whatever was mean and unmanly and unrighteous in our little world. It was not the cold, clear voice of one giving advice and warning from serene heights to those who were struggling and sinning below, but the warm living voice of one who was fighting for us and by our sides, and calling on us to help him and ourselves and one another. And so, wearily and little by little but surely and steadily on the whole, was brought home to the young boy, for the first time, the meaning of his life: that it was no fool's or sluggard's paradise...but a battlefield ordained from of old, where there are no spectators, but the youngest must take his side, and the stakes are life and death. And he who roused this consciousness in the boys showed them at the same time,...by his whole daily life how that battle was to be fought; and stood there before them their fellow soldier and the captain of their band."<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>For a fuller treatment of some of these points, see Reeves, F. D. (Director of American Youth Commission): Youth and Their Future. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1942.

<sup>2</sup>Hughes, T. Tom Brown's School Days.



The Concept and Challenge of Character Education.—In the study of character education as it has developed in the United States a distinction should be made between conforming character and constructive or dynamic character. Education toward conforming character is concerned with bringing children up to the moral standard of a given time and place. From the point of view of society it is largely geared to the status quo, and from the point of view of individual values it is motivated by adjustment to the demands for respectability. Education for constructive character is more challenging and dynamic. It envisages a program for all from the weakest and worst to the strongest and best. For the individual it seeks, not adjustment to present values, but a continuous reconstruction of values in light of changing conditions. It links itself closely with education for citizenship. This blending of character and citizenship education serves to make citizenship training less abstract and more personal and operational; it serves to help character education throw off its self-consciousness and smack of personal goodness by supplying an objectivity of outlook and a social awareness.

Methods and Procedures.—The methods in character education are ordinarily grouped under two headings: the direct methods and the indirect methods. A distinction should be made, however, between directness or indirectness from the point of view of the learner, on the one hand, and directness (including definiteness) or indirectness from the point of view of the teacher, on the other. The method which is direct for the student as well as the teacher ordinarily involves the study and use of traits, codes, rating scales, and well-worded expressions of ideals. Here the attention of the learner is mainly upon self-improvement in values and virtues by the direct study of them. The merit of the method is that it is planned and definite on the part of the teacher. Its weakness is that it leans so heavily on the assumption that the direct study of virtues will lead to their practice.

Another method, in some respects the opposite of the direct-direct, is what is sometimes called the incidental method. It is indirect and unplanned from the point of view of both teacher and student. Instruction which is incidentally given on the athletic field or in the history or literature class is of this type. The potentialities of this method are great, but frequently in practice any instruction which is left as unplanned and incidental is likely to be crowded out by the planned and the more immediate.

The third method is that which is direct and planned from the point of view of the teacher but indirect for the learner. The distinguishing feature of this method is that the learner has his attention centered upon activities involving actual choices in character and citizenship. The intention is to avoid as far as possible the gap between knowledge and practice by having the learner grow in action and knowledge simultaneously. In this direct-indirect method the emphasis upon learning by doing has loomed very large. Indeed, this leads us to the basic danger found by the writer in experimenting with this method. The danger is that learners will become so engrossed in activity for its own sake that they fail to think through the activity to meanings and generalizations. This danger can be overcome in some measure by having students discuss freely the reasons for and the significance of each activity in which they engage.

Interrelations.—So much for what is probably the main set of problems in character education so far as challenges and procedures are concerned. From the point of view of interrelation among different institutions interested in character education, there are two problems which stand above all others. The first

is that of how to get the reinforcement to character education in public schools which religion might supply without endangering the constitutional guarantees of freedom of worship. The second is that of how to establish a close liaison between the school and the home in the interest of greater efficiency in character education.

The Teacher.---In conclusion, one word should be said about the key position which the teacher holds in any plan or procedure in character education. It is the teacher's spirit and example which will determine whether the instruction under the best of plans will be a formality or true experiencing; it is what he is that will create doubt or confidence; it is what he is that will deaden or inspire.

OCTAVO CONGRESO PANAMERICANO DEL NIÑO  
WASHINGTON, D. C.  
Del 2 al 9 de mayo de 1942.

TRABAJO sometido por:  
Vernon Jones  
Universidad de Clark,  
Worcester, Massachusetts.

Sección II  
Educación y Recreo  
William G. Carr,  
Presidente de la Junta  
Técnica Consultiva.

EDUCACIÓN DEL CARÁCTER DURANTE LA INFANCIA Y LA JUVENTUD

(Resumen)

El Concepto y las Exigencias de la Educación del Carácter. -- Al estudiarse la educación del carácter conforme ésta se ha desarrollado en los Estados Unidos, debiera establecerse una diferencia entre el tipo de carácter tranquilo y acomodaticio, y el carácter constructivo o dinámico. La educación para el desarrollo de un carácter tranquilo se cuida de elevar a los niños a un nivel moral corriente en un determinado lugar y época. Desde el punto de vista de la sociedad en general, esta educación se rige por las condiciones existentes y, desde el punto de vista de los valores individuales, va encaminada hacia el desarrollo del sentimiento de respetabilidad, de acuerdo con las exigencias. La educación para el desarrollo de un carácter constructivo exige más y es más enérgica. Abarca un programa general para todos, desde el más débil y peor al mejor y más fuerte. No busca para el individuo una conformación a los valores actuales, sino una reconstrucción continua de valores en medio de condiciones que varían constantemente. Se asocia muy íntimamente con la educación ciudadana. La fusión de la educación de carácter con la ciudadana contribuye a hacer la preparación de ciudadanos menos abstracta y más personal y operativa; contribuye también a la educación del carácter haciendo a la persona menos consciente de sí misma y orgullosa al señalarle un objetivo hacia el exterior y comunicarle un sentimiento de responsabilidad ante la sociedad.

Métodos y procedimientos. -- Los métodos de educación del carácter generalmente se dividen en dos grupos: Los métodos directos y los indirectos. Debe hacerse sin embargo una diferencia entre lo directo y lo indirecto desde el punto de vista del que aprende, por un lado, y lo directo (incluyendo lo definitivo) y lo indirecto desde el punto de vista del maestro, por el otro lado. El método que es directo tanto para el estudiante como para el maestro generalmente lleva consigo el estudio y el empleo de toques, claves, escalas de graduación,

y expresiones de ideales en palabras apropiadas. Con esto la atención del estudiante se fija principalmente en mejorarse a sí mismo por medio de valores y virtudes debido al estudio directo de los mismos. El mérito de este método consiste en que está planeado y definido por parte del maestro. Su debilidad consiste en que se apoya excesivamente en la suposición de que el estudio directo de las virtudes hace que se llegue a practicarlas. Otro método que en cierta forma es opuesto al doblemente directo, es aquél que se llama algunas veces método incidental. Este es indirecto y sin planear, tanto desde el punto de vista del maestro como del discípulo. La instrucción que se da incidentalmente en el campo de la gimnasia, los deportes o en las clases de historia o literatura, es de este tipo. Este método tiene grandes posibilidades, pero con frecuencia al llevarlo a la práctica, ocurre que toda clase de instrucción sin planear e incidental es fácilmente desplazada por aquélla ya preparada y más inmediata.

El tercer método es aquél que es desde el punto de vista del maestro directo y planeado, pero indirecto para el discípulo. El rasgo característico que diferencia a este método es que el estudiante concentra su atención sobre asuntos que llevan consigo una selección efectiva de carácter y ciudadanía. La idea es acortar todo lo posible la separación que hay entre el conocimiento y la práctica haciendo que el discípulo adquiera experiencia y conocimiento simultáneamente. En este método "directo-indirecto" se ha acentuado grandemente la teoría de aprender ha ciendo cosas. Esto nos lleva hacia el peligro fundamental encontrado por el que suscribe al practicar este método. El peligro consiste en que la atención de los discípulos es absorbida por los asuntos en sí, y por lo tanto no prestan atención a sus significados y generalidades. Este peligro se puede evitar en cierta medida haciendo que los discípulos discutan libremente las razones de ser y el significado de cada actividad en que toman parte.

Interrelaciones.-- Basta por ahora de ocuparnos de los problemas principales de la educación del carácter y lo que ésta requiere, así como de sus procedimientos. Desde el punto de vista de la interrelación de las distintas instituciones dedicadas a la educación del carácter, hay dos problemas que se destacan de todos los demás. El primero es la manera de reforzar la educación del carácter en las escuelas públicas, refuerzo que pudiera suministrar la religión sin poner en peligro las garantías constitucionales relativas a la libertad de culto. El segundo consiste en hallar la forma de establecer un enlace íntimo entre la escuela y el hogar para hacer más eficaz la educación del carácter.



El maestro. -- Para terminar, debe mencionarse el lugar tan importante que ocupa el maestro en cualquier plan o procedimiento educativo del carácter. El espíritu del maestro y su ejemplo son los que determinarán si la instrucción, de acuerdo con los mejores planes, será una mera formalidad o una experiencia verdadera; lo que él sea, será lo que inspire duda o confianza; lo que él sea, será lo que desanime o sirva de inspiración.

EIGHTH PAN AMERICAN CHILD CONGRESS  
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PAPER prepared by:  
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Section II  
Education and Recreation

EDUCATION FOR LIBRARIANSHIP IN THE UNITED STATES

The present status of education for librarianship in the United States is best understood if presented against a background of library service in this country, since the program of training for such service has been in large part an outgrowth of a demand from libraries for personnel prepared to carry on specific tasks, or prepared for general service in particular types of libraries.

There is no centralized system of library organization in the United States, in the sense of a national plan or a system of library control by the national government. Libraries are established and operate within the framework of the laws of individual states, resulting in a varying pattern of library organization and services in different states.

Public libraries which are supported by public funds are controlled by the governmental unit from which their funds are immediately derived, i.e. state, county, or city. These units have considerable freedom in developing their own library services within the general requirements of the state laws. Many states have created library commissions or some other form of state wide library extension agency whose function it is to further the development of the libraries of the state.

Libraries of public educational institutions such as universities, colleges, technical schools, teachers colleges, are under the immediate control of the governing body of the institution. Federal libraries are under the unit of the national government which they serve and are supported by funds from that unit, such as the U. S. Department of Agriculture Library or the Library of the U. S. Patent Office. The Library of Congress, which is the National Library, and the National Archives, are, on the other hand independent units of the Federal government.

For a better comprehension of the personnel needs of libraries, we may consider libraries as falling into the following principal groups:

- (1) Public
- (2) Educational
- (3) Special

The public libraries include the general popular libraries of cities, counties and other governmental units, which provide reading material for the population within the area. They vary greatly in size and complexity, from a library serving a population of 1,000 or even less, to a great city system such as that of New York

with more than a million registered readers. Of the 6,000 libraries in this group, more than 90% are in communities of less than 25,000 population. These libraries in addition to providing general reading materials for the adult population, provide also carefully chosen book collections for children and young people and usually have librarians who have been specially prepared for work with younger readers. In the larger systems many other special book services are provided requiring special knowledge and training, particularly the subject departments of reference libraries in such fields as technology, social sciences and business.

The educational libraries include: (1) Libraries of a public school system (high school and elementary school libraries) (2) Libraries of higher educational institutions (colleges, universities, technical schools, teachers colleges.)

School libraries are the most numerous in this group and represent a rapidly developing service, with the high school library now definitely established as an essential part of the secondary school program. The elementary school library has seen a considerable growth in recent years and is a future field for library development. For appointment to school library positions there is required a knowledge of educational methods and objectives and preferably training both as teacher and as librarian. The number of centralized libraries in public schools in the United States has been estimated at 27,800, including a large proportion of small collections of 1,000 volumes or less. State laws have improved the standards of school library service through the setting up of minimum requirements with respect to book collections as well as the education and training of the librarian. Regional educational accrediting associations have likewise been instrumental in setting and improving standards.

The library in the college or university is a service unit of the larger institution of which it is a part, and its book collection, services and staff are modified by the objectives and the needs of that institution. The internal administration of these institutions is the responsibility of the chief administrative officer, usually a president, who selects the staff and to whom the librarian is directly responsible. These libraries have experienced considerable growth in the last twenty-five years along with a general expansion of higher educational facilities throughout the country. The number of such libraries is estimated at 1,400. Among factors in their growth and improvement may be mentioned specifically the work of regional accrediting associations such as the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, and, in the college library field, the work of the Advisory Group on College Libraries of the Carnegie Corporation. This group under the chairmanship of Dr. W. W. Bishop developed standards for measuring the quality of book collections and assigned substantial money grants to individual institutions to improve their book collections. The staffs in these libraries vary greatly in size. In smaller colleges the librarian is the only professionally trained worker, in the larger university libraries the number of professional librarians may exceed 100, including many specialists in subject fields or in technical places of library administration.

Special libraries in the broadest sense are those which are restricted to a particular subject or group of subjects. They may serve a professional or other specialized group, an industry or business. Many libraries of governmental units are in fact special libraries. Many special libraries are privately controlled, serving the staff of a private corporation or industry. Among these are the libraries of automobile, insurance, banking and like organizations. Librarians in such libraries will need intimate knowledge of the subject matter covered by their

collections as well as training in library techniques. There are approximately 1,500 libraries in the United States which may be classified as special libraries.

### LIBRARIANS AND LIBRARIANSHIP

It is evident from the above that the libraries will demand in their staffs a considerable range of abilities, special knowledge, training and experience to carry on their various services. This has naturally affected the selection for library schools and has brought into the profession persons with varied and sometimes highly specialized qualifications. It has also resulted in a certain amount of specialization within the library schools.

There are at present 30,000 library workers in the United States. Many of these hold membership in national, state or local associations. The largest and most important of these associations is the American Library Association with a membership of 16,000, whose history goes back to its founding in 1876 at a library conference held in Philadelphia in connection with the Centennial exposition. It includes in its membership libraries, librarians, trustees, and others interested in libraries. While most of its members live in Canada and the United States, it has members from many other countries, and is itself a member of the International Federation of Library Associations. The work of the Association is centered in Chicago where its headquarters staff is located, but many activities are carried on by members in the field through various boards and committees which deal with special aspects of library service. Annual conferences are held, and the profession is further served through the publication of professional journals, books and monographs dealing with library problems. The A. L. A. Bulletin published monthly is the official organ of the Association.

There are other national library associations many of which are affiliated with the American Library Association. Among these are the Special Libraries Association, American Association of Law Libraries, Association of American Library Schools, Association of Research Libraries, Medical Library Association, Theater Library Association, Music Library Association, and the Catholic Library Association. On March 15, 1942, fifteen of these groups including the American Library Association, and all these mentioned above, formed a Council of National Library Associations. This Council will seek to work out plans for cooperation in activities.

History of library schools. The first library school was established at Columbia College in New York City in 1887 by Dr. Melvil Dewey who was then librarian of the college. It was called the School of Library Economy. In 1889 when Dr. Dewey became librarian of the New York State Library, it was removed to Albany with him and became the New York State Library School. It remained there until 1926 when it returned to Columbia University as the School of Library Service.

Other schools were established in the next few years: Pratt Institute in Brooklyn in 1890, Drexel Institute in Philadelphia in 1892, and Armour Institute in Chicago in 1893. The school at Armour Institute was transferred to the University of Illinois in 1897 where it became the University of Illinois State Library School. All these schools are in operation today and are among those accredited by the American Library Association.

Since 1920 the number of schools has increased steadily as has the number of students graduated each year. In the calendar year of 1940, 1,677 students were awarded degrees or certificates for one or more year's study in accredited library schools. On March 1, 1941, 1,718 students were in residence as compared with 371 in 1920/21.



A study of conditions in library schools in 1920/21, prepared by Dr. C. C. Williamson for the Carnegie Corporation, of New York, and published in 1923, made certain recommendations for the improvement of training for library service. Many of the suggestions made in that report have since been carried out. The most conspicuous development has been the organization of library schools as teaching units in universities or other degree-conferring institutions, rather than as units of libraries. Eighteen library schools in the accredited group have been established since 1925 and all as schools or departments of universities or colleges. Along with this has come appointment to teaching staffs of a larger number of instructors who devote all their time to the work of instruction.

In 1924, the American Library Association created the Board of Education for Librarianship, which has set minimum standards for library schools seeking accreditation.. Thirty-one schools are now accredited and classified by this Board. Following is the list of accredited schools as published in the A. L. A. Bulletin for October 15, 1941. Since this list was published, another school has been provisionally accredited, that of the Catholic University of America in Washington, D. C. '

#### Accredited Library Schools

The Board of Education for Librarianship has classified and accredited the following library schools under Minimum Requirements for Library Schools adopted by the A. L. A. Council in October, 1933.<sup>1</sup> Classification of the schools neither includes nor implies a comparative rating or grading. The schools are listed alphabetically by the italicized name in common usage, with date of establishment and present classification.

New York State College for Teachers, Department of Librarianship, Albany.  
1926. Type III.2 3

University of California, School of Librarianship. 1919. Type I.

University of Chicago, Graduate Library School. 1926; opened 1928. Type I.<sup>4</sup>

Columbia University, School of Library Service. 1887. Type I.<sup>5</sup>

Texas State College for Women, Department of Library Science, Denton. 1929.  
Type III.2

University of Denver, School of Librarianship. 1931. Type III.

Drexel Institute of Technology, School of Library Science. 1891. Type II.

Emory University, Library School. 1905. Type II.

Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia, Library School. 1928. Type III.2

University of Illinois, Library School. 1893. Type I.

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<sup>1</sup>Proceedings of the Fifty-Fifth Annual Conference, pages 610-13.

<sup>2</sup>Emphasizes service in schools and colleges.

<sup>3</sup>Requires a college degree for admission.

<sup>4</sup>Graduate Study only.

<sup>5</sup>Degree curricula only accredited.

Louisiana State University, Library School. 1931. Type II.

McGill University, Library School. 1927. Type II.

University of Michigan, Department of Library Science. 1926. Type I.

University of Minnesota, Division of Library Instruction. 1928. Type III.

New Jersey College for Women, Library School. 1927. Type III.

University of North Carolina, School of Library Science. 1931. Types II and III.

University of Oklahoma, School of Library Science. 1929. Type III.<sup>3</sup>

George Peabody College for Teachers, Library School. 1928. Type II.<sup>2</sup>

Carnegie Institute of Technology, Carnegie Library School, Pittsburgh. 1901. Type II.

Pratt Institute, Library School. 1890. Type II.

Rosary College, Department of Library Science. 1930. Type III.<sup>6</sup>

College of St. Catherine, Department of Library Science. 1929. Type III.

Simmons College, School of Library Science. 1902. Types II and III.

University of Southern California, Graduate School of Library Science. 1936. Type II.

Syracuse University, School of Library Science. 1908. Type II.

University of Toronto, Library School. 1928. Type II.<sup>5</sup>

University of Washington, School of Librarianship. 1911. Type II.<sup>7</sup>

Western Reserve University, School of Library Science. 1904. Type II.

College of William and Mary, Department of Library Science. 1931. Type III.<sup>2</sup>

University of Wisconsin, Library School. 1906. Type III.<sup>3</sup>

Types of Schools. The classification of schools into three types does not imply a comparative rating of the schools but is based primarily on requirements for admission and the extent of the curriculum. Type I and Type II schools admit only students who already have a bachelor's degree from a college or university. Type III schools offer only one year's work in library science, while Type I schools may offer two or more years leading to the master's degree or the doctorate. Type III

<sup>2</sup>Emphasizes service in schools and colleges.

<sup>3</sup>Requires a college degree for admission.

<sup>5</sup>Degree curricula only accredited.

<sup>6</sup>Emphasizes service in Catholic schools and colleges. *accredited*

<sup>7</sup>Curriculum leading to B. A. in Librarianship only. *accredited*

schools offer only one year's work in library science and may admit students with less than four years of collegiate study.

Entrance requirements. Recognizing the fact that library service demands a high quality of personnel, library schools select their students with considerable care. Emphasis is placed on scholarship, knowledge of languages and subject matter, and the personal characteristics considered desirable for the library profession. The requirement of a liberal education as represented by a bachelor's degree from a college or university has become general for admission to library schools, and many candidates now present one or more years of graduate study in a subject field before beginning their professional studies in librarianship.

Equipment. The library school ordinarily has its quarters in the library building of the institution with which it is connected. There is usually a separate professional library in the field of library science, a study room with a desk for each student, one or more classrooms, and offices for the teaching and administrative staffs. Practice book collections are provided for work in individual courses. The collections of all the libraries of the university are open to library science students for study and observation.

Curricula and degrees. The first year of study is general and basic with only a limited opportunity for specialization. In the second year, which constitutes the first year of graduate study in librarianship, there is opportunity for specialization and research on specific problems. The basic curriculum of the first year deals with principles underlying the main divisions of library work, providing an introduction to the organization of collections and services in different kinds of libraries. Some schools provide a certain amount of specialized preparation for work in particular classes of libraries, such as college libraries or school libraries. A few schools have specialized in the preparation of children's librarians for public libraries. A typical first year curriculum will include courses in (1) book selection and order work, (2) cataloging and classification, (3) reference and bibliography, and (4) administration. Other courses may deal with the problems peculiar to a particular type of library, or with special classes of library materials, such as periodicals or documents.

Schools which admit only college graduates to their curricula, award either a certificate for the completion of the first year's work, or a professional bachelor's degree. This degree is in most cases either Bachelor of Arts in Library Science, or Bachelor of Science in Library Science. A second year of study usually leads to the degree of Master of Arts in Library Science, or Master of Science in Library Science.

Placement. While library schools do not guarantee positions to all candidates they admit, they make every effort to place them in suitable openings and are usually responsible for the first positions in which their graduates begin their professional careers. Entrance into the profession is now largely through the library schools. In places where professional library positions are filled through civil service, admission to the examination is usually limited to library school graduates. A common procedure when a vacancy occurs in a professional position on a library staff, is for the head librarian to direct an inquiry to one or more of the library schools, setting forth the specifications for the position and requesting that recommendation of suitable candidates be made to him. Library schools keep full records of the experience of their graduates in order to be able to reply to such inquiries with adequate information.

Another important placement agency is the Personnel Division of the American Library Association, located at the Chicago headquarters. This Division accepts registrants from all the library schools, makes recommendations for library positions, and cooperates with the schools in problems relating to placement.

Other types of training. While professional education for librarianship has become standardized to the extent indicated above, there are other types of library instruction designed to train teacher-librarians and sub-professional or clerical workers on the staffs of large libraries. In addition, there are courses in bibliography, and the use of libraries and library apparatus, offered to college students, to acquaint them with bibliographical method, and in general prepare them for the most effective use of libraries.

Apprentice classes are operated by some large public library systems to prepare workers for sub-professional and clerical positions on their staffs. The period of study is of varying length and usually involves a combination of formal study with considerable supervised practice.

Some form of library training for teacher-librarians has become a necessity with the increased use of library materials in the instructional program in the schools. In the majority of school systems where the staff is small and the library does not constitute a major administrative responsibility, its care is entrusted to a teacher who devotes only part of her time to the library. For such positions the librarian must be trained as a teacher primarily, but in addition needs some elementary knowledge of library methods and materials. Special courses to meet this need have been developed in many institutions, and especially so in the teachers colleges and normal schools. Such courses while not ordinarily accepted by library schools as equivalent to the basic work of an accredited curriculum, are recognized in the education laws of many states as preparation for positions as librarians in the smaller school units. For full time library positions, however, at least one academic year of work in an accredited library school is considered a minimum essential.

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## Résumé

As background for an outline of professional education for librarianship, brief consideration is first given to the organization of libraries in the United States and the types of library service which have been developed.

There is no national system of libraries, and the Federal government has no jurisdiction over the development of library services in the different States. The public libraries of cities, counties and other regional units are established and operate under the general provisions of State laws, but are under the immediate jurisdiction of the unit from which their funds are derived. Many States have established State library commissions whose function it is to develop and promote library service within the States.

Libraries may be grouped into three main classes: (1) public libraries serving the general public in an area such as a city; (2) educational libraries serving a particular institution or school system, i.e., elementary and secondary public schools, colleges and universities; (3) special libraries, i.e., business, industry, government. Many of these libraries require persons not only skilled in the technical details of library organization, but with subject knowledge as well.

Professional education for librarianship in the United States goes back to 1887 when Dr. Melvil Dewey established the School of Library Economy at Columbia University in New York. Three other schools were established before 1895, all of which are still in existence. There are now thirty-one accredited library schools in the United States and Canada, with a total enrollment as of March 1, 1941 of about 1,750 students.

In the early years, library schools were commonly units of large public libraries. Now they are usually organized as departments or schools in universities.

The Board of Education for librarianship of the American Library Association was established in 1924. This Board examines individual schools and determines their accreditation and classification. Schools are grouped into three types according to their admission requirements and the length of the curriculum they offer. Type I and Type II schools admit only college graduates. Type I schools offer two years or more of study leading to the master's degree or the doctorate. Type II schools offer only one year. Type III schools are also one-year schools, and may admit students who have less than four years of collegiate study.

Library schools select students with great care, emphasizing scholarship and personal qualifications. They are active in securing positions for their graduates and keep in touch with them throughout their professional careers. The Personnel Division of the American Library Association also operates as a placement agency serving all the members of the Association.

Other types of training provide a shorter period of study for particular classes of library workers. Among these are the apprentice classes in large public libraries which prepare for sub-professional or clerical positions on their staffs, and the special courses frequently offered in teacher-training institutions for teachers who will have the responsibility of the library in smaller school systems.

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WASHINGTON, D.C.

Del 2 al 9 de mayo de 1942

TRABAJO sometido por:  
Rudolph H. Gjelsness, Presidente  
Departamento de Ciencia Biblio-  
tecaria, Universidad de Michigan  
Ann Arbor, Michigan

Sección II  
Educación y Recreo

CURSOS DE PRACTICA BIBLIOTECARIA EN LOS  
ESTADOS UNIDOS

(Resumen)

Como base para el bosquejo de la instrucción profesional en la práctica bibliotecaria, deben considerarse inicialmente la organización de las bibliotecas en los Estados Unidos, y las distintas clases de servicios bibliotecarios que se han desarrollado.

No existe un sistema nacional de bibliotecas, y el gobierno federal no posee jurisdicción alguna sobre el desenvolvimiento de los servicios bibliotecarios en los diversos estados de la Unión. Las bibliotecas públicas en las ciudades, en los condados, y en otras unidades regionales, se establecen y se administran bajo decretos legislativos estatales, pero están sometidas a la jurisdicción inmediata de la unidad que provee los fondos necesarios para su operación. Muchos estados han creado juntas administrativas estatales cuya función es activar y estimular los servicios bibliotecarios dentro de los propios estados.

Las bibliotecas se pueden clasificar en tres tipos principales: (1) bibliotecas públicas, que prestan servicios al público en general, en un territorio urbano; (2) bibliotecas educacionales, al servicio de alguna institución particular o de algún sistema escolar, como por ejemplo, escuelas públicas elementales y secundarias, colegios, y universidades; y (3) bibliotecas especiales, a saber: financieras, industriales, y gubernamentales. Muchas de estas bibliotecas requieren los servicios de personas adiestradas, no solamente en los detalles técnicos de la organización bibliotecaria, sino que también en los múltiples secretos y conocimientos de la materia.

La instrucción especializada para bibliotecarios en los Estados Unidos tuvo su origen en el año 1887, cuando el Doctor Melvil Dewey fundó la Escuela de Economía Bibliotecaria en la Universidad de Columbia, ciudad de Nueva York. Otras tres escuelas se establecieron antes del año 1895, y las tres todavía subsisten. Hay en el presente treinta y una escuelas de ciencia bibliotecaria acreditadas en los Estados Unidos y en el Canadá, con una matrícula total, en Mayo 1º de 1941, de cerca de

1,750 estudiantes.

En los primeros años de su creación, las escuelas de ciencia bibliotecaria eran, ordinariamente, unidades de las grandes bibliotecas públicas. En el presente, por lo regular están organizadas como departamentos o facultades en las universidades.

La Junta de Educación de Ciencia Bibliotecaria, adscrita a la Sociedad Americana de Bibliotecas, vió la luz en el año 1924. Esta junta tiene la función de examinar individualmente a cada escuela, y de determinar su acreditación y clasificación. Las escuelas se dividen en tres grupos, de acuerdo con sus requisitos de ingreso y la extensión de los cursos que ofrecen. Las escuelas clasificadas como Tipo I y Tipo II sólo admiten personas con títulos universitarios. Las escuelas del Tipo I ofrecen cursos de dos o más años de estudio, conducentes al bachillerato especializado, o al doctorado. Las escuelas del Tipo II solamente ofrecen cursos de un año, y las escuelas del Tipo III también ofrecen cursos de un año, pero matriculan alumnos que han tenido menos de cuatro años de estudios colegiales.

Las escuelas de ciencia bibliotecaria seleccionan a sus alumnos con suma cautela, dando énfasis a los aspectos de erudición y otras cualidades personales del candidato. Se muestran asimismo estas escuelas muy celosas en procurarle empleo a sus graduandos, y en mantenerse en contacto con ellos durante todo el curso de sus esfuerzos profesionales. La división de personal de la Sociedad Americana de Bibliotecas también actúa como agencia de empleos que presta servicios a todos los miembros de la Sociedad.

Otras fases de la instrucción proveen un período más corto de estudio para ciertas clases de bibliotecarios. Entre éstas se encuentran clases de aprendices en las grandes bibliotecas públicas, que preparan al estudiante para desempeñar cargos secretariales; y los cursos especiales que frecuentemente ofrecen algunas escuelas normales para aquellos maestros que tendrán a su cargo las bibliotecas en sistemas escolares de menor importancia.



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PAPER prepared by:  
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Section II  
Education and Recreation

SCHOOL ATTENDANCE AND CHILD LABOR  
IN THE UNITED STATES

One of the most striking examples of progress through democratic action has been the development of public education in the United States. Free schools were unknown in early Colonial days. Education, or what passed for education, was limited to boys whose families could afford to send them to church schools. Gradually, as the new Nation progressed, various types of schools for both boys and girls sprang up in different parts of the country. All were under private, usually church, auspices. Some received public money for "pauper" children; in other sections of the country separate church "charity" schools were established. The first "public" schools were rate schools—i.e., charges were levied against those parents whose children attended.

It was not until the first half of the nineteenth century that the movement for tax-supported schools really began to make headway. A bitter and dramatic struggle preceded acceptance of the idea that education was a function of the state and that free education should be provided for all children through elementary and secondary grades. Since that time there has been steady and in some respects almost phenomenal progress in bringing this ideal to realization.

Progress in School Attendance in the United States

The most outstanding fact with regard to school attendance in the United States is the remarkable increase in the course of 70 years, not more than an individual's life span, in the number of children who are enrolled in public schools, the number of years they attend school, and the length of the school term. Figures compiled from reports of the United States Office of Education since 1870 reflect this progress:

Some Measurements of Public-School Progress in the  
United States, 1870-1940

	1870	1880	1890	1900	1910	1920	1930	1940
Percent of population 5-17 years, inclusive, enrolled in public elementary and secondary schools.....	57.0	65.5	68.6	72.4	73.5	77.8	81.3	85.3
Percent of enrollment in average daily attendance.....	59.3	62.3	64.1	68.6	72.1	74.8	82.8	86.7
Average number of days schools were in session.....	132	130	135	144	158	162	173	175
Average number of days attended by each pupil enrolled.....	78	81	86	99	113	121	143	152
Percent of total elementary and high-school enrollment in high-school grades.....	1.2	1.1	1.6	3.3	5.1	10.2	17.1	26.0

The proportion of the population 5 to 17 years enrolled in school is significant as showing a trend, but several factors affect its validity as an actual measure of the number of children in school. The fact that children in private and parochial schools are not included would tend to make it an understatement. This is more than offset, however, by two other factors: (1) the basis for determining "enrollment" in some States permits duplication and (2) the percent is based on the total elementary- and secondary-school enrollment and many children over 17 years are in these schools. The Census figure of 1930, which is an actual count by age groups of all children attending schools of any kind, public, private or parochial, between September 1, 1929, and April 1, 1930, is slightly lower than the Office of Education's figure for that year—a difference of 0.9 percent—i.e., about 285,000 children.

Inequalities in Educational Progress

In so vast a country as the United States, and with education under the control of 48 separate States, national averages do not necessarily reflect the general educational status in all parts of the country. The average number of days attended in 1940 by each pupil enrolled, for instance, varied from 116 in Mississippi to 168 in Maryland—a difference of more than 2½ school months. The proportion of the total school enrollment in the high-school grades varied even more markedly—from a low of 12.3 percent in Mississippi to 32.3 percent in Oregon.



This is the second striking fact in the development of education in the United States—the unevenness of progress in different sections of the country. Figures from the 1930 Census (1940 Census figures are not yet compiled) showing attendance by age groups separately for urban and for rural areas indicate that conditions in urban areas are above the average for the country as a whole and those in rural areas are considerably below.

Percent of Population, by Age Groups, Attending School in the  
United States in Urban and Rural Districts  
(U.S. Census 1930)

Age of children	United States	Urban	Rural
5 years.....	20.0	29.6	10.8
6 years.....	66.3	76.6	56.4
7-13 years.....	95.3	97.3	93.3
14-15 years.....	88.8	92.7	85.0
16-17 years.....	57.3	60.5	53.9
Total.....	80.4	84.1	76.8

The average length of the term in city and rural schools also shows great disparities. In 1938 the last year for which data are now available the average length of the term for city schools was 170 days or more in every State but one. For rural schools, however, the average length of the term was less than 170 days in 21 States. In 3 States it was less than 150 days, and in one State only 136 days—i.e., less than 7 months.

When school-attendance figures are analyzed by nativity, another aspect of the uneven status of education in the United States is revealed.

School Attendance in the United States  
by Age Groups and Nativity  
(U.S. Census 1930)

Age of children	United States	Native white— native parent- age	Native white— foreign or mixed parentage	Foreign- born white	Negro
5 years.....	20.0	18.7	29.6	30.9	12.7
6 years.....	66.3	66.6	77.3	79.0	50.3
7-13 years.....	95.3	96.1	98.0	97.5	87.3
14-15 years.....	88.8	90.0	91.3	92.6	78.1
16-17 years.....	57.3	61.0	54.4	52.3	46.3
Total.....	80.4	81.3	83.8	81.7	70.6

The fact that school attendance is highest, except for 16- and 17-year olds, among foreign-born children and those of foreign or mixed parentage may reflect to some extent the desire of these groups to take advantage of the educational opportunities offered in the United States. The primary explanation, however, undoubtedly lies in the relative distribution of these populations in urban and rural areas, and the lower educational standards, already noted, in the latter. Whereas more than half—57 percent—of the native white population 5 to 17 years lived in rural areas in 1930, only 24 percent of the foreign-born children and those of foreign-born or mixed parentage did so.

The lower status of education in rural areas accounts also, in part, for the poor school attendance among Negro children. Sixty-six percent of Negro children lived in rural areas in 1930. However, even within the same areas, there is a great discrepancy between educational advantages for Negro and white children. The following table gives comparative figures for 1940 for 17 States which operate separate school systems for white and Negro children.

	Percent of population 5-17 years enrolled	Average length of term in days	Average number of days attended by each pupil enrolled	Percent of total enrollment in high-school grades
White....	85.3	171	145	23.1
Negro....	*85.9	157	126	10.5

\* Many more white children than Negro children are enrolled in private and parochial schools.

In one State, where Negro children outnumbered white children, there was in 1938 a difference of 47 school days—i.e., more than 2 school months—in the average length of the term for Negro and white schools. In this same State the average number of days attended by each pupil enrolled was only 87 for Negro children although it was 131 for white children.

#### Compulsory School Attendance

A logical outgrowth of the provision by the State of free schools was the idea that the State should require children to attend school, i.e., compulsory education. It was less than 100 years ago—in 1852—that the first general compulsory-attendance law was passed. This was a Massachusetts statute requiring children between 8 and 14 years to attend school for at least 12 weeks each year, 6 weeks to be consecutive. It is a far cry from this early statute to the present Massachusetts law, enacted in 1939, which requires all children 7 to 16 years, with exemption only for children who have completed the sixth grade and are engaged in profitable work at home, to attend school for the entire school term which is 36 weeks in elementary schools and 38 weeks in high schools.

Not all States have made such rapid progress. The first compulsory-attendance law in Georgia, for instance, was not enacted until 1916. It required that children between 8 and 14 years attend school for 4 months a year and excused, even from this low requirement, children who had completed the fourth grade and those whose services were needed for their own or their parents' support. The only change in the Georgia law has been an extension of the compulsory attendance period to 6 months and limitation of the exemptions to children who have completed the seventh grade and those whose services are needed for agricultural work, who may be excused temporarily.

The general trend in the United States today is to require school attendance up to 16 years of age. As stated above, however, education is the responsibility of the 48 individual States. The entire conduct of the schools, including such matters as school-attendance requirements and the length of the school term, is determined by each State. At present less than one-third of the States require children to be 16 years old before leaving school for work and even several of these have exemptions permitting children younger than 16 to leave school for domestic or farm work. The great majority of States permit children of 14 and 15 years, occasionally younger, to leave school for employment but require attendance to 16 years for those who are not employed. In such cases completion of a specified school grade, varying from the fifth to the eighth grade, is usually required. Two States have no school-attendance requirement whatever beyond 14 years.

There is also a trend towards requiring older minors to be either in school or at work. Eleven States now require school attendance up to 17 or 18 years for children who are not employed, although some of them exempt those who have completed their elementary course.

In most States the compulsory-attendance requirement is operative throughout the entire time that the schools are in session. In 10 States, however, attendance is not required for the full term, at least in rural areas.

Although 1940 Census figures on school attendance are not yet compiled for the country as a whole, figures for 30 States are now available. These reflect the differences in attendance requirements among the States, and, especially for older children, the poorer attendance in farm areas. These figures are based on school enrollment during the month of March 1940.

Percent of Children of Specified Age Groups in 30 States and the District of Columbia Enrolled in School in March 1940

Age	Range in percent <sup>1/</sup>	Median of percents
7-13 years....	From 62.7 to 97.9	97.0
14-15 years...	From 62.6 to 97.0	90.4
16-17 years...	From 44.2 to 86.8	67.3
7-17 years....	From 59.2 to 95.7	90.7

<sup>1/</sup> The range would not be so great except for figures from one State where many rural schools operate from July to January. Children in such schools were not counted as enrolled in school in March.

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Percent of Children of Specified Age Groups in Urban Areas  
in 30 States Enrolled in School in March 1940

Age	Range in percent	Median of percents
7-13 years.....	From 95.2 to 98.3	97.3
14-15 years.....	From 83.8 to 97.6	94.4
16-17 years.....	From 57.4 to 91.4	73.9
7-17 years.....	From 85.8 to 96.8	92.3

Percent of Children of Specified Ages in Rural-Farm Areas  
in 30 States Enrolled in School in March 1940

Age	Range in percent <sup>1/</sup>	Median of percents
7-13 years.....	From 42.5 to 97.9	96.9
14-15 years.....	From 45.1 to 95.8	84.8
16-17 years.....	From 32.4 to 86.1	59.5
7-17 years.....	From 41.1 to 94.6	87.1

<sup>1/</sup> The range would not be so great except for figures from one State where many rural schools operate from July to January. Children in such schools were not counted as enrolled in school in March.

The Relationship of Child Labor and School Attendance

To this uneven development of school attendance in the United States many factors have contributed—the attitude of the community towards education, the financial ability of the States to support schools, and the extent to which children are permitted to leave school for employment. These are not isolated factors but bear a close relationship. The following table listing the 15 States with the poorest ranking with respect to child labor, school attendance, length of the school term, per capita expenditure for education and illiteracy shows striking correlations. (The dates relate to 1930 since this is the latest available. Since then, marked progress has been made in several States, notable in relation to child-labor laws.)



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## SIX IMPORTANT RANKINGS

Below are listed in order of rank the 15 States with the poorest ranking in the United States on the points specified. The State with the poorest rank heads the list

I	II	III	IV	V	VI
Greatest percentage of population 10-15 years, inclusive, employed $\frac{1}{2}$	Highest percentage of illiteracy among persons 10-20 years, incl. $\frac{1}{2}$	Lowest percentage of children 7-15 years, incl., in school $\frac{1}{2}$	Lowest relative amount of attendance $\frac{2}{3}$	Shortest average length of school term $\frac{2}{3}$	Lowest per capita expenditure for education $\frac{4}{5}$
Mississippi	South Carolina	South Carolina	South Carolina	Mississippi	Georgia
South Carolina	Louisiana	Georgia	Mississippi	Arkansas	Arkansas
Alabama	Alabama	Louisiana	Georgia	Texas	Mississippi
Georgia	New Mexico	Alabama	Alabama	South Carolina	Alabama
Arkansas	Arizona	Texas	Arkansas	Georgia	South Carolina
North Carolina	Mississippi	Virginia	North Carolina	Alabama	Tennessee
Louisiana	Georgia	Kentucky	Louisiana	Louisiana	North Carolina
Tennessee	North Carolina	Arkansas	Kentucky	North Carolina	Virginia
Texas	Texas	New Mexico	Texas	Florida	Kentucky
Florida	Virginia	Arizona	Florida	Wyoming	Louisiana
Kentucky	Florida	Mississippi	Tennessee	Idaho	Florida
Virginia	Tennessee	North Carolina	Virginia	Tennessee	Texas
Missouri	Kentucky	Florida	Oklahoma	Virginia	Oklahoma
Maryland	Arkansas	Tennessee	Arizona	Kentucky	Maine
New Mexico	West Virginia	West Virginia	New Mexico	West Virginia	Missouri

$\frac{1}{2}$  Based on the United States Census 1930.

$\frac{2}{3}$  Based on a comparison of estimated number of aggregate days' attendance by children 5 to 17 years and the aggregate days' attendance if all children 5 to 17 years of age had attended 200 days (National Education Association based on 1930 Census).

$\frac{3}{4}$  For 1929-30 (U. S. Office of Education).

$\frac{4}{5}$  For 1930 (U.S. Office of Education).

Correlation of above columns: The 15 States with the greatest percentage of children employed (Col. I) include—

13 of those with the greatest percentage of illiteracy (Col. II).

13 of those with the lowest percentage of children 7 to 15 years in school (Col. III).

13 of those with the lowest relative amount of attendance (Col. IV).

12 of those with the shortest average length of school term (Col. V).

13 of those with the lowest per capita expenditure for education (Col. VI).

### Decrease in Child Labor

Child labor is the arch-enemy of education and one of the most important factors in improving school attendance has been a reduction in the number of children gainfully employed. During the past three decades, when school attendance has taken its greatest spurt, there has also been a striking decrease in child labor. These two factors are closely associated.

The employment of child workers reached its peak in the United States in 1910 when nearly 2,000,000 children 10 to 16 years were reported by the Census as gainfully employed. Since that year, there has been a drastic reduction as the following table shows.

Number of Children 10 to 17 Years Gainfully Employed in the United States 1910-1930, and in the Labor Force in 1940

	10-13 Years	14-15 Years	16-17 Years
1910....	895,976	1,094,249	Not reported
1920....	378,063	682,795	1,712,648
1930...	235,328	431,790	1,478,841
*1940...	Not reported	255,336	1,047,316

\*The figures for 1940, based on a 5 percent sampling of returns, are not entirely comparable with those of other years. Prior to 1940 the question of gainful employment was based upon whether the person usually followed a gainful occupation. The 1940 "labor force" includes those who, during the week the Census was taken, were actually at work in private employment or on Government emergency projects or were seeking employment, including a considerable number of new workers who had never held a job. Seventeen percent of the 14- and 15-year olds reported as in the labor force and 35 percent of the 16- and 17-year olds were not employed but were seeking work.

The Census count of child workers has always been an understatement, especially for children working in agriculture. The Census is taken in April when agriculture in many States is not fully under way, especially the harvesting processes in which children are engaged in great numbers. The Census of 1930, for instance, reported only 2,051 children 10 to 16 years engaged in agricultural work in Colorado—although one of the large beet-sugar companies of that State estimated that same year that 6,000 children between the ages of 6 and 16 were employed in the section in which it operated. Nor does the Census include the full number of "street traders" whose work is usually carried on before and after school hours—newsboys, magazine sellers, bootblacks, and so forth. Only 21,783 newsboys 10 to 16 years were reported by the 1930 Census—whereas the newspaper industry estimated that over a quarter million children under 16 years were so engaged.

The decrease in child employment has been most marked for younger children as is indicated by the percent of the population of each age group employed during the past three decades.

Percent of Population 10-17 Years Gainfully Employed in the United States (1920-1930) and in the Labor Force in 1940

Age	1920	1930	1940*
10-13 years.....	4.4	2.4	Not reported
14-15 years.....	17.5	9.2	5.3
16-17 years.....	44.7	31.7	21.3
Total.....	17.0	11.3	---

\* See footnote to preceding table.

Like school attendance, child labor is unevenly distributed throughout the country. Although the 1940 Census figures on children in the labor force are not yet available by States, they have been issued for general geographic areas. The preponderance of child labor in the South reflects to a large extent the fact that the most common form of child labor in the United States is in agricultural occupations.

Percent of Persons 14-17 Years, Inclusive, in Labor Force in 1940 by General Geographic Areas

Age	United States	North	South	West
14 years.....	3.7	1.6	7.4	2.2
15 years.....	6.8	3.7	12.6	4.0
16 years.....	15.4	12.0	22.2	10.2
17 years.....	27.5	25.8	32.7	18.1

North: New England, Middle Atlantic, East North Central, West North Central

South: South Atlantic, East South Central, West South Central

West: Mountain, Pacific

#### Present Status of Child Labor

The trend in the United States is towards the adoption of a 16-year age minimum for employment in manufacturing and mining occupations and for employment of any kind during school hours. This is the standard advocated by the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy which met in Washington in 1940, by the International Association of Governmental



Labor Officials, and by all agencies, both governmental and private, which are concerned with problems of juvenile employment. These groups also recommend an 18-year minimum for hazardous employment, a 14-year minimum for work outside of school hours in nonmanufacturing and mining occupations, an 8-hour day and 40-hour week for minors under 18 years and prohibition of night work up to 18 years.

The standard bearing most directly on school attendance is the 16-year minimum. One part of this standard—a 16-year age minimum for employment at any time in manufacturing and mining industries—became a reality through the Federal Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938. This sets, for the entire country, a 16-year age minimum for employment in all industries which produce goods destined for shipment in interstate commerce. A limited amount of work in nonmanufacturing or mining operations is permitted outside of school hours at 14 years, and the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor is empowered to determine what occupations are hazardous for minors under 18 years and to forbid their employment therein. This law is administered by the Children's Bureau in cooperation with State departments of labor and education. In the administration of this law, the use of an age certificate which is based on documentary proof of age is designed to prevent the employment of under-age minors. Inspection is also carried on, and when an employer persists in violating the child-labor provisions, legal action is taken.

This Act was passed at a time when employment opportunities for young people were still greatly curtailed due to the economic depression. The full effects of the child-labor provisions of this Act were probably not felt so much in the year immediately following its passage as at the present time when opportunities for employment are multiplying rapidly. Experience under previous periods of industrial expansion would indicate that, if this Federal law were not operative, thousands of 14- and 15-year-old children would now be leaving school for employment in canneries, mills and factories.

The second part of the 16-year standard—namely, a minimum age of 16 years for all employment during school hours—is by no means universal throughout the country. The only basis for Federal child-labor legislation in the United States is through the power of Congress to regulate interstate commerce. Therefore intrastate industries, such as restaurants, garages, hotels, places of amusement, and so forth, do not come under Federal law. Regulation of children in such establishments is dependent entirely upon State laws.

At the present time 13 States, including 41 percent of the population, approximate the 16-year minimum standard for all employment during school hours. Some of them make exceptions for children of 14 and 15 years working in agriculture and domestic service, either in the child's home or elsewhere. Four States set a minimum age of 15 years for most occupations during school hours and the remainder set a minimum age of 14 years although a few of these permit exceptions. On the whole, however, a 14- or 16-year-age minimum for employment during school hours prevails generally throughout the United States, with the exception of employment in industrialized agriculture.

### Child Labor in Agriculture

Child labor in industrialized agriculture constitutes the biggest child-labor problem in the United States today. It is estimated that approximately half a million children under 16 years are employed in agriculture at some time during the year. This is a higher figure than the Census indicates, for as previously mentioned, the Census was taken on April 1 when agriculture, in most States, is not fully under way.

More children have always been employed in agriculture than in any other occupation, and for the younger age group more children have been employed in agriculture than in all other occupations together. The proportion of working children who are engaged in agriculture has steadily increased during the past three decades. Although the 1940 Census data on children in the labor force are not yet available by occupations, the number in the labor force in rural farm areas, the great majority of whom are presumably employed in agriculture, is comparable with the figures of previous years. The following table gives the number of children employed in agriculture and the percent of the total number employed who are in agriculture, by age groups, since 1930.

Number of Children 10-17 Years Employed in Agriculture and Percent of Total Number Employed, 1920-1930 and Number in Labor Force in Rural Farm Areas and Percent of Labor Force 1940, by Age Groups

Age	1920		1930		1940 *	
	Number of children employed in agriculture	Percent of total number of employed children	Number of children employed in agriculture	Percent of total number of employed children	Number of children in labor force in rural farm areas	Percent of total number of children in labor force
10-13 years.	328,958	87.0	205,563	87.4	Not reported	
14 years....	150,977	58.6	113,694	72.1	59,300	66.0
15 years....	167,374	39.4	150,240	54.8	97,670	59.0
16 years....	230,291	29.6	230,656	39.2	165,752	43.0
17 years....	247,620	26.5	275,415	30.9	221,361	33.5

\* See footnote to table on page 7.

A statement\* submitted by the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor to a Senate Committee investigating agricultural conditions in 1940 points out that the employment of children in agriculture "is

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\* Statement of Beatrice McConnell, Director, Industrial Division, Children's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor, to a Subcommittee of the Committee on Education and Labor, U. S. Senate, May 27, 1940.

not limited to isolated sections of the country but prevails throughout widely separated areas . . . They engage in a large number of different operations on many crops. They thin, hoe, pull, and top sugar beets; weed cabbages and other vegetables; pull, top and tie onions, radishes, and carrots; cut and bunch asparagus; gather string beans, lima beans, peas, tomatoes, walnuts, cranberries, strawberries and other berries, pick prunes, some other orchard fruits and hops; chop and pick cotton. Children of agricultural laborers also work in drying sheds at such processes as cutting fruits, such as peaches, apricots, and pears."

The agricultural child laborer may work individually for pay, but more likely he works as part of a family group with wages paid to the head of the family. Some are local workers or nearby residents who go out by the day. Others are "one-crop" migrants—going with their families to a community for seasonal work and returning to their place of residence in the fall. Many are "all-year-round" migrants—following the crops from one area to another during the major portion of the year. There are also the children of tenants and sharecroppers who, though not wage workers, miss many months of school while working in the fields.

The interference of farm work with school attendance (reflected in the figures given in tables in earlier pages), is a matter of deep concern in this country. Not only do State child-labor laws almost universally exempt agriculture from their operation but school-attendance requirements in rural districts are frequently lower than in urban sections. In many rural areas there is little effort, if any, to enforce compulsory attendance laws.

A factor which has rendered this problem even more acute in recent years is the migration of thousands of families of farm laborers who follow the crops from one community to another. Partly because children are wanted as workers in the fields, partly because they are in a community only temporarily and the schools are not prepared to handle an influx of seasonal workers, and partly because of discrimination against nonresidents, there has been little effort to compel school attendance of children in migratory agricultural families. Studies have disclosed children of 12 and 13 years who have never been in school and many who have left school permanently after completing only the third or fourth grade.

A bill is now pending before Congress which, if passed, will bring all employment of children in agriculture away from the home farm under the child-labor provisions of the Federal Fair Labor Standards Act. This would set a minimum age of 16 years for work during school hours on crops to be shipped in interstate commerce. Work outside of school hours would be permitted at 14 years.

There is at present only one agricultural commodity whose production is subject to Federal child-labor regulation. The Sugar Act stipulates that, to qualify for benefit payments, sugar-beet and sugarcane growers must not employ children under 14 years nor permit children 14 to 16 years to work more than 8 hours a day. This does not apply to children whose parents own at least 40 percent of the crop harvested by the family. There have been difficulties in enforcing these provisions and, at best, they rest upon a somewhat precarious foundation for if benefit payments should cease, child-labor regulations would also cease.

### Effect of War Production on Child Labor and School Attendance

Even before the United States entered the War, an upward trend in child employment, under the stimulus of defense production, was already evident. Reports on the issuance of employment certificates for 1941 show, in areas where comparable legal restrictions existed in both 1940 and 1941, an increase of over 80 percent in the number of 14- and 15-year-old children leaving school for work. Employment certificate figures reflect only the legal employment of 14- and 15-year-old children in those occupations for which permits are required—and this differs among the States.

Coupled with this increase in legal child employment have come reports from labor and school-attendance officials in many parts of the country of a rise in illegal child labor. With older workers drawn into defense industries, there are more jobs available, frequently at higher wages than a few years ago, and the temptation for children to violate the child-labor law is strong. Typical of these reports are the following:

An article, "Defense Developments in Alabama," in the September 1941 issue of Alabama Social Welfare, stated: "Child labor has proved a decided problem in counties where most of the adults have good jobs and employers are finding it difficult to hire delivery boys, car hops, etc. Children are also pursuing street trades."

The Commissioner of Labor of Kentucky reported in the fall of 1941: "Complaints from all parts of the State indicate that many persons less than 16 years of age are now being employed without first obtaining employment certificates . . . from these scattered reports, I can draw the conclusion that there are many more violations which have not been brought to my attention."

The Chief Attendance Officer of the Montclair (New Jersey) Schools reported in November 1941 that he had compiled a list of at least 50 known violations of the State child-labor law by local merchants and storekeepers.

The increase in the employment of 16- and 17-year-old minors, who in every State are legally free to leave school, is even greater than that for younger children. The Educational Press Association in October 1941 reported that "public-school enrollments throughout the United States, including high-school registrations, have dropped this fall for perhaps the first time in American history." Some States show an increase from 200 to 400 percent in the number of minors 16 and 17 years leaving school for industry in 1941, as compared with 1940, and this increase has undoubtedly been accelerated during 1942.

Some of these minors have entered war industries; others are taking the jobs left open by older workers who have gone into such industries or have joined the armed services. Most educators look with misgiving upon this trend. They believe that, unless an acute shortage of labor develops, it is a mistake for young people, under the lure of high wages to cut short their high-school education.

Accompanying the increase in child labor, both legal and illegal, there have been several attempts to lower for the period of the war, legislative standards regulating the employment of children. To date the only legal changes that have been made relate to the employment of children 14 years and over in agriculture during the school term. In two States such laws have been passed, one permitting absence for 3 school weeks, the other for 6 school weeks. In many parts of the country, however, various plans have been adopted by the schools to enable children to help in farm work. Terms have been shortened, classes held on Saturdays, Christmas and Easter holidays curtailed, morning sessions held to permit afternoon work in the fields, and other school adjustments made to release children for seasonal work.

In some communities such plans may be temporarily necessary to maintain increased food production in the face of a farm-labor shortage. In many communities, however, there has been apparently little effort to determine the exact labor needs and to ascertain whether other sources of labor are available before releasing school children. Some educators believe that the need for the services of children during the school term has been exaggerated and that unnecessary changes in the school programs have been made.

Although there has been as yet no relaxation, due to the war emergency, of standards for child labor in fields other than agriculture, several attempts have been made to enact such legislation. For the most part these proposals come from industries which have long utilized child labor and have resisted, though not always successfully, any attempt at regulation. In several States proposals have been made to permit school boys under 16 years to work late at night in bowling alleys; sugar-beet growers have proposed reducing the minimum age for employment under the Sugar Act from 14 to 10 years; canners' associations have asked for a reduction in the Federal Fair Labor Standards Act from 16 to 14 years; and in one or two States blanket proposals to permit suspension of the 16-year-age minimum for school-leaving and employment have been made.

A Commission on Children in Wartime, appointed by the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor, held its first meeting in Washington on March 18, 1942. Among other matters receiving the attention of the Commission was the subject of child labor and school attendance. The following statement of policy on this subject was incorporated in a Children's Charter in Wartime adopted at the Conference:

"School and work.--It is essential that children and youth be sound and well prepared in body and mind for the tasks of today and tomorrow. Their right to schooling should not be scrapped for the duration. Demands for the employment of children as a necessary war measure should be analyzed to determine whether full use has been made of available adult man power and to distinguish between actual labor shortage and the desire to obtain cheap labor. The education and wholesome development of boys and girls should be the first consideration in making decisions with regard to their employment or other contribution to our war effort. This means that no boy or girl shall be employed



at wages that undermine the wages for adult labor; none under 14 years of age shall be part of the labor force; none under 16 shall be employed in manufacturing and mining occupations; none under 18 in hazardous occupations."

The two most striking facts about school attendance and child labor in the United States are (1) the rapidity with which progress has been made and (2) the unevenness of progress in different sections of the country.

It was not until the middle of the nineteenth century that the idea of free tax-supported schools for all children through both elementary and secondary grades was generally accepted. Since then there has been a steady and, in some respects, phenomenal increase in the number of children enrolled in public schools, the number of years they attend school, and the length of the school term. Between 1870 and 1938 the percent of the population 5 to 17 years, inclusive, enrolled in public elementary and secondary schools increased from 57 to 84; the average number of days attended by each pupil enrolled from 78 to 149; the average number of days schools were in session from 132 to 174; and the percent of the total enrollment in the high-school grades from 1 to 24.

In so vast a country as the United States, and with education under the control of 48 separate States, national averages do not reflect conditions in all parts of the country. The average number of days attended by each pupil enrolled, for instance, ranged from 110 in one State to 166 in another—a difference of nearly three school months. The proportion of the total school enrollment in the high-school grades varied from 12 percent to 31 percent. In general attendance in urban areas is above the average for the country as a whole and in rural areas is considerably below.

Many factors have contributed to the uneven development of school attendance—the attitude of the community towards education, the financial ability of the States to support schools, and the extent to which children are permitted to leave school for employment. These factors are closely related. There are striking correlations between the States with the poorest rankings with respect to child labor, school attendance, length of the school term, per capita expenditure for education and illiteracy.

One of the most important factors in improving school attendance has been a decrease in child labor. The employment of children reached its peak in 1910 when nearly 2,000,000 children 10 to 16 years were reported by the Census as gainfully employed. Since then there has been a reduction of 75 percent in the number of child workers of 14 and 15 years. Working children under 14 years are no longer counted by the Census.

There is now, through Federal legislation, a 16-year-age minimum for employment in industrial establishments which ship goods in interstate commerce. In addition 13 States, including 41 percent of the population, have a 16-year-age minimum for employment of any kind during school hours, with some exceptions for agriculture and domestic service. In the remaining States the minimum age for employment during school hours is usually 14 years.

The majority of child laborers—over 60 percent—are engaged in agricultural occupations. This problem has been rendered more acute in recent years by the migration of thousands of farm families who follow the crops from one community to another. Children of such families are frequently out of school for the major part of the year.

The interference of farm work with school attendance is a matter of deep concern in this country. Not only do State child-labor laws almost universally exempt agriculture from their operation but school-attendance requirements in rural districts are frequently lower than in urban sections. In many rural areas there is little effort, if any, to enforce compulsory attendance laws.

Even before the United States entered the War, an upward trend in child employment, under the stimulus of defense production, was evident. There was an increase of 80 percent in employment certificates issued to 14- and 15-year-old children in States permitting children under 16 years to leave school. Far more marked has been the increase in the employment of 16- and 17-year-old minors, who influenced by high wages, are dropping out of high schools.

There have been also attempts in several States to lower, for the period of the war, the legal standards regulating child labor. In view of this trend, the Commission on Children in Wartime, appointed by the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor, adopted the following statement at its first conference held in Washington on March 18, 1942:

"It is essential that children and youth be sound and well prepared in body and mind for the tasks of today and tomorrow. Their right to schooling should not be scrapped for the duration. Demands for the employment of children as a necessary war measure should be analyzed to determine whether full use has been made of available adult man power and to distinguish between actual labor shortage and the desire to obtain cheap labor. The education and wholesome development of boys and girls should be the first consideration in making decisions with regard to their employment or other contribution to our war effort. This means that no boy or girl shall be employed at wages that undermine the wages for adult labor; none under 14 years of age shall be part of the labor force; none under 16 shall be employed in manufacturing and mining occupations; none under 18 in hazardous occupations."

OCTAVO CONGRESO PANAMERICANO DEL NIÑO  
WASHINGTON, D. C.  
Del 2 al 9 de mayo de 1942

TRABAJO presentado por:  
Sra. Gertrude Folks Zimand,  
Comité Nacional del Trabajo  
de Menores,  
Nueva York, Nueva York.

Sección II  
Educación y Recreo

LA ASISTENCIA A LA ESCUELA Y EL TRABAJO DE MENORES  
EN LOS ESTADOS UNIDOS

Los hechos más dignos de notarse con respecto a la asistencia a la escuela y el trabajo de menores en los Estados Unidos son: (1) el rápido progreso, y (2) los varios grados de progreso alcanzados en las diversas regiones del país.

No fué sino hasta mediados del siglo diecinueve que fué aceptada generalmente la idea de escuelas públicas, costeadas por impuestos, para todos los niños de los grados primarios y los secundarios. Desde entonces ha habido un aumento constante y, en algunos respectos, hasta sorprendente, en el número de niños inscritos en las escuelas públicas, en el número de años que van a la escuela, y en la duración del año escolar. Desde 1870 hasta 1938 el porcentaje de la población de 5 a 17 años de edad, inclusive, inscrito en escuelas públicas primarias y secundarias aumentó de 57 a 84%; el promedio de días de asistencia a la escuela de cada alumno aumentó de 78 a 149%; el promedio de días en que se reunieron las clases en las escuelas aumentó de 132 a 174%, y el porcentaje de la inscripción total en los grados superiores aumentó de 1 a 24.

En un país tan grande como los Estados Unidos, y con la enseñanza bajo el control de 48 estados diferentes, los porcentajes nacionales no reflejan las condiciones existentes en todo el país.

El promedio del número de días de asistencia a la escuela de cada alumno inscrito, por ejemplo, varió de 110 en un estado a 166 en otro, o sea una diferencia de casi tres meses escolares. La proporción del total de la inscripción escolar en los grados superiores varió de 12% a 31%. Por lo general, la asistencia a la escuela en las ciudades es superior al promedio del país entero y en las regiones rurales es considerablemente inferior.

Muchos factores han contribuido a la irregularidad del progreso en la asistencia escolar, tales como la actitud de la comunidad hacia la enseñanza, los medios financieros de los estados para mantener

escuelas, y el número de niños a quienes se les permite dejar de asistir a la escuela para que tomen empleo lucrativo. Todos estos factores están muy estrechamente relacionados. En los estados que permiten que los menores trabajen, hay una estrecha correlación entre la asistencia escolar, la duración del año escolar, los gastos per capita para la enseñanza, y el analfabetismo.

Uno de los factores más importantes en mejorar la asistencia escolar ha sido la disminución en el trabajo de menores. El empleo de menores llegó al mayor número en 1910 cuando, según indica el Censo, habían dos millones de niños entre los 10 y los 16 años en empleos lucrativos. Desde entonces ha habido una reducción de 75% en el número de menores empleados entre los 14 y 15 años de edad. Los niños menores de 14 años ya no son enumerados por el Censo.

La legislación federal ha establecido actualmente un mínimo de 16 años para el empleo de menores en establecimientos industriales que exportan productos en el comercio interestatal. Además, 13 estados, que abarcan el 41% de la población, tienen leyes que fijan una edad mínima de 16 años para cualquier empleo durante las horas de clase, con algunas excepciones para empleos en la agricultura y en el servicio doméstico. En el resto de los estados la edad mínima para el trabajo de menores durante las horas de clase es 14 años.

La mayoría de los menores empleados, o sea más del 60%, están ocupados en labores agrícolas. Este problema se ha complicado más en recientes años debido a la emigración de miles de familias de labradores que se mudan de comunidad a comunidad, siguiendo las estaciones de las diferentes cosechas. En estas familias, con frecuencia los hijos no van a la escuela durante la mayor parte del año.

El trabajo agrícola interfiere en la asistencia escolar, lo cual es objeto de profunda preocupación en este país. Las leyes estatales relativas al trabajo de menores casi generalmente no sólo exceptúan el trabajo en la agricultura sino que en las zonas rurales no exigen cierto grado de asistencia escolar. En muchas zonas rurales no se hace gran esfuerzo por hacer cumplirlas leyes obligatorias de asistencia escolar.

Aún antes de que Estados Unidos entrara en la guerra, se notó un aumento en el número de niños empleados, estimulado por la producción de artículos de defensa. Hubo un aumento de 80% en el número de certificados librados a niños de 14 y 15 años de edad, los cuales certificados permiten que los niños dejen de asistir a la escuela antes de cumplir los 16 años de edad. Aún más notable ha sido el aumento en el número de menores empleados que tienen de 16 a 17 años de edad, los cuales, atraídos por los altos jornales, no están asistiendo a las escuelas secundarias.

También en varios estados se ha intentado reducir, durante el período de guerra, las normas legales respecto al trabajo de menores. En vista de esto, la Comisión para la Protección de los Niños en Tiempo de Guerra, nombrada por la Oficina del Niño de la Secretaría del Trabajo de los Estados Unidos adoptó la siguiente resolución en su primer conferencia celebrada en Washington el 18 de marzo de 1942:

"Es esencial que los niños y jóvenes estén sanos físicamente y bien preparados mentalmente para las tareas del presente y del futuro. El derecho de los menores a recibir una enseñanza adecuada no debería olvidarse durante el período de la guerra. Las demandas para el empleo de menores como una medida necesaria de guerra deberían ser analizadas para determinar si se ha hecho uso completo de todos los adultos y para distinguir entre una escasez real de trabajadores y el deseo de obtenerlos a bajo costo. La instrucción y la buena salud de los niños deben de tenerse en mente cuando se tomen decisiones con respecto al empleo de menores o a cualquier otra contribución que puedan hacer al esfuerzo bélico. Esto significa que ningún menor, sea niño o niña, deberá ser empleado a jornales que influyan en rebajar el promedio de los jornales que ganan los empleados adultos; que no se empleará ningún niño menor de 14 años de edad; que ningún niño menor de 16 años será empleado en fábricas o minas, y que ningún joven menor de 18 años será empleado en ocupaciones peligrosas."



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PAPER prepared by:  
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Section II  
Education and Recreation

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN RECREATION FOR YOUNG CHILDREN IN THE  
UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Definition - From the standpoint of the individual, "recreation" is that important segment of living in which a person functions freely without any compulsion save the inner urge for self-expression. The motive and the satisfaction must be inherent in the activity itself, not in some ulterior objective such as self-development, health, material or social reward. Thus, recreation from the individual standpoint may include a very wide range of activity such as games, music, arts and crafts, drama, collection of objects, study and research--in fact, any activity which the individual pursues purely for the satisfaction derived from the activity itself rather than from a remote objective to which the activity may contribute.

"Recreation" as a program organized and operated by an organization will thus include facilities and management for a wide variety of activities. Of course, organizations supported primarily by tax funds will always feel under compulsion to give major emphasis to provision for those activities in which large numbers may participate at relatively low unit cost. However, this tendency to restrict individuals to participation in a few "popular" activities, rather than enjoying complete freedom to select whatever activity promises the greatest individual satisfaction, is somewhat offset by two factors. For instance, the Arts and Crafts Guild, the Drama Club, the Badminton Club (frequently financed in part at least by participating members) may afford opportunity for "special interest" groups which could not be financed in full by funds received from community-wide taxation. Also, the public organization may introduce a wide variety of activities which can be continued by participants at their own expense.

Organizations raising money either by private contribution or public taxation will also always need to emphasize, in making their argument, the important By-Products of recreation. Although it is true that the primary function and the justification of recreation is found in the joy and satisfaction of the individual, nevertheless, there are by-products which are very important from the standpoint of the individual and of the community. Health - For the growing child particularly a large amount of motor activity of the type found in sports and games is essential to normal physical development and organic vitality. Foundations for the physical endurance, agility and alertness needed by young men in wartime are rooted in the vigorous physical activities of childhood. Psychiatrists unanimously testify that the free satisfying flow of energy through joy-giving activity provides the surest foundation for mental stability. Juvenile delinquency and crime are generally accepted as phases of social abnormality effectively combatted by wholesome outlets for the teeming energy and adventurous spirit of youth.

## Early Opposition to Recreation in the United States of America

An understanding of recent developments in recreation will be clarified by contrast with early opposition, traces of which have persisted in some quarters throughout recent years. It should be remembered that the early White settlers, particularly in the New England area, came as religious refugees who had been denied the opportunity to worship as they wished in Europe. The major incentive for the hazardous journey to an unknown shore was the prospect of freedom to worship and carry on a religious way of life. Fundamental in the religious concepts of most of these groups was the idea that "Heaven is our home". Life in this world is but the preparation for the life beyond. Life here is to be endured with pain and suffering in prospect of the great reward hereafter. The hard life of the pioneer striving to wrest a difficult living from a none too fertile soil, reinforced the concept that life in this world is but a series of trials and tribulations to be compensated by the enjoyments of the life hereafter.

Because of this general attitude any activity which seemed to give personal enjoyment was suspected of being sponsored by the devil, himself. Games were considered a waste of time sorely needed for work essential to survival. Some religious sects entirely eliminated music from their church programs. Such activities as card-playing, dancing and theatre-going were strictly banned in the membership requirements of some religious organizations. From such early beginnings it is easy to understand the resistance that has persisted throughout the years against the fostering of recreation, either by privately financed organizations or by the community as a whole through public taxation.

## Early Steps in the Development of Recreation in the United States of America (1870 to 1925)

The roots of recent developments of recreation for young children are found in the breakaway from the restrictions of pioneer days-- a movement which began to take form in the latter part of the 19th century. The concept of religion and the church as agencies for the improvement of living in this world began to take form. The "social gospel" taught that all men are brothers and should strive each to help the other to better opportunities for living here and now.

The schools first tolerated and later endorsed the development of sports and games among the boys. Froebel brought forth the Kindergarten in which the education of children is largely carried out through play activities. The Montessori method followed, involving education through sensory and motor activity as contrasted with learning through the eye and the ear exclusively.

Between 1915 and 1925, most of the States in the Union enacted laws more or less effectively requiring that public schools include in their programs definite weekly periods of time for physical education. In the administration of these laws the tendency has been to emphasize athletic sports and games, rather than formal exercise.

Also, in the home and family life, during this period, recreation came to be tolerated and even encouraged. Gathering-nuts, trapping, corn husking bees, and the like, had been accepted, perhaps because of their relation to the serious business of subsistence on the farm. Now came picnics, frequent "visits" to neighbors and relatives, family reunions, home-made and manufactured toys, dolls, bicycles and tricycles.

Community Recreation also began to appear during these years. The playing of children in the streets during these "horse and buggy" days was only occasionally restricted by a complaining neighbor, or by the police. Sunday School picnics appeared on the scene. Here also were the beginnings of Boys' Clubs, Boy and Girl Scouts, and Campfire Girls. The public playground movement also had its beginning during this period. The "sand gardens" in Boston, the development of the Chicago South Park System, with its recreation buildings and outdoor facilities for active play; the school evening recreation centers in Rochester, N. Y., all pointed the way toward the acceptance by the community as a whole of the responsibility of providing some recreation facilities and management for the use of the entire community. In 1906, the Playground Association of America (now the National Recreation Association) was organized "to collect and distribute knowledge of and promote interest in playgrounds throughout the country, to seek to further the establishment of playgrounds and athletic fields in all communities and directed play in connection with the schools". This organization, supported entirely by voluntary contributions, has continued throughout the years as a central clearing house and source of information and guidance in the development, particularly of municipally-sponsored and tax-supported recreational programs throughout the U. S. A. Although in most states and communities the general police and welfare powers included in their charters gave adequate authority for the establishment of tax-supported recreation programs, the enactment of special state "enabling acts" began in 1915. These enabling acts, which now have been adopted by 25 of the 48 states, give each municipality in the States general powers to conduct a broad recreation program under any form of organization of the local government which the municipality considers most effective.

#### Recent steps in the development of Recreation in the U. S. A.

Under the stimulus of such organizations as the National Recreation Association, the Parent-Teacher Associations, as well as numerous magazines devoted to the improvement of family life, home play and family recreation have increased and improved during recent years. Among the slogans used in the promotion of home play is "the family that plays together, stays together". In some cities "back-yard playground" contests have been conducted in which awards have been made to the family developing the best layout of backyard play areas and facilities for swings, slides, horseshoe pitching, sand play, etc. Also, the playing of parents and children together in certain types of card games, crafts, puzzles and "brain teasers" has become more popular with the understanding that in some activities the superior physical or mental capacity of the older members does not prohibit participation by the younger members on an equal basis.

In the school programs have come such innovations as progressive education with its emphasis upon the mastery of things and actions as contrasted with words and rules, and with its emphasis upon "play" as a part of the total life experience. The Concept of "physical education" has been broadened to include greater emphasis on recreational activity as contrasted with health education and formal exercise. Some schools have promoted gardening projects primarily as recreational features rather than as instruction in the science of agriculture. In fact, the schools have accepted as one of their major functions "training for wise use of leisure". Under this objective increased emphasis has been placed upon training in individual and dual activities, such as archery, tennis, handball, etc., as contrasted with the team games which may be continued only with great difficulty after school years. Another interesting development still in the experimental stage is the public school camp which involves taking groups of children from the classroom to spend a week or more in the school camp, either with or without the continuance at the camp of the usual routine of class room studies.

In the community at large, opportunities for recreation have been greatly expanded, both by the semi-public agencies (supported by private funds) and by the municipal, state and federal agencies (supported by tax funds).

A few examples of programs sponsored by these semi-public organizations are the nursery school for children of pre-school age. This program, in addition to performing a great service for young working mothers (or busy, young "society" mothers) has primarily a broad, educational objective embracing the health and social development of these small children. However, much of the activity carried on in such schools is of the recreational variety. The Children's Workshop and the Children's Museum--the former with emphasis on creative activities in the arts and crafts, music, drama and dancing, and the latter with emphasis on acquaintance with the physical world in which we live,--have added new opportunities for recreational activity among young children. Children's summer camps conducted at moderate expense for the service primarily of children from lower income families have also expanded greatly. More and more the tendency of some public agencies in their work with children having special health and behavior problems is to coordinate the work done in the 24 hour day controlled situation in summer camps with the work done thru less intensive contact during the balance of the year. The emphasis on recreational activity in the programs of semi-public agencies is shown in the fact that about one fourth of the so-called community chest campaign funds, on which they depend, is devoted to this purpose. The municipal governments of cities, villages, towns and counties thruout the U. S. A. have also advanced materially during recent years in the acceptance of public responsibility for tax-supported recreation and in the expansion and enrichment of recreational programs. This responsibility has come to be recognized as involving year round service rather than summer vacation programs alone. Public parks have allocated special areas for intensive children's play under leadership. Public libraries have introduced children's corners with suitable small furniture. The "Toy Library" has come into vogue, stocked with a combination of discarded and new toys and drawn upon by individuals in the same manner as the traditional book library. Play streets have been adapted to use as coasting streets during the winter months under police protection. However, in the interest of complete safety, experiments have been made in the establishment of coasting slides in vacant lots where street hazards are eliminated. Fishing Clubs have been organized with the aid of older, experienced sportsmen acting as volunteer leaders of groups of boys and girls and with the stimulus of public stocking of nearby pools and streams with small fish. This movement gives promise of substantial help in keeping alive among village and city dwellers this traditional type of recreational activity. Municipal Planning Boards now generally recognize that their responsibility does not end with the planning of facilities for transportation, industrial zones and housing but must also include plans by which recreational facilities such as parks, playgrounds, swimming pools, tennis courts, etc., may keep pace with expanding population. More than 1,000 communities (including 25 counties) now have public authorities administering year-round tax supported recreational programs. Thirty-four per cent of these are administered under special recreation departments, or commissions, 30% under park departments, 18% under schools and 18% under a variety of local government departments.

The Federal and State Governments of the U. S. A. have made enormous strides, during the past ten years, both by the acquisition and development of large forest and park areas and by extending cooperation to the municipalities in the development of facilities, in the planning of expanded recreational programs,



and in the provision of trained local leadership. The United States Forest Service, now controlling 173,000,000 acres, accommodates annually 25,000,000 people who enjoy its camping and other outdoor recreational facilities. The National Park Service and the Civilian Conservation Corps have developed 75 recreational demonstration areas near population centers. These areas total 500,000 acres and include 50 group camps. The Work Projects Administration, the Public Works Administration, and the National Youth Administration have expended more than a billion dollars in providing working personnel for the construction of recreational facilities and for recreational program leadership in more than 7,000 communities. The United States Housing Authority, in approving federal financial aid for local housing projects, requires minimum provisions for recreational facilities. Small play areas for pre-school children must be provided as part of each housing project. Also, cooperation is required of municipal authorities in the provision of adequate neighborhood recreation facilities for younger and older children. The Extension Service of the Department of Agriculture, in cooperation with state agriculture departments, has been giving valuable aid in the development of recreational programs in rural areas. It has promoted the 4-H clubs which include camping and other recreational features in addition to its major program of promoting the interest of rural youth in the raising of better crops and better animals. It has also promoted training of volunteer leadership for recreational programs in rural communities and has assisted in the demonstration of recreational programs in such areas. Conspicuous in this type of work is the state of New Hampshire.

Other federal agencies performing some types of recreational functions are the Farm Security Administration, the Bureau of Biological Survey, the Public Health Service, and the Office of Education. The report of the White House Conference on "Children in a Democracy" (1940) recommended the appointment of a national commission on recreation to study the leisure-time needs and resources of the nation and to make recommendations concerning the development of recreation and informal education.

### Quantity versus Quality

From the foregoing it is obvious that during the period of economic depression great forward strides have been made in the construction of recreational facilities for young and for old. Work had to be made for men who would otherwise starve or sit at home under the "dole" system. Large numbers of unskilled and semi-skilled workers could be absorbed very easily in laying out ball fields and playgrounds, cleaning up beaches and lakes, building swimming pools and tennis courts, etc., etc. Also, many thousands of "white collar" workers could be readily assigned as extra recreation leaders on the playgrounds and in the community centers. The training and experience required to produce a skillful recreation leader were not too well understood. It naturally appeared to the average administrator of relief work that anyone possessing a friendly personality and with a record of personal participation in some types of recreational activity might be assigned to the duty of supervising the activities of children on the playground. Perhaps too many thousands of salesmen, architects, minor executives from shops and stores were poured into positions of responsibility for recreation "leadership". However, extensive efforts were made to retrain these people during their period of service in this new vocation. Many excellent examples may be cited in which a former cigar salesman, or real estate operator, through training and experience, has become an excellent recreation leader. Now these temporary recreation leaders, working in 7,000 communities and all financed by the Federal Government, are being withdrawn and forced to



enter some other vocation more closely related to the business of making war. So, the communities are left with expanded recreation facilities and programs built up during the depression, but with recreation budgets inadequate to finance the maintenance of the facilities and the employment of trained recreation leaders. Furthermore, the supply of trained recreation leaders, who may be employed at any price, has greatly diminished. Young people going through the high schools and colleges during the past few years could not look to the profession of recreation leadership as offering a very hopeful outlook. They could look around and observe that very few new opportunities for employment in recreation leadership were available except those temporarily provided and financed by the Federal Government as a part of its relief work program.

As a temporary means of off-setting the disparity now existing between expanded physical facilities and insufficient trained leadership there is at present a strong movement toward training an increased number of volunteer leaders. Under the additional spur of wartime emergency many former recreation leaders and public school teachers are being recalled for special training so that they may fill in the gaps in leadership personnel. The need for strengthening recreational services for young children is emphasized on the ground that young children should be protected from the continuous pressure of war news and war excitement coming over the radio, in parents' conversations, in the news and everywhere.

However, volunteer leaders, giving some two to fourteen hours a week, cannot effectively take the place of full-time professionally trained recreation leaders. Volunteers always have been and probably always be an important factor in the leadership of recreational programs for young children. Volunteers on managing committees, volunteers helping stage large seasonal events, volunteers leading small groups in some special hobby in which the volunteer, himself, is a confirmed hobbyist--in these ways and in others the volunteer will always have a place in the public recreation program. But a minimum staff of trained professional workers will always be needed for the continuous and responsible management of facilities, for the planning and coordination of programs, for the "servicing" of volunteer leaders and for the training of volunteer and junior staff members. The continued advance in opportunities for recreation among young children will depend upon the quality and quantity of leadership made available during the years ahead.

Definition - From the standpoint of the individual, "recreation" is that important segment of living in which a person functions freely without any compulsion save the inner urge for self-expression. Thus, recreation may include a very wide range of activity such as games, music, arts and crafts, drama, collection of objects, study and research.

"Recreation" as a program organized and operated by an organization will thus include facilities and management for a wide variety of activities, with major emphasis on those in which large numbers may participate at relatively low unit cost. Although the primary function of recreation is found in the joy and satisfaction of the individual, nevertheless, there are by-products which are very important from the standpoint of the individual and the community; for example, health, mental stability, reduction of juvenile delinquency and crime.

### Early Opposition to Recreation in the United States of America

Recent developments in recreation are in contrast with early opposition. Early White settlers came as religious refugees. Fundamental in the religious concepts of most of these groups was the idea that life here is to be endured with pain and suffering in prospect of the great reward hereafter. Because of this general attitude any activity which seemed to give personal enjoyment was suspected of being sponsored by the devil, himself. Games, card-playing, dancing and theater-going were considered a waste of time sorely needed for work essential to survival.

### Early Steps in the Development of Recreation in the United States of America (1870 to 1925)

The roots of recent developments in recreation for young children are found in the breakaway from the restrictions of pioneer days. The schools first tolerated and later endorsed sports and games among the boys. Froebel brought forth the Kindergarten and the Montessori method followed. Between 1915 and 1925, most of the states in the Union enacted physical education laws emphasizing athletic sports and games.

Community Recreation also began to appear during these years with the beginnings of Boys' Clubs, Boy and Girl Scouts, and Campfire Girls. The public playground movement also had its beginning during this period. In 1906, the Playground Association of America (now the National Recreation Association) was organized "to collect and distribute knowledge of and promote interest in the playgrounds throughout the country....". This organization has continued as a central clearing house for guidance in the development, particularly of municipally-sponsored and tax-supported recreational programs throughout the U. S. A. Enabling Acts, now adopted by 25 of the 48 States, give each municipality powers to conduct a broad recreation program under any form of organization locally desired.

### Recent Steps in the Development of Recreation in the U. S. A.

Home play has increased and improved. Among the slogans used is "the family that plays together, stays together". In the school programs have come such innovations as progressive education with its emphasis upon "play" as a part of the total life experience. "Physical education" has been broadened to include recreational activity as contrasted with health education and formal

exercise. The schools have accepted as one of their major functions "training for wise use of leisure". Emphasis has been placed upon individual and dual activities which may be continued after school years.

In the community at large opportunities for recreation have been greatly expanded, both by the semi-public agencies (supported by private funds) and by the municipal, state and federal agencies (supported by tax funds). A few examples are the nursery school, the Children's Workshop, the Children's Museum, and the children's summer camps. The emphasis on recreational activity in the programs of semi-public agencies is shown in the fact that about one fourth of the so-called community chest campaign funds, on which they depend, is devoted to this purpose.

The municipalities throughout the U. S. A. have also advanced materially in the acceptance of public responsibility for year-round recreation. Public parks have allocated special areas for intensive children's play under leadership. Public libraries have introduced "children's corners". The "toy library" has come into vogue. Play streets have been adapted to use as coasting streets under police protection. Fishing clubs of boys and girls have been organized. Municipal Planning Boards now generally include plans for recreational facilities such as parks, playgrounds, swimming pools, tennis courts, etc. More than 1,000 communities now have public authorities administering year-round tax supported recreational programs; thirty-four per cent under special recreation departments, thirty per cent under park departments, eighteen per cent under schools, and eighteen per cent under other departments.

The Federal and State Governments of the U. S. A. have made enormous strides in the development of facilities, in the planning of expanded recreational programs, and in the provision of trained local leadership. The Work Projects Administration, the Public Works Administration, and the National Youth Administration have expended more than a billion dollars in providing working personnel for the construction of recreational facilities and for recreational program leadership in more than 7,000 communities. The United States Housing Authority, in approving federal financial aid for local housing projects, requires minimum provisions for recreational facilities.

### Quantity versus Quality

During the period of economic depression great forward strides have been made in the construction of recreational facilities for young and for old, and in federal subsidy of wages for additional recreation leaders. This was largely a by-product of the national effort to combat unemployment. Perhaps too many thousands of salesmen, architects, minor executives from shops and stores were poured into positions of responsibility for recreation "leadership". Now these temporary recreation leaders, working in 7,000 communities and all financed by the Federal Government, are being withdrawn and forced to enter some other vocation more closely related to the business of making war. So, the communities are left with expanded recreation facilities and programs built up during the depression, but with recreation budgets inadequate to finance the maintenance of the facilities and the employment of trained recreation leaders.

There is at present a strong movement toward training an increased number of volunteer leaders. However, volunteer leaders, giving some two to fourteen hours a week, cannot effectively take the place of full-time professionally trained recreation leaders. The continued advance in opportunities for recreation among young children will depend upon the quality and quantity of leadership made available during the years ahead.

## OCTAVO CONGRESO PANAMERICANO DEL NIÑO

WASHINGTON, D. C.

Del 2 al 9 de mayo de 1942

TRABAJO presentado por:  
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Sección II  
Enseñanza y Recreo

RECIENTES DESARROLLOS DEL RECREO PARA LOS  
NIÑOS EN LOS ESTADOS UNIDOS DE AMÉRICA

(Resumen)

Definición. Desde el punto de vista del individuo, "el recreo" es aquella parte importante de su vida en la cual actúa y se expresa sin restricción y se guía sólo por el impulso. Así, el recreo puede abarcar un vasto campo de actividades, tales como juegos, música, arte, teatro, colección de objetos, estudio e investigación.

El "recreo" como programa organizado y dirigido por una organización, por lo tanto, incluirá proveer facilidades y dirección para una gran variedad de actividades, especialmente aquellas en las cuales puede participar un número relativamente grande de personas, a un costo relativamente bajo por persona. Aunque el objeto principal del recreo es fomentar la alegría y satisfacción personal, existen sin embargo otros factores muy importantes desde el punto de vista del individuo y de la sociedad, tales como: la salud, la estabilidad mental y la reducción de la delincuencia juvenil y del crimen.

Antigua oposición al recreo en los Estados Unidos

Los recientes desarrollos en el recreo están en marcado contraste con la oposición a él que existía en el pasado. Los primeros colonos blancos vinieron huyendo de la persecución religiosa. Un concepto religioso fundamental para la mayoría de estos grupos era la idea de que la vida en la tierra debía ser soportada con dolor y sufrimiento, en la esperanza del goce en la vida del más allá. Debido a esta actitud general, cualquiera actividad que pareciera proporcionar alegría personal, era considerada como obra del demonio. Comparados con las necesidades más esenciales de la vida, los juegos, bailes y teatros eran considerados como una pérdida de tiempo precioso.



Primeros pasos en el desarrollo del recreo  
en los Estados Unidos  
(1870 a 1925)

La base del reciente desarrollo del movimiento recreativo fué el resultado de la tendencia a apartarse de las restricciones anticuadas. Las escuelas al principio aceptaron y más tarde implantaron los deportes y los juegos entre los niños. Froebel ideó el kindergarten, y luego le siguió el método de Montessori. Entre 1915 y 1925, en la mayoría de los estados se establecieron leyes requiriendo la educación física y dando importancia a los deportes y los juegos.

El recreo comunal tuvo su origen en esta época, con tales grupos como los Clubs de Niños, Niños y Niñas Escuchas, y "Camp-Fire Girls". Los parques de recreo también fueron establecidos, bajo los auspicios de instituciones públicas, durante este período. En 1906 la Asociación de Parques de Recreo ("Playground Association of America"), actualmente la Asociación Nacional de Recreo ("National Recreation Association"), fué organizada para obtener y distribuir información sobre los parques y fomentar el interés en el establecimiento de parques en todas partes del país. Esta organización ha continuado como un centro de orientación de estas actividades, particularmente las organizadas por los gobiernos municipales y financiadas con impuestos gubernamentales. En veinticinco de los cuarenta y ocho estados se han pasado leyes especiales que autorizan a las municipalidades a dirigir un vasto programa de recreo por medio de cualquier forma de organización que se establezca localmente.

Recientes desarrollos en el movimiento recrea-  
tivo en los Estados Unidos de América

El recreo en el hogar ha aumentado y mejorado notablemente. Se usan tales expresiones como "la familia unida en el recreo, es una familia unida en la vida" (the family that plays together, stays together). En los programas escolares se han introducido tales innovaciones como la educación progresiva, que hace hincapié en el juego como parte esencial de una vida completa. La educación física ha sido ampliada para incluir actividades recreativas, en contraste con la educación física propia y ejercicios. Las escuelas han aceptado como una de sus principales funciones la instrucción sobre el sabio aprovechamiento del ocio. Se ha puesto énfasis en aquellas actividades duales o individuales que pueden ser útiles a la juventud después que ha terminado su educación.

En la comunidad en general, las oportunidades para el recreo se han extendido tanto por agencias semipúblicas (costeadas con fondos particulares), como por la municipalidad, el estado, o las agencias federales (costeadas por los impuestos). Algunos ejemplos son las escuelas de párvulos, el "Taller de Niños", el "Museo para Niños", y campamentos de verano para niños. El interés en los programas recreativos queda demostrado por el hecho de que casi la cuarta parte de los fondos recaudados por las agencias llamadas "Cajas de la Comunidad" (Community Chest), son dedicados a este fin.

Las municipalidades en todas partes de los Estados Unidos reconocen cada día más que el proveer facilidades para el recreo es una responsabilidad pública. En los parques públicos se ha dedicado una parte especialmente para el juego activo de los niños, bajo la supervisión de un director de juegos. Las bibliotecas públicas han dedicado salas especiales para los niños. Las "bibliotecas de juguetes" están muy en voga. A ciertas horas del día, ciertas calles se reservan solo para que los niños jueguen en ellas, bajo la protección de la policía. Se han organizado clubs de pesca para niños y niñas. Las Juntas Municipales de Proyectos (Municipal Planning Boards) actualmente hacen planes para tales formas de recreo como parques, piscinas, trinquetes, plazas de juegos, etc. En más de mil comunidades las autoridades públicas ahora dirigen programas de recreo durante todo el año, costeados por impuestos; de éstos, el 34 por ciento están bajo la jurisdicción de juntas de parques, el 18 por ciento bajo las escuelas, y 18 por ciento bajo otras dependencias.

Los gobiernos estatales y el federal en los Estados Unidos han fomentado extensamente el desarrollo de estas facilidades, organizando y difundiendo programas recreativos y suministrando personal idóneo. La Administración de Proyectos de Trabajo (Work Projects Administration), la Administración de Obras Públicas (Public Works Administration) y la Administración Nacional de la Juventud (National Youth Administration) han empleado más de un billón de dólares en jornales para los trabajadores en la construcción de facilidades recreativas y para salarios de los directores de programas recreativos en más de siete mil comunidades. La "United States Housing Authority" (Administración de Viviendas Populares), al aprobar solicitudes de ayuda federal para proyectos locales de viviendas populares, requiere que se provean ciertas facilidades recreativas en estas construcciones.

### Número y Capacidad de los Directores

Durante el período de crisis económica se extendieron las facilidades para el recreo tanto de menores como de adultos; y se aumentaron los subsidios federales con que pagar los salarios de personas idóneas para la dirección de estos programas. Esto se hizo mas bien como resultado del esfuerzo nacional por proveer empleo en una época en que existía mucho desempleo. Tal vez en muchas ocasiones la dirección de estos programas se ha encargado a personas tales como agentes vendedores, arquitectos, y empleados de tiendas y almacenes, y quienes no estaban preparados para asumir tal responsabilidad. En el presente, estos directores "temporales" en unas siete mil localidades están siendo transferidos a otras ocupaciones más prácticas para la prosecución de la guerra. De esto ha resultado que las comunidades se encuentran ahora con amplias facilidades para el recreo, construídas durante el tiempo de crisis económica, pero les es imposible usarlas por no tener en sus presupuestos una asignación suficiente para costear los gastos de mantenimiento y de salarios para el personal.

Actualmente se evidencia un gran interés en educar líderes de programas recreativos que desempeñen sus funciones gratuitamente. Sin embargo, éstos voluntarios, aún cuando trabajen cosa de dos a catorce horas diarias, no pueden desempeñar su cargo tan eficazmente como los líderes profesionales que se dediquen a este trabajo exclusivamente. El continuo aumento en las oportunidades recreativas para la juventud dependerá del número y la capacidad de personas idóneas que se dediquen a este trabajo durante los próximos años.

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Section II  
Education and Recreation

EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH IN THE UNITED STATES: PROGRESS AND PROBLEMS

Educational literature and research of recent years evidence an increased interest in both the world outside the school and the processes carried on within the school. Such interests are not wholly new. Cubberly, writing in 1909, noted: "When the school first became conscious and critical of itself it turned to methods and classroom procedure for lines of improvement, and psychology became its fundamental science..... The school now shows signs of becoming conscious of itself in a new and truer direction; its gaze is now outward instead of inward, and the relation of the school to the world outside has now become a question of the first importance." 1/ And Herbart, something over a hundred years ago, pointed out that: "Education as a science is based on practical philosophy and psychology. The former points out the aim, the latter the way, the means, and the obstacles to its accomplishments." 2/

To one who reviews the research activities and publications of recent years, however, it does seem that some new element has appeared. A more intense realism has come into the picture. There is less inclination to be content with theorizing and with justifying traditional practices, and more of a desire to see clearly what the social needs are and how best the schools can serve in meeting these needs. There is less defense of current practices and beliefs and more sincerity in the search for improvement. There is less satisfaction with preaching and more concern for practicing. There are still, as always, the retarding influence of human inertia, and the lag between concepts and their working expression; but there is also more determination on the part of organizations and committees that research results shall find their way into practice and that administrators and teachers shall be cognizant of the best thought of the period.

This accentuated demand for reality in the orientation of educational effort and in an accompanying improvement in the efficiency of internal processes may be viewed as something of a fruition of earlier efforts. It is in part the product of a constantly expanding program of self-examination and self-criticism stimulated by Departments of Education and by educational organizations; it is

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1/ Ellwood, P. Cubberly, Changing Conceptions of Education, p. 53-54  
Riverside Educational Monographs. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1909. 68 p.

2/ Johann Friedrich Herbart, Letters and Lectures on Education,  
Introduction, paragraph 2. (Tr. by Henry M. and Emmie Felkin.) London: Swan  
Sonnenschein & Co., 1898. 285 p.

in part the outcome of increasingly refined and penetrating insights into social needs and child development. But the demand was greatly accelerated by the impact of the economic depression of the nineteen thirties, and realism has been given a new priority by the peremptory demands of the war situation. Educational leaders everywhere are coming to sense something of the full significance of the statement made by President F. D. Roosevelt when he said, "All the possibilities of democracy rest squarely upon education." 3/

### Relating the School to the Needs of Society

Certain writers have traced the implications for education of changing social conditions 4/ while others have emphasized the general social background of education. 5/ Surveys of social conditions have been widely employed 6/ as a basis for policy determination and action. Outstanding among these have been the many studies of youth, particularly of youth out of school and out of

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3/ Letter to Dr. George F. Zook, dated April 30, 1935. Educational Record 16:243; July 1935.

4/ American Association of School Administrators. Social Changes and Education. Thirteenth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1935. 384 p.

Newton Edwards, "Impact of Social Change on the American Secondary School." Coordination of School and Community, p. 106-113. Twenty-Seventh Annual Schoomen's Week Proceedings. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1940.

Mowat G. Fraser, "Education and Social Trends." Review of Educational Research 9: 357-60; 419-20; October 1939.

Douglas E. Scates, "Social and Economic Change and Education," Encyclopedia of Educational Research, p. 1116-19. Edited by W. S. Monroe. N. Y.: Macmillan Co., 1941.

Edmund deS Brunner. "Social Trends and Education." Educational Forum 2:16-24; November 1937.

5/ Edmund deS. Brunner, Chairman. "Social Background of Education." Review of Educational Research, Vol. X, No. 1, February 1940. 72 p.

Lloyd A. Cook, "School and Community." Encyclopedia of Educational Research, p. 1000-05. 1941.

Charles C. Peters, Chairman. "Educational Sociology." Review of Educational Research Vol. 7, No. 1, February 1937. 112 p.

Charles C. Peters, "Social Needs." Encyclopedia of Educational Research, p. 1125-30. 1941.

6/ William G. Carr, "Educational and Social Surveys." Review of Educational Research 7: 44-49, 97-98; February 1937.

Jesse B. Sears, "School and Community Surveys." Review of Educational Research 9:508-13; 609-10; December 1939.

Most of the surveys in which educators are interested are those of youth; see references in footnotes 7 and 8.



work. 7/ In this area the American Youth Commission has been vigorous in making studies 8/ and reporting conclusions. 9/ The White House Conference on Children in a Democracy 10/ held its final session in 1940 and reported on various measures for child welfare.

The Educational Policies Commission, formed in 1935 by joint action of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators to develop long-time guiding policies for American education, has

7/ M. M. Chambers, "Youth Out of School, 16-24." Encyclopedia of Educational Research, p. 2334-44. 1941.

American Association of School Administrators. Youth Education Today. Sixteenth Yearbook, Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1938. 512 p.

U. S. Office of Education. Youth. Bulletin 1936, No. 18, 6 volumes. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1936.

Carl A. Jessen and H. C. Hutchins, Community Surveys. U. S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1936, No. 18, Vol. VI. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1936. 97 p.

M. M. Chambers and H. M. Bell. How to Make a Community Youth Survey. American Council on Education Studies, Series IV, No. 2. Washington, D. C.: the Council, 1939, 45 p.

D. L. Harley. Surveys of Youth: Finding the Facts. American Council on Education Studies, Series IV, No. 1. Washington, D. C.: the Council, 1937. 106 p.

"Unemployed Youth of New York City." Monthly Labor Review 44: 267-84; February 1937.

8/ The Commission has concerned itself primarily with three areas: occupational adjustment of youth, labor camps for youth, and special problems of Negro youth. Among many studies which it has issued since beginning work in 1935 are the following (Published by the American Council on Education, Washington, D. C.):

Youth tell Their Story. H. M. Bell. 1938. 273 p.

Equal Educational Opportunity for Youth. Newton Edwards. 1939. 189 p.

American Youth: An Annotated Bibliography. Louise A. Menefee and M. M. Chambers. 1938. 492 p.

Guideposts for Rural Youth. E. L. Kirkpatrick. 1940. 167 p.

Matching Youth and Jobs. H. M. Bell, 1940. 277 p.

Youth-Serving Organizations. M. M. Chambers, 2d. ed., rev. 1941. 237 p.

Youth Work Programs: Problems and Policies. L. L. Lorwin. 1941. 195 p.

Six reports on problems of Negro youth have been issued, the final one being: R. L. Sutherland, Color, Class, and Personality. 1942. 135 p. This volume reviews and interprets the findings of the other five.

9/ Homer P. Rainey, and Others. How Fare American Youth? New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1937. 186 p.

Youth and the Future. (Final report of the American Youth Commission.) Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1942. 296 p.

What the High Schools Ought to Teach. By special committee on the Secondary School Curriculum, of the American Youth Commission, Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1940. 36 p.

10/ White House Conference on Children in a Democracy. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office. Scheduled for publication in 1942.

published a number of penetrating reports 11/ which are the result of study and group deliberation.

Considerable interest has developed in general education, both on the high school and junior college levels, as an adaptation of secondary education to the increasing needs of the general citizen. The Commission on the Secondary School Curriculum, appointed in 1932 by the Progressive Education Association, brought its work to a close in 1939 after issuing a number of studies. 12/ Junior College leaders are emphasizing terminal education in their institutions. 13/ The American Council on Education has sponsored the Cooperative Study in General Education which is working cooperatively with twenty-two colleges in the study of their problems, and other groups are giving attention to the problems and merits of general education. 14/

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11/ Among these reports are the following (published by the National Education Association, Washington, D. C.):

Unique Function of Education in American Democracy. 1937. 129 p.

Structure and Administration of Education in American Democracy. 1938. 128 p.

Purposes of Education in American Democracy. 1938. 157 p.

Social Services and the Schools. 1939. 147 p. (o. p.)

Education and Economic Well-Being in American Democracy. 1940. 227 p.

Learning the Ways of Democracy: a Case Book in Civic Education. 1940.

486 p.

The Education of Free Men in American Democracy. 1941. 115 p.

The Civilian Conservation Corps, the National Youth Administration, and the Public Schools. 1941. 79 p.

12/ The following, issued by various committees, have been published for the Commission by D. Appleton-Century Co., New York:

Language in General Education. 1940. 226 p.

Mathematics in General Education. 1940. 423 p.

Science in General Education. 1938. 591 p.

Social Studies in General Education. 1940. 401 p.

Visual Arts in General Education. 1940. 166 p.

Teaching Creative Writing. 1937. 142 p.

A related publication is: W. S. Gray, ed. Reading in General Education. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1940, 464 p.

13/ Walter Crosby Eells and others. Why Junior College Terminal Education? Terminal Education Monograph No. 3, prepared for the Commission on Junior College Terminal Education of the American Association of Junior Colleges.

Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1941. 365 p.

14/ National Commission on Cooperative Curriculum Planning. The Subject Fields in General Education. J. J. DeBoer, ed. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1941. 239 p.

National Society for the Study of Education. General Education in the American College. Thirty-eighth yearbook, Part 2. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1939. 382 p.

Relatively new areas of the curriculum receiving a large amount of attention and study in recent years include health, 15/ safety, 16/ family life, 17/ and visual education. 18/ In the latter field the American Council on Education has had a Committee on Motion Pictures, and a Motion Picture Project, for some years which have issued a number of studies and reports. The U. S. Office of Education has also been active in this area.

The American and Canadian Committee on Modern Languages between 1927 and 1931 published seventeen monographs. This Committee was superseded by the Committee on Modern Languages of the American Council on Education which published a bibliography 19/ and has projects under way for vitalizing the teaching

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15/ American Association of School Administrators. Health in Schools. Twentieth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1942. 544 p.

Ruth Strang, "Health Education." Encyclopedia of Educational Research, p. 561-71. 1941.

16/ American Association of School Administrators. Safety Education. Eighteenth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1940. 544 p.

Frank W. Hubbard, "Safety Education." Encyclopedia of Educational Research, p. 989-992. 1941.

17/ American Association of School Administrators. Education for Family Life. Nineteenth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1941. 368 p.

Clara M. Brown, "Home and Family Life Education." Review of Educational Research 11: 387-97.

National Education Association, Department of Home Economics, and the Society for Curriculum Study: Joint Committee on Curricular Aspects of Education for Home and Family Living. Family Living and Our Schools. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1941. 468 p.

J. K. Folsom; W. E. Bain; and E. Miller. Youth, Family, and Education. Report prepared for the American Youth Commission. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1941. 299 p.

Wayland J. Hayes, "The Family and Education." Encyclopedia of Educational Research, p. 492-94. 1941.

Progressive Education Association, Commission on Human Relations. Do Adolescents Need Parents? by Mrs. Katharine W. Taylor. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1938. 380 p.

18/ Edgar Dale and Charles F. Hoban, Jr. "Visual Education." Encyclopedia of Educational Research, p. 1323-34. 1941.

19/ Algernon Coleman and C. B. King, Analytical Bibliography of Modern Language Teaching. Vol. 2, 1932-37. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1938, 561 p.

See also: Algernon Coleman, "Decade of Research in Modern-Language Teaching." Journal of Higher Education 10: 175-81; April 1939.

of the languages. The Modern Language Association of America also has a commission at work. 20/

Reading, on all levels, continues to receive a large amount of research attention. 21/ The social studies are receiving increasing emphasis 22/ as it becomes more and more clear that the great problems of the world are not technological but are problems of human relationships. The Commission on the Social Studies, of the American Historical Association, completed the publication of its 16-volume report in 1937, 23/ and the National Council for the Social Studies continues its annual Yearbook. 24/

The force of world circumstances in the last five years has made clear the necessity for the direct teaching of democracy. Children and adults alike need a more thorough understanding of its basic concepts, its historical setting, its operational nature, its weaknesses, its strengths, and its contrasts with totalitarian sequelae. Furthermore, it is becoming clear that a certain amount of loyalty should be developed—emotionalized attitudes favoring the principles of democracy even while criticizing its practices—and this in spite of charges of indoctrination. Love of country is legitimate and important—many times as important as knowledge of systematic facts about one's country. Within

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20/ Commission on Trends in Education, of the Modern Language Association. Language Study in American Education, by Charles C. Fries and Others. New York: The Association, 1940. 40 pp.

21/ Arthur E. Traxler. Ten Years of Research in Reading: Summary and Bibliography. Educational Records Bulletin No. 32. New York: Educational Records Bureau, 1941. 195 pp.

William S. Gray. "Reading." Encyclopedia of Educational Research, pp. 891-926. 1941.

William S. Gray and Others. "Reading." Review of Educational Research 10:79-106, 154-60.

22/ Howard E. Wilson, Chairman. "The Social Studies." Review of Educational Research, Vol. 11, No. 4, Part 2. October 1941. Pp. 419-474.

Wilbur F. Murra, Edgar B. Wesley, and Norah E. Zink. "Social Studies," Encyclopedia of Educational Research, pp. 1130-1156. (Edited by Walter S. Monroe.) New York: Macmillan Co., 1941.

National Council for the Social Studies. The Contributions of Research to the Teaching of the Social Studies. Eighth Yearbook, Washington, D. C.: The Council, 1937. 239 pp.

American Association of School Administrators. The Social Studies Curriculum. Fourteenth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1936. 480 pp.

23/ Reports published by Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1932-37. The following volume provides something of a general overview of the report:

Charles A. Beard. A Charter for the Social Sciences in the Schools. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1932. 122 pp.

24/ National Council for the Social Studies. Social Studies in the Elementary School. Twelfth Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1941. 243 pp.

reasonable limits, it is to be regarded as a worthy goal, and in times of crisis an essential goal, of education in a democracy. The Educational Policies Commission has been prompt to issue material helping to crystallize the position of the public schools. 25/ Other organizations also have issued pertinent material 26/

The emphasis upon democracy is keyed into the current war efforts. It is not appropriate here to discuss the activities of the various commissions that have been set up to implement educational policies, but in passing we may mention the Wartime Commission of the United States Office of Education; the National Commission on the Defense of Democracy through Education, of the National Education Association; and the National Committee on Education and Defense, of the American Council on Education and the National Education Association. 27/ Morale has received some attention by educators; propaganda has received considerably more. 28/ A bibliography compiled under the sponsorship of the American Psychological Association covers all aspects of war psychology, capitalizing upon European studies and experience. 29/

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25/ In addition to references cited in footnote 11, see the following, published by the National Education Association, Washington, D. C.

Education and the Defense of American Democracy. 1940. 23 p.

Education and the Morale of a Free People. 1941. 29 p.

The Education of Free Men in American Democracy. 1941. 115 p.

A War Policy for American Schools. 1942. 47 p.

"Teaching Materials on the Defense of Democracy." Six pamphlets. 1941.

26/ Progressive Education Association. Progressive Education, Its Philosophy and Challenge. Yearbook Supplement, Vol. 18. New York: the Association, 1941. 28 p.

Howard E. Wilson and Others. Teaching the Civil Liberties. Bulletin No. 16. Washington, D. C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1941. 40 p.

27/ The programs of these groups are described by Carter V. Good in "Educational Progress During the Year 1941." School and Society 55:253-60; March 7, 1942.

28/ National Council for the Social Studies. Education Against Propaganda. Seventh Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Council, 1937. 152 p.

Ruth M. Strang. "Methodology in the Study of Propaganda and Attitudes Relating to War." School and Society 54: 334-39; October 18, 1941.

Institute for Propaganda Analysis. Propaganda: How to Recognize it and Deal With It. New York: the Institute, 132 Morningside Drive, 1938. 82 p.

29/ Carroll C. Pratt, editor. "Military Psychology." Psychological Bulletin, Vol. 38, No. 6, p. 309-508. June 1941. Also published separately. Prepared for the Emergency Committee in Psychology, of the National Research Council. Evanston, Ill.: the American Psychological Association, Northwestern University.



The growing world consciousness of the United States has led to greater interest in comparative education, international understanding, and neighborly relations. The special commissions and committees referred to are preparing appropriate instructional materials for the schools, but even before the onset of the present war there was a developing feeling of the closeness of the United States to other nations.

"Science is working another revolution, a revolution even more significant socially than the industrial revolution. Distance is being annihilated." 30/ In addition to occasional reviews of education in other countries 31/ four men have been consistent contributors to the basic literature in this area—representing Indiana University, 32/ Teachers

30/ Daniel A. Prescott. Education and International Relations. P. 136. Harvard Studies in Education, Vol. 14. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1930. 168 pp.

31/ R. H. Eckelberry. "Comparative Education." Encyclopedia of Educational Research, pp. 345-353. New York: Macmillan Co., 1941.

"History of Education and Comparative Education." Review of Educational Research. Vol. 9, No. 4, pp. 333-448. October 1939. Also Vol. VI, No. 4, pp. 353-456; October 1936.

World Education. Official organ of the World Federation of Education Associations. Washington, D. C.: 1201 Sixteenth St., NW., 1936 to date.

32/ Henry Lester Smith, Comparative Education. Bloomington, Ind.; Educational Publishers, 1941. 529 pp.

The following four publications are Bulletins of the School of Education, Indiana University, published through the Bureau of Cooperative Research, Bloomington, Ind.

Henry L. Smith and P. H. Canary. Some Practical Efforts to Teach Good Will. Vol. 11, No. 1, pp. 1-166. September 1935.

Henry L. Smith and W. I. Painter. Bibliography of Literature on Education in Countries Other Than the United States of America. (January 1925 to December 1936.) Vol. 13, No. 2, 341 pp. March 1937.

Henry L. Smith and W. I. Painter, Same as above, but covering January 1919 to December 1924. Vol. 14, No. 1, 139 pp. December 1937.

Juan Espendez-Navarro and Henry Lester Smith. Education in Guatemala. Vol. 18, No. 2. 97 pp. March 1942.

College, Columbia University, <sup>33/</sup> and the U. S. Office of Education. <sup>34/</sup> A number of international agencies have been active in promoting cultural understanding and international cooperation. Among these may be mentioned the Pan American Union, the World Federation of Education Associations, New Education Fellowship, the Council for Education in World Citizenship, the International Bureau of Education, the International Institute of Intellectual Cooperation, and various committees of the League of Nations, such as the International Committee on Intellectual Cooperation. <sup>35/</sup> The National Education Association of the United States also has a Committee on International Relations. While much of the literature from such organizations is missionary in spirit, a certain portion of it is essential to research in these areas. And as Good has noted, "World events testify all too somberly that man cannot live by science and technology alone." <sup>36/</sup>

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<sup>33/</sup> I. L. Kandel, editor, Educational Yearbook. International Institute, of Teachers College, Columbia University. Issued since 1924. New York: Teachers College.

I. L. Kandel. Comparative Education. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1933. 922 pp.

Paul Monroe. Essays in Comparative Education, Series No. 2, Studies of the International Institute No. 15, Vol. 2. New York: Teachers College Columbia University, the Institute, 1932. 311 pp.

Paul Monroe. "Recent Progress in Peace Education." In World Federation of Education Associations, Proceedings, 1937, Vol. 3. (Proceedings of the seventh biennial conference, at Tokyo, Japan, August 2-7, 1937. 5 Vol.) Washington, D. C.: The Federation, 1201 Sixteenth St., NW., 1938.

Paul Monroe. "What Can Formal Education Contribute to the Solution of World Conflicts?" National Education Association Proceedings, 1938, pp. 114-122. Washington, D. C.: The Association.

<sup>34/</sup> James F. Abel. "A Survey of a Decennium of Education in Countries Other Than the United States." U.S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1937, No. 2. Biennial Survey of Education, 1934-36, Vol. 1. Chapter 7. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1939.

James F. Abel. Education Under Dictatorships and in Democracies. U. S. Office of Education, Education and National Defense Series, Pamphlet No. 15. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1941. 19 pp.

James F. Abel, compiler. "Selected References on Foreign Education." Elementary School Journal 41: 774-91; June 1941. (See similar bibliographies in June issues of preceding years back to June 1933.)

<sup>35/</sup> Now, the National Committee of the United States of America on International Intellectual Cooperation, 405 W. 117th St., New York, N. Y.

<sup>36/</sup> Carter V. Good, op. cit., footnote 27, p. 259.

### Relating the School to the Needs of the Pupil

Not only is education facing problems growing out of world conflict and world reorganization but it faces the necessity for adjustment to internal pressures which have been created by new insights into child nature and growth needs. One educational psychologist asserts that the need is for--

. . . . a new type of educational leadership which is utilizing the findings of basic research in child development and related fields in making itself responsible for a fundamental redirection of educational thought and procedures. Nothing short of a comprehensive and basic functional realignment of the practices and procedures of education in terms of something more intelligently directional than tradition, precedent, or expediency is indicted . . . . We cannot afford to assume the responsibilities for emotional disorders, warped personalities, and physical strain that are incident to the narrowly restrictive traditional school program . . . . We must build anew and on a new foundation of basic research which recognizes the joint bearing of biological and psychological advances. 37/

And a sociologist calls attention to the point that, whereas our culture has become increasingly respectful of science, and the attitudes of the teaching staff generally reflect this admiration, "The whole personality is not satisfied by the scientific criteria" and if we become too barrenly scientific in our thinking and teaching there may be a revolt against such material which "is most inadequate in meeting the needs of personality" towards "a social religion which does much better"—and which is an actuality in certain foreign states. 38/

Research in emotional development has not progressed far 39/ but it is receiving widespread attention 40/ and is benefiting from long-time

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37/ Laura Zirbes. "The Emotional Implications of School Practices and Tasks." Educational Record 16: 167-180; April 1935. Quotations from pp. 167, 168, 177, 179.

38/ William F. Ogburn. "Non-Intellectual Aspects of Personality Facing Education." Educational Record 16: 293-300. July 1935.

39/ Daniel A. Prescott, Chairman. Emotion and the Educative Process. Committee on the Relation of Emotion to the Educative Process. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1938. 323 pp.

40/ Lois Barclay Murphy. "Social and Emotional Development." Review of Educational Research 11: 479-501; December 1941.

Caroline B. Zachry and Margaret Lighty. Emotion and Conduct in Adolescence. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1940. 563 pp.

Harold E. Jones, Herbert S. Conrad, and Lois B. Murphy. "Emotional and Social Development and the Educative Process." Child Development and the Curriculum, Chapter 18, pp. 361-389. Thirty-Eighth Yearbook, Part I. National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1939.

Florence L. Goodenough, "Emotions," Encyclopedia of Educational Research, pp. 172-174. 1941.

observations by sensitive observers in nursery and experimental schools, as well as from somewhat more formal longitudinal studies. Viewed in their relation to mental hygiene, 41/ personality, and adjustment, consideration of emotional development may come to exercise as powerful a control over the procedures of the school as social needs do over the general content of the curriculum. During the past decade all of these areas, together with psychotherapy, have profited from studies of child development 42/ which have attained considerable prominence and success during recent years. There is now a Society for Research in Child Development, which grew out of a Committee on Child Development of the National Research Council, in 1925. It publishes its own journal, Child Development, and is concerned with physical, mental, emotional, and social growth through adolescence.

In this general area of growth, intellectual development has been the subject of special study, having a substantial background in studies of an earlier period. The "nature-vs.-nurture" question was further reported on; 43/ questions of the constancy of the IQ came to the fore

41/ Fritz Redl. "Mental Hygiene." Encyclopedia of Educational Research, pp. 713-725. 1941.

Howard Y. McClusky, Chairman. "Mental Hygiene and Health Education." Review of Educational Research Vol. 10, No. 5, pp. 403-527; December 1940. See also the preceding issue in this area: "Mental Hygiene and Adjustment." Vol. 6, No. 5, pp. 459-563; December 1936.

National Education Association, Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction. Mental Health in the Classroom. Thirteenth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1940. 304 pp.

42/ Arthur T. Jersild, Chairman. "Growth and Development." Review of Educational Research Vol. 11, No. 5, pp. 475-618; December 1941. See also preceding issues in this area: Vol. 9, No. 1; February 1939. Vol. 6, No. 1; February 1936. Vol. 3, No. 2; April 1933.

Frank N. Freeman and Others. "Child Development." Encyclopedia of Educational Research, pp. 127-185. 1941.

National Society for the Study of Education. Child Development and the Curriculum. Thirty-Eighth Yearbook, Part I. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1939. 442 pp.

Charles D. Flory. "Child Development." Implications of Research for the Classroom Teacher, Chapter V. pp. 66-80. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1939. 318 pp.

George D. Stoddard. "Research in Child Development." Educational Research, Chapter II, pp. 20-50. American Council on Education Studies, Series I, No. 10. Washington, D. C.: The Council, 1939.

43/ National Society for the Study of Education. Intelligence: Its Nature and Nurture. Thirty-Ninth Yearbook, Parts I and II. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1940.

and were subsumed in larger issues; 44/ twins and other children of multiple births are still being studied for possible light on the factors which contribute to intelligence; and Terman's thousand bright children are being followed into maturity. 45/ Factor analysis, a new statistical tool presumed to be powerful for analytical purposes, has been widely used in recent years, but appears to have left as many questions subject to debate as it has thrown light on. 46/ It may be of greater value to parsimony than to analysis.

As one form of application of the great interest in child growth and development which has been manifest, guidance and counseling services have been widely established and have become the center of a large amount of study. 47/ Vocational guidance is now included in the larger concept of general guidance.

### Improving the Efficiency of the School

The school, as a social instrument, may be well directed with reference to the needs of society and of the pupil, but may still vary greatly in the efficiency with which it performs its tasks. The general field of educational organization, administration, and support, having as its

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44/ Paul L. Boynton. "Intelligence and Intelligence Tests." Encyclopedia of Educational Research, pp. 622-634. 1941.

Arthur E. Traxler, Chairman. "Psychological Tests and Their Uses." Review of Educational Research Vol. 11, No. 1; February 1941. See also earlier issues in this area: Vol. 8, No. 3; June 1938; Vol. 5, No. 3; June 1935; Vol. 2, No. 4, October 1932.

45/ See the Thirty-Ninth Yearbook, footnote 43.

46/ Karl J. Holzinger. "Factor Analysis." Encyclopedia of Educational Research, pp. 487-492. See also pp. 626-627. 1941.

Karl J. Holzinger and H. H. Harman. Factor Analysis: A Synthesis of Factorial Methods. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1941. 417 pp.

47/ "Guidance." Encyclopedia of Educational Research, pp. 549-551; and "Colleges and Universities--Student Personnel Work," pp. 248-326. 1941.

Ruth M. Strang, Chairman. "Pupil Personnel, Guidance, and Counseling." Review of Educational Research Vol. 12, No. 1; February 1942. See also previous issues in this area: Vol. 9, No. 2; April 1939. Vol. 6, No. 2; April 1936. Vol. 3, No. 3; June 1933.

National Society for the Study of Education. Guidance in Educational Institutions. Thirty-Seventh Yearbook, Part 1. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1938. 313 pp.

Goodwin Watson. "Research in Guidance and Personality Adjustment." Educational Research, Chapter V, pp. 114-134. American Council on Education Studies, Series I, No. 10. Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1939. 189 pp.



ultimate purpose to make the taxpayer's dollar yield as large a return to society as possible, has undoubtedly been the subject of more research than in any previous period. In fact practically all research in administration is of fairly recent date.

The changing form of the vertical organization so as to provide terminal, general education by the end of the second year of college has been mentioned earlier (footnotes 12-14). Studies of articulation between high school and college 48/ are taking on a somewhat new form. The 10-year study in Pennsylvania 49/ was concerned primarily with student accomplishment, pointing the need for better records and guidance. The daring 8-year study undertaken by the Commission on the Relation of School and College, of the Progressive Education Association, was completed in 1941 and reports are now in process of publication. 50/ In this large experiment some 300 colleges and universities agreed to waive ordinary entrance requirements for the graduates of 30 secondary schools. The high schools thereupon set to work to ascertain what kind of education they would give when freed of college domination. The report, to be made in 5 volumes, promises much for the secondary-school curriculum and for a better institutional adaptation to the purpose of providing sound secondary-school education.

The over-all organization of all educational services 51/ of a formal nature has come under the survey of one or more groups. The largest study, taking its departure from financial problems, considered the whole subject of Federal relationship to State and local conduct of education. 52/ This study began in 1936, was reported to the Congress in 1938, and completed the publication of its 19 staff studies in 1939. The problem of equalization of educational opportunity is central; 53/ along with this goes

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48/ Edward S. Jones. "Articulation of Secondary School and College." Encyclopedia of Educational Research, pp. 65-69. 1941.

49/ William S. Learned and Ben D. Wood. The Student and His Knowledge. Bulletin No. 29. New York: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1938. 406 pp.

50/ Wilford M. Aikin. The Story of the Eight-Year Study. Adventure in American Education, Vol. I. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1942. 157 pp.

51/ John Dale Russell, Chairman. "Organization and Administration of Education." Review of Educational Research Vol. 10, No. 4, pp. 299-402; October 1940. See also earlier issues in this area: Vol. 7, No. 4; October 1937. Vol. 4, No. 4; October 1934. Vol. 1, No. 3; June 1931.

Theodore L. Rellen, "Administration—City School;" and W. W. Coxe, "Administration—State School." Encyclopedia of Educational Research, pp. 4-13, and 13-18. 1941.

52/ Advisory Committee on Education. Report of the Committee. (Summary volume.) Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1938. 243 pp.

Lloyd E. Blauch. "Federal Relations to Education." Encyclopedia of Educational Research, pp. 494-503. 1941.

53/ Newton Edwards. Equal Educational Opportunity for Youth. A report to the American Youth Commission. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1939. 189 pp.

equalization of the burden of support, both between States and within States. 54/ Such studies quickly involve problems of local organization in the form of territorial units for school support, attendance, and administration. 55/

The enlarging of local school districts accentuates the problems of pupil transportation, 56/ which in turn are usually studied against a background of general business administration 57/ of the school system, including operation and maintenance of the plant, and purchasing of supplies and equipment. Work in this area has been stimulated in part by the National Association of Public School Business Officials, which has produced a number of monographs. School buildings, like the curriculum, require continuous adaptation to changing social concepts and uses, and recent studies have emphasized this need. 58/ As a background setting for all phases of business and general administration, school law—constitutional and statutory, and court decisions—must be constantly summarized and kept in mind. 59/

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54/ William G. Carr. "Finance, School." Encyclopedia of Educational Research, pp. 503-520. 1941.

Paul R. Mort. "Research in the Structural Aspects of Educational Finance." Educational Research, Chapter VI, pp. 135-166. American Council on Education Studies, Series I, No. 10. Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1939. 189 pp.

55/ Henry F. Alves, Archibald W. Anderson, and John Guy Fowlkes. Local School Unit Organization in Ten States. U. S. Office of Education Bulletin 1938, No. 10. Local School Units Project. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1939. 334 pp.

Howard A. Dawson, "Consolidation of Schools." Encyclopedia of Educational Research, pp. 362-367. 1941.

56/ Howard A. Dawson. "Transportation of Pupils." Encyclopedia of Educational Research, pp. 1313-1317. 1941.

57/ Edgar L. Morphet, Chairman. "Finance and Business Administration." Review of Educational Research, Vol. 11, No. 2; April 1941. See also earlier issues in this area: Vol. 8, No. 2; April 1938. Vol. 5, No. 2; April 1935. Vol. 2, No. 2; April 1932.

Ward G. Reeder. "Business Administration of Schools." Encyclopedia of Educational Research, pp. 103-119. 1941.

58/ John Guy Fowlkes, Chairman. "School Plant and Equipment." Review of Educational Research, Vol. 12, No. 2; April 1942.

T. C. Holy, "School Plant." Encyclopedia of Educational Research, pp. 1028-1054. 1941.

59/ M. M. Chambers and Newton Edwards. "School Law." Encyclopedia of Educational Research, pp. 1017-1027. 1941.

M. M. Chambers, Editor. Yearbook of School Law. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education. Issued annually since 1933.

Problems of teacher education and teacher selection and supervision lie close to the heart of the school system. 60/ It is recognized that only a beginning has been made in the direction of predicting teaching success, and that the curriculum for teacher education is still subject to question. The American Council on Education, through its Commission on Teacher Education, launched a 5-year program of Cooperative Study of Teacher Education. 61/ The Council has also prepared, through its National Committee on Teacher Examinations, a uniform objective test which may be given to prospective teachers throughout the Nation. 62/ The Stanford Social Education Investigation 63/ seeks to stimulate in-service growth of teachers.

### Appraising the School and Its Product

No undertaking is complete without some form of appraisal. Educators have for some time been active in this process. Not only have achievement tests 64/ and intelligence tests 65/ and personality

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60/ Willard S. Elsbree, Chairman. "Teacher Personnel." Review of Educational Research, Vol. 10, No. 3; June 1940. See also earlier issues in this area: Vol. 7, No. 3; June 1937. Vol. 4, No. 3; June 1934. Vol. 1, No. 2; April 1931.

Earl W. Anderson and Others. "Teacher Personnel." Encyclopedia of Educational Research, pp. 1243-1272. Also, "Teacher Education," pp. 1198-1243. Also, A. S. Barr, "Supervision and In-Service Training," pp. 1190-1196. 1941.

Benjamin W. Frazier, Education of Teachers: Selected Bibliography, October 1, 1935, to January 1, 1941. U.S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1941, No. 2. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1941. 60 pp.

61/ American Council on Education. Cooperative Study of Teacher Education. Bennington Planning Conference for the Cooperative Study of Teacher Education. Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1939. 261 pp.

62/ American Council on Education. National Committee on Teacher Examinations. David G. Ryans. "Professional Examination of Teaching Candidates: A Report of the First Annual Administration of the National Teacher Examinations." School and Society 52: 273-84; October 5, 1940.

63/ I. J. Quillen and E. A. Krug. "Stanford Social Education Investigation." Educational Method 20: 323-27; March 1941.

64/ Walter W. Cook. "Tests, Achievement." Encyclopedia of Educational Research, pp. 1283-1301. 1941.

Harry A. Greene, Chairman. "Educational Tests and Their Uses." Review of Educational Research, Vol. 8, No. 5, pp. 493-596; December 1938. See also earlier issues in this area: Vol. 5, No. 5; December 1935. Vol. 3, No. 1; February 1933.

Gertrude H. Hildreth. Bibliography of Mental Tests and Rating Scales. New York: Psychological Corporation, 1939. 2d ed. 295 pp.

Oscar K. Buros. Nineteen Forty Mental Measurements Yearbook. Highland Park, N. J.: Mental Measurements Yearbook, 1941. 674 pp.

65/ See references in footnote 44; also Hildreth, and Buros in footnote 64.

measures 66/ been developed extensively and studied both technically and practically, but attempts are being made to ascertain the improvement in adult habits and community practices traceable to education. 67/

The school survey movement, which began about three decades ago, has continued. 68/ The United States Office of Education has been responsible for several national surveys, 69/ in addition to its extensive presentation of data in its regular Biennial Surveys, begun in 1916-18. The outstanding survey of public schools in recent years was the Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in New York State. 70/

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66/ See Hildreth, and Buros, in footnote 64.  
Willard C. Olson. "Personality." Encyclopedia of Educational Research, pp. 785-95. 1941.  
See Review of Educational Research, issues cited in footnote 44, and also Vol. 2, No. 3; June 1932.

67/ Harold F. Clark. "The Social Effectiveness of Education." Review of Educational Research 10: 33-51, 67-71; February 1940.  
C. C. Peters. "Social Effectiveness of Formal Education." Encyclopedia of Educational Research, pp. 1119-1122. 1941.

68/ Charles H. Judd. "Contributions of School Surveys." The Scientific Movement in Education, pp. 9-20. National Society for the Study of Education, Thirty-Seventh Yearbook, Part II. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1938.

Jesse B. Sears. "School Surveys." Encyclopedia of Educational Research, pp. 1058-1064. 1941. See also the reference by Sears cited in footnote 6.

Henry Lester Smith and E. A. O'Dell, compilers. Bibliography of School Surveys and of References on School Surveys. Indiana University School of Education Bulletin 14: 1-144; June 1938. Bloomington, Ind.

69/ Published by the Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.: The National Survey of Secondary Education. Bulletin 1932, No. 17, 28 monographs. 1933-35.

National Survey of the Education of Teachers. Bulletin 1933, No. 10, 6 volumes. 1933-35.

National Survey of School Finance. Bulletin 1932, No. 15. 1932. (This survey was interrupted by the depression.)

Survey of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities. Bulletin 1930, No. 9, 2 volumes. 1930.

Survey of Negro Colleges and Universities. Bulletin 1928, No. 7. 1929.

Walton C. John. "National Surveys of the Office of Education." Biennial Survey of Education, 1928-30, Vol. I, Chapter 20. 1931.

National Survey of Visual Instruction. School Use of Visual Aids. Bulletin 1938, No. 4. 1938. 68 pp.

70/ For a summary volume see: Luther H. Gulick, Education for American Life. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1938. 167 pp.

The survey produced 109 separate studies, only 13 of which were published as books.

The survey particularly emphasized secondary education. The reports of the Eight-Year Study (see footnote 50) constitute a comprehensive survey of the 30 cooperating secondary schools. Higher education was the subject of two national surveys (footnote 69), and received most intensive treatment in the University of Chicago survey. 71/

The extensive activities in connection with revision of accrediting standards for secondary and higher education institutions carried on by a number of regional accrediting agencies have resulted in considerable stimulation toward self-evaluation on the part of the institutions, in addition to the production of new sets of standards. 72/ The Department of Secondary School Principals, of the National Education Association, has issued two incisive reports on high-school programs 73/ and has secured widespread discussion of them. Mort and others studied the flexibility of schools in adjusting to changing ideas and needs. 74/

### Sources of Systematic Information on Educational Research

For one who wishes to keep currently informed it is necessary to utilize regular channels of information. The following sources are listed because of their systematic nature or comprehensive coverage.

Monroe's Encyclopedia 75/ provides a good datum plane for educational research up to about the middle of 1940. The Review of Educational Research, 76/ appearing five times a year, carries forward. The Education

71/ Floyd W. Reeves and Others. University of Chicago Survey. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. 12 vol.

72/ North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Committee on Revision of Standards for Higher Institutions. Evaluation of Higher Institutions. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1935-37. 7 vol.

Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards Committee. Evaluative Criteria and Educational Temperatures. 2 vols. in 1. Washington, D.C.: The Committee, 744 Jackson Place, 1939. 238 pp.

E. D. Grizzell. "Accreditation." Encyclopedia of Educational Research, pp. 1-3, 1941.

73/ Committee on the Orientation of Secondary Education. "Issues of Secondary Education." Department of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, 20: 1-364; January 1936. And: "Functions of Secondary Education." Bulletin, 21: 1-266; January 1937.

74/ Paul R. Mort and Francis G. Cornell. American Schools in Transition. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941. 546 pp. (Sponsored by the Columbia University Council for Research in the Social Sciences; one of a number of reports.)

75/ Walter S. Monroe, editor. Encyclopedia of Educational Research. Prepared under the auspices of the American Educational Research Association. New York: Macmillan, 1941. 1344 pp.

76/ Published by the American Educational Research Association, Washington, D. C. Began in 1931. Covers educational research under 15 topics. Each issue covers 3 years.



Index 77/ includes research reports, but is responsible for non-research literature as well. Monroe and Shores prepared a comprehensive bibliography of bibliographies up to 1935. 78/ Systematic bibliographies covering 20 phases of education have been appearing in the Elementary School Journal and the School Review, 79/ monthly, since 1933. The U. S. Office of Education bulletin 80/ is the best source for information on theses in Education.

Current descriptions of the work of research and other agencies have been provided for some years in the Journal of Educational Research 81/ and more recently in a series of annual reviews in School and Society. 82/ Annotated lists of reports of various educational committees or commissions have been prepared annually for the past 8 years. 83/ A number of special studies or reviews of research activities are serviceable for certain purposes. 84/ A number of reports have emphasized the research

77/ Published by the H. W. Wilson Co., New York. Began in 1929.

78/ Walter S. Monroe and Louis Shores. Bibliographies and Summaries in Education to July 1935. New York: H.W. Wilson Co., 1936. 470 pp.

79/ Published by the Department of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago.

80/ Bibliography of Research Studies in Education. U. S. Office of Education Bulletin. Issued annually since 1927. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

81/ Carter V. Good, editor. "Research News and Communications." A department in the Journal of Educational Research. Published by the Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Ill.

82/ Carter V. Good. "Educational Progress During the Year." School and Society 47: 345-52; March 12, 1938. Annually, in March or April. Latest review to date, March 7, 1942.

83/ William G. Carr. "Deliberative Committee Reports." School and Society 55: 199-206; February 21, 1942. This is the eighth such report; earlier reports appeared in issues for May 9, 1936; April 17, 1937, Feb. 26, 1938, Feb. 11, 1939, Aug. 31, 1940, and Feb. 8, 1941. Some of these reports were issued in bulletin form by the Educational Policies Commission, Washington, D. C.

84/ Carter V. Good. "Educational Reconstruction in the United States." Educational Record 23: 140-65; January 1942.

National Resources Committee. Science Committee. "1. Relation of the Federal Government to Research." Research—A National Resource. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1938. 255 pp.

David Segel. "Educational Research Studies of National Scope or Significance." Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1938-40, Vol. I, Chap. 10. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1941. 35 pp.

U.S. Office of Education. Biennial Survey of Education, 1934-36. Bulletin, 1937, No. 2. Vol. I, Chap. III, "Higher Education"—section on "Research", pp. 55-64. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1940.

William H. Zeigel, Jr. Research in Secondary Schools. U.S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1932, No. 17. National Survey of Secondary Education, Monograph No. 15. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1933. 72 pp.

Footnote 84—continued.

Hilda Maehling and Paul T. Rankin. "The Interpretation and Evaluation of Research." Implications of Research for the Classroom Teacher, Chapter III, pp. 38-52. Washington, D. C. National Education Association, 1939, 318 pp.

Walter S. Monroe and Max D. Engelhart. The Scientific Study of Educational Problems. New York: Macmillan Co., 1936. 504 pp.

National Society for the Study of Education. The Scientific Movement in Education. Thirty-Seventh Yearbook, Part II. Frank N. Freeman, Chairman. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1938. 529 pp.

Review of Educational Research. "Methods of Research in Education." Vol. 9, No. 5: December 1939. (A corresponding issue to be published in December 1942, as Vol. 12, No. 5.)

Frederick Lamson Whitney. The Elements of Research. New York: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1937. 616 pp.

agency. 85/

It may be of value to list here the leading bibliographies and treatises on research methodology, which have appeared since 1930. These publications generally cite important research studies by way of illustration.

Harold H. Abelson. The Art of Educational Research. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N.Y.: World Book Co., 1933. 332 pp.

Carter Alexander. How To Locate Educational Information and Data. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941. 2d ed. rev. 439 pp.

John C. Almack. Research and Thesis Writing. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1930. 310 pp.

Oscar K. Buros, editor. Second Yearbook of Research and Statistical Methodology Books and Reviews. Highland Park, N.J.: Gryphon Press, 1941. 383 pp.

Dorothy Campbell Culver. Methodology of Social Science Research: A Bibliography. Publications of the Bureau of Public Administration. Berkeley, Calif.: University of California Press, 1936. 159 pp.

Carter V. Good, compiler. "Selected Bibliography on the Methodology of Educational Research and Related Problems." An annual bibliography published in the September issue of the Journal of Educational Research. The first bibliography was in October 1930.

Carter V. Good, A. S. Barr, and Douglas E. Scates. Methodology of Educational Research. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1936. 882 pp.

Henry W. Holmes and Others. Educational Research. American Council on Education Studies, Series I, No. 10. Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1939. 189 pp.

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85/ B. R. Buckingham. "Our First Twenty-Five Years." (A history of the American Educational Research Association.) National Education Association Proceedings, 1941. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1941. pp. 347-363.

Henry R. Evans. "Educational Boards and Foundations." Biennial Survey of Education, 1928-1930, Part I, Chapter 21. U.S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1931, No. 20, Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1931.

Carter V. Good. "Organized Research in Education: Foundations, Commissions, and Committees." Review of Educational Research 9: 569-575; December 1939.

Charles H. Judd. Research in the United States Office of Education. Advisory Committee on Education, Staff Study No. 19, Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1939. 133 pp.

Douglas E. Scates. "Organized Research in Education: National, State, City, and University Bureaus of Research." Review of Educational Research 9: 576-90; December 1939.

Journal of Educational Research. "A Symposium on Participation of the Field Worker in Educational Research." Vol. 29, No. 2; pp. 81-153; October 1935.

E. F. Lindquist. Statistical Analysis in Educational Research. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1940. 266 pp. (Especially Chapter IV on "Importance of Design in Educational Experiments.")

In spite of the economic depression which ushered in the 1930's and the world war which darkened their close, the past decade has seen an unprecedented amount of educational research in the United States. National surveys and other large-scale undertakings by a host of national agencies and educational organizations have been more prominent than ever before. Furthermore, the tone of educational literature indicates that there is a growing acceptance of educational ideas which heretofore were held only as theories; and a number of organizations have taken as much pains to see that research findings were put into practice as they have to undertake new research. Nation-wide enterprises and implementation seem to be the characteristics of research for the past 10 years which are outstanding.

We may divide educational research into four areas: First, the effort to ascertain the needs of society and to make changes in the direction of adapting the school program to those needs. Studies of social needs have been prominent in recent years. Of large concern have been the needs of youth out of school, and many surveys have been conducted to this end. It may be said that the public-school system is primarily concerned with the satisfactory adjustment of high-school graduates to the vocational and social world which they enter upon graduation from secondary education.

The second large area of research effort is the study of the pupil—his nature, his needs as a pupil, and his course of growth. Longitudinal studies of physical, mental, emotional, and social development have provided a base of information from which further insights may readily be derived and applications made to school practices. It may well be that fundamental changes in school procedures will be made as a result of these findings.

The third area is that of improving the efficiency of the school as an agency—improving its general organization so that it will serve society better, and raising the level of both general and business administration. Important studies of school support and reorganization of school districts have been made. School buildings are to be made more generally useful. Teacher education and growth are receiving attention.

The fourth area is the general one of appraisal. This extends from appraisal of pupil work and achievement, to an over-all evaluation of schools and school systems. Educators have been active in studying and criticizing their own efforts, and in improving and extending their means of appraisal.

Reports of research studies are now being systematically indexed, summarized and reviewed, so that no one need longer remain in ignorance of research findings because of difficulty in locating them.

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Section II  
Education and Recreation

### LIBRARY SERVICES TO CHILDREN IN A WORLD AT WAR

The question with which children's librarians are concerned today is the question as to what adjustments in their theories, their objectives, and their policies the present world situation makes imperative. The war has touched every phase of our lives, personal, political, and economic. If it touches libraries in no way except to threaten decreased appropriations and to provide an opportunity for a Victory Book Campaign for the men in service then libraries must face the conclusion that they have played a very small, a very superficial part, indeed, in the throbbing life of the country. But if they do serve fundamental needs then the changes in the lives of the public whom they serve must indicate changes, adjustments, and sacrifices that they can make in meeting those needs. It is appalling to be able to find so few, but the country has not passed from a state of peace to a state of war which will in itself be stable. Month by month during the years ahead there will be new demands and new opportunities.

So far there are three respects in general in which war conditions have touched children's lives and in which libraries should be able to help directly or indirectly. Children face a loss of security, they are bewildered by what they do not understand, and they need, and will need increasingly, a refuge and a shelter for the spirit.

Security, we are told, is a basic need of childhood. During the years of our economic depression there were vast numbers of children whose homes shook or collapsed about them. Certain traces of instability existing at some age levels may be directly due to the loss of the security of the home during that period. Even more in time of war or crisis are children in danger of losing their sense of security. Bewildered, worried, sorrowing parents throw a feeling of unrest and uncertainty over the normal atmosphere of a home; perhaps the parent who plunges enthusiastically, almost joyfully into war relief activities creates a situation that is equally disastrous. Children go out from this unusual home atmosphere only to find that, outside their homes, their security is challenged from another angle. These children do not question for a moment our ability to defeat the enemy in this war, but the effect on them of what they are hearing on all sides is something that they cannot know how to combat. They are hearing of the collapse of governments, of refugees without a country; they hear their own government criticized, their leaders blamed and censured. How can they know that their own country is not in danger of collapse; that what they hear is only the exercise of the right of free speech? Anything that will help at this time to fortify the faith and confidence of children in their democratic institutions and in their leaders will serve a definite purpose. They need a sense of political security, of solidarity; the stimulation that comes from criticism should still be the prerogative of their elders.



Libraries are prone to believe that an answer to almost any problem can be found in a book but there is one possible answer to this problem that precedes the book. His public library is often the very first democratic institution with which a child comes into contact if he is a borrower before he reaches school age. What does he learn there about democratic institutions? That they are involved with restrictions, red tape, penalties and difficulties? Or are the rules so few, so simple, so necessary that he can understand and, as a result, respect them? Is time found to explain rules and penalties to him so that he can see how each has its basis in the rights of others and the necessity to safeguard public property? Is he made to feel like a culprit when he pays a fine, or does he have a chance to experience the pride that comes when an obligation has been honestly met? Does it seem trivial to think of building confidence in one's democratic institutions on the basis of a library rule? It is no more trivial than the miracle that follows the planting of any seed. To learn to use properly the opportunities which his country, through whatever unit, has provided for him is training in elementary citizenship. It is also an important step toward comprehension of the basic principles for which his country stands, and for which it fights.

But as far as books themselves are concerned, what can libraries provide that will help to give children a sense of political security? No one book, of course, will serve. But there must be reassurance in the life of Abraham Lincoln and in his faith in the ability of the country to endure; in the story of the Declaration of Independence, of the Constitution, of the Bill of Rights. Bitter difference of opinion, bitter opposition, bitter isolationists existed before--the Union has weathered them all and it will again. Any story that shows with what tenacity our forefathers clung to their ideals and fought for them, in peace no less than in war, gives an unwavering conviction that this nation of ours is solid, safe. Clearing weather by Cornelia Meigs, a story of the ratification of the Constitution, is such a one. For younger children any one of a dozen stories that show how safe and comfortable a pre-school runaway or wrongdoer can be when once the policeman or the traffic officer has taken charge, can build faith in all officials. In fact, any child who has learned that he can put his grimy little hand into the hand of the law with complete confidence has learned something invaluable about his country.

History, biography and fiction all offer plenty of parallels to current situations but in the excitement of the moment few children will have patience to build up a chronological background for themselves in their reading. Such thoughtful reading at a time like the present, when history itself has been telescoped, is only possible under the guidance of a teacher. The average reader is impatient even with a fine book like The making of a democracy by Hartman, which begins logically with the Middle Ages. Try, by way of experiment, to give an eager boy who wants a book on "aviators" a story of two medieval knights in mortal combat as substitute. He is frankly amazed at the stupidity which makes you think they could interest him now. But give him Fast's Haym Salomon. He can relate that to his world; he can see specifically what Haym Salomon might mean to Mr. Morgenthau because he grasps that Haym Salomon is the kind of patriot it takes to get bombers to General MacArthur.

In a year which has seen the publication of a larger number of biographies than ever before we still clamor for more of another sort. Too many have been

unneeded, prompted by nostalgia for early American literature or by commercial competition. We still need more material on living men and men of action; brief, ephemeral accounts will do provided they are sound, unbiased and rational in their admiration. Must we, because we have not a single good book about him, watch boys fight for True comics in order to read about General MacArthur? Men and women whose lives and actions are the very essence of heroism--the heroism of lifelong devotion to a cause, a principle, or a conviction--as Sir Arthur Quiller-Couch has defined it in his Book of courage, are not lacking in our public life. These are the lives that can give children political faith. Writers like Joseph Cottler, Haym Jaffe and Albert Carr who have demonstrated their ability to present biography in relation to enduring values in civilization might be conscripted to advantage to write the stories of such men.

Thinking adults are confused and uncertain in the face of rapidly changing conditions. Children are bewildered to an even greater degree by what they do not understand. What types of reading matter have libraries to offer, what specific books, that will help children to understand the current scene? Strictly speaking there are as yet few "war" books for children. There has not been time for them to be written nor have the children begun to ask for them. War strategy has not yet caught their attention. It is no concern of theirs whether an offensive might advantageously have been launched in Italy some two years ago or whether an A. E. F. should be on its way to Siberia now. But they are vitally and intelligently interested in the Army and the Navy; and in every type of plane ammunition or technical device. These are the tools in the job we have undertaken; these are the tools they themselves expect to use later. The books appearing of this kind are so abundant that it is not difficult to select those which are scientific and accurate in subject matter and attractive in format, and to weed out the pseudo-scientific and the emotional. Few of them feature or dwell on the horror and destruction for which these same devices are designed. Boys will read serious, even difficult, scientific books with absorption; they have demonstrated so clearly that they are capable of understanding the books about the mechanism of their world that they have a right to the newest and the best.

War fiction--the juvenile spy story, the thrilling escape from Nazi and Japanese--is sure to come. These will be the books to watch with suspicion, and to ask of each one what purpose it serves, whether it merely terrifies, whether it leaves a sense of insecurity, whether it arouses hate and prejudice, or whether it spurs our war effort. There has been one little story, not very well written, that seems to meet the tests from the point of view of subject matter. Its title is Snow treasure. <sup>1/</sup> It is said to be based on a true incident that occurred at the beginning of the Norwegian occupation when gold bullion was saved from the enemy by sending the children of the town coasting to the shore with the bricks concealed on their sleds. This is plot material growing out of reality. While it required courage on the part of the children, it required obedience to a still greater degree, and the ability to follow

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<sup>1/</sup> McSwigan, Snow treasure, Dutton (2.00)

orders and carry out unquestioningly plans made by adults. It is worth noting as an example of the type of story which will help to satisfy vicariously without undue emotion the craving for participation in the war effort. It is a type of book for which we must watch, judge painstakingly and buy cautiously even when it meets the tests.

It is unfortunate that so important and clean cut a statement of issues as that posed by Howard Pease in his The black tanker should have been so soon out-dated. The black tanker is concerned with the ethics of shipping oil to Japan while it was still lawful to do so. It has the quality, rare in modern fiction, of forcing upon young readers the necessity to face a dilemma and to think for themselves. Mr. Pease is probably the most popular writer for boys today, as judged by library readers, and one whose integrity merits confidence. We hope that in his next books he will be as courageous as he was in his last.

Perhaps one of the sacrifices that we must make is to ask children to grow up a little faster. Perhaps the time has come when children must be given more realism in their literature because to understand their world requires a grasp of realities.

We have wanted for our children the happiest possible childhood. We have planned for them a steady untroubled progression through their education toward the goal of a rich, abundant life. There is a cultural heritage of books waiting for them that should form an essential part of that education. Poetry, epic, saga, imaginative literature of classic proportions from all lands and all times--these are the books on which man has grown strong through the ages. These are the books which he needs to nourish the very roots of his spirit. There is only so much reading time in a child's childhood. To curtail his reading of such literature for any purpose whatsoever seems at first glance to be denying him his birthright. But few of the plans made to achieve the highest good, whether by men or nations, are proceeding as scheduled. Men are laying aside their dreams and their hopes while they take on the grim business of winning the right for themselves and their children to live by those dreams again "this side eternity." If we could believe that, by putting into the hands of children today certain books rather than other books, we could interpret for them this strange world we live in no one would hesitate. If we could believe that certain books might, even possibly, expand the hearts of children into a sympathetic conception of the part that racial, social and regional differences and traditions play in this land of ours, no one would feel the experiment unworthy of the trying. For those who think it dangerous to deviate from the accepted plan for children's reading by offering them books that may bring them into contact with conditions that are unpleasant, disturbing and thought-provoking there is the comfort of a statement of Lenin's, quoted in Lincoln Steffen's Autobiography, "This is the advantage of a plan...you can tack as you must but if you know you are wrong you can steer back on your course." We need never lose sight of the fact that we may be tacking; we can get back on our course in time; and we know that the great literature will endure, will wait. Many a father whose own childhood was underprivileged has read the great epics and sagas for the first time when he read them to his children. One cannot say that they came too late. The child who has read widely in stories of modern life to the exclusion of classic literature may lose in lofty dreams and idealism, but he may gain in richer human sympathy, human kindness, and human understanding.

This word "democracy" that is on every page of print and in every speech—abused, lauded, exploited and idealized—is something that thoughtful adults are groping in all humility to understand; it is a concept that each formulates for himself. It is not something that children can be taught in abstractions. We know somehow that it is the sum total of the values of the American way of life; that is woven out of the warp and woof of daily living, shot through with experiment, mistake and failure but with honesty, integrity and high purpose as well. Children will form their own conceptions as they grow in understanding. If we can put into their hands honest books that will help them to know all aspects of their country and all types of its people we will have given them a means to understand much of what happens around them and to them.

To those who believe that girls and boys have a right to materials with which to do their own thinking the question is not whether it is desirable to give them more realism in their literature, more grasp of their country's problems, more understanding of their neighbors, but whether it is possible to do so. It becomes a question of whether we have at various reading levels books that present true and faithful pictures of our country. A refugee who describes himself as "a typical young middle-class intellectual from Central Europe" 1/ tells us that before coming to this country he had constructed an imaginary America in his brain with the help of books he had read—a picture of America as an unfortunate country inhabited chiefly by gangsters, merciless business men, and hypocritical doctors and clergymen. He bases his misconceptions on the facts that conditions depicted in certain books have improved in the years since their publication, though the books themselves still rate high as literature; that the hard-working, decent middle-class, comprising some eighty percent of the population, do not provide such thrilling material for the writer as a lynched Negro or the extravagant hobbies of a business magnate; and that descriptions of regions are assumed to apply to the country as a whole. The child who is born in America faces the same dangers in learning to know this country from the books about it. The books that best explain America to a foreign child should be those that best explain America to an American child.

Stories that give an honest picture of life in our country are often those of quite unexciting normal middle-class living which center around the struggle to keep a home, to keep a family together, or to establish a home. The constant recurrence of this basic theme in variation is not entirely an indication of the author's paucity of plot material; rather, to judge from the satisfaction that children derive from it, is it evidence that the sense of home and family has not been lost during the depression years when homes were in jeopardy. Some times they are stories that depict life characteristic of unusual regions. Some bring home to the reader the possibilities of various vocations with indication of their significance in American life. Some few touch on our minorities—the Jew, the Negro, the Indian. Still others courageously undertake to present pictures of those strange "problem" lives that have come and gone at all periods of our history, like the sharecroppers, the migratory workers. The pendulum has swung far since the days of the moral tale with its obvious lesson. In their fear of preaching too few writers for children today make any attempt to find or interpret the significance of the conditions they depict. We need more books that come to grips with the world about us; we need authors who will interpret the United States and the problems of American life for the young reader as certain writers of adult books have done for the immature and unthinking adult.

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1/ Werner, Alfred The Forty-millionth Columbus in Saturday Review of Literature, April 4, 1942.



It is the young reader of today who will be expected to meet and adjust the situations which these problems are creating. He is entitled not only to all the facts about them but to the sympathetic and unprejudiced approach to those facts that result from hearing about them as a warm-hearted child. No one book can give more than a fragmentary picture of life in some one corner of this vast country. It is difficult to see what is to guard the child, particularly one whose knowledge of geography is scant, from falling into the dangers of generalization.

Perhaps in these war years something can even be added to the limited subject matter of books for the very little child. Modern theory has struggled to protect the pre-school child by the elimination in his reading of everything extraneous to his own environment. It may be wise to begin again "the early training of a child as a part of a nation and a civilization;" one way will be to enlarge the pre-school world to encompass stories of quiet courage and patriotism. It can be done without sacrificing too much of the new and desirable pre-school literature. Those first six or seven impressionable years are too precious to ignore when they may be utilized toward developing kindness and admiration for heroism.

In all book selection for children it must be kept in mind that children vary greatly in their facility in reading and in their ability to grasp the meaning of what they read. The more important the message of a book, that is, the more specifically it answers a current need, the more willing we must be to overlook a lack of literary quality in its presentation. A book frequently has integrity and sincerity without literary quality. Teaching the mechanics of reading is no part of a librarian's work but the task of searching out the simply written book on needed subjects is. It is not pertinent to argue here whether the older boys turn to the comics today because they are incapable of reading a serious book, or whether they are incapable of reading a serious book because their taste has been debauched by the comics. But the older readers with scant taste for reading who still use the libraries, or who can be reclaimed, should have access to every type of book which touches their daily living. It does not matter whether it is the ability, the desire or the time to read that young people of today have, to some degree, lost. What does matter is that this portion of the American public, young, susceptible, easily swayed, shall not be left to form or acquire its conceptions of American life entirely from the radio, the movies, the comics. There has been much discussion about the need for books for the foreign-born adult with a language handicap. Many an American born young person may have as vital a need. In our enthusiasm to welcome the children's book of literary distinction many an old title with brevity and simplicity of language has been weeded from our collections. To replace them we need more of what a certain professor once called "first-class second-rate" books. Their subject matter must appeal to readers of twelve and over, they must be well written and well made, but they must not be too big, too wordy, too intricately developed.

It is not enough that our children should know only about life within the boundaries of the United States. Just as we want Canadian, Mexican and ~~all the~~ American children to know the United States through the books we can send them so do we want our children to begin to know these other countries through books about their way of life. We wish that we had more to send out that are as honest, as courageous as our best. We know our neighbors to the South have a life



that is rich, varied and diverse; that they have color and the gift of gaiety which our children need; that their history is full of daring and courage and romance. We cannot help but know that it has problems and suffering as well. The artists have given exquisite pictures of these lands and their children but too few stories that reach the hearts of their readers. There is more to daily living in South America than the series of fiestas and trips to a fair that our travelers so painstakingly report. Neighbors inevitably hear over the back fence, the garden wall or through the apartment partition something of the hasty work, the bickering, as well as the happiness and laughter that go on next door. The close bond of sympathy that comes when true neighbors share their common problems is something we want for all children on this hemisphere. We believe that we can lay the basis for it in the books that children read about each other.

There is one final thing that libraries for children can do in these dark days, and that is to provide for them a refuge from the war. It requires no great imagination to see how desperately children, some more than others, may need a place where they can be for an hour out of all touch with war. In many homes the radio is always tuned in; news, exhortation, pleas to give, to buy, to save, to conserve flow out in an endless stream. In school, there must be discussion of the war. The news reels in the movies show the havoc and destruction of war. In church the very prayers for guidance and help in the war, emotional and moving, will often strike terror to the heart of a child. Even home is less a place of refuge, with its blackout room and air raid preparations, with the mother bending every nerve to take nutrition and first aid courses and to help in agencies for war relief. We would not encourage children to become escapist and to evade the demands of their world but we fear for them the effect of this persistent impact. The more serious and thoughtful they are the more will they need some place for quiet reading, whether about the war or other subjects, some point from which they can get a perspective. The children's rooms of our libraries may well supply such a place. If we could, we would keep from their walls every poster and every flagrant sign of war. We would cooperate with all war agencies by furnishing whatever material they might need for children's use but we would try to do so unaggressively and undemonstratively. If libraries could provide, through the years of turmoil we face, a bomb shelter of the spirit for growing, questioning children--a place to which they would learn to come for their "daily draught of life"--it would be no mean gift to the children themselves and no mean service to their country.

### Résumé

The question with which children's librarians are concerned today is the question as to what adjustments in their theories and practices the war situation makes imperative. How can they help children who face the loss of a sense of political security, who are bewildered by what they do not understand, and who need a refuge for their spirits from the insistent impact of war?

Libraries can build for children a sense of political security by helping them to gain confidence in their democratic institutions, their government and its officials. The use of the public library itself, provided their own experience convinces them that it is fair and just, is invaluable in laying an early foundation of faith in democratic institutions. Libraries can search out, for history, biography, and fiction, material which shows how the Union has weathered crises before which tried men's souls; how in the past our leaders have clung to their convictions undismayed; how worthy of faith our present officials and leaders are.

The books which will best help a child to understand the current scene fall into two groups. They are accurate and scientifically written books on the Army, the Navy, the mechanism and the implements of warfare. They are the modern realistic books about their country that will help to build a sympathetic understanding of all kinds of people, all types of problems and to overcome his prejudices. Honest, courageous books can give a child materials with which to meet the problems his generation will face. There is a crying need for more of this type of book which will interpret for children the social significance of existing conditions.

Children vary greatly in their reading facility and there is a need for more simply written books for the child who finds reading difficult; otherwise his opinions on current affairs may be formed from less desirable sources.

There is a need for more and better books about Canada and the other American countries than are now available. There have been charming picture books but few strong, vital books that go beneath the surface of daily life and are capable of establishing a close bond of sympathy through the understanding and sharing of common problems.

Finally, by the atmosphere which libraries maintain in wartime, by their care in attempting not to lead in the war effort but rather to feed all the streams of that effort, they can be of service to children. The children's rooms of libraries can provide for children a needed refuge for their spirit and a place from which to get a perspective so that they may emerge stronger, clearer in their thinking and more capable of meeting the immediate demands on them and the demands of the future.

OCTAVO CONGRESO PANAMERICANO DEL NIÑO  
WASHINGTON, D. C.  
Del 2 al 9 de mayo de 1942

TRABAJO sometido por:  
Srta. Julia L. Sauer,  
Directora, Secretaría del  
Trabajo con el Niño,  
Biblioteca Pública,  
Rochester, Nueva York.

Sección II  
Educación y Recreo

SERVICIOS BIBLIOTECARIOS PARA LOS  
NIÑOS DURANTE LA GUERRA

(Resumen)

En el presente, el problema que se les presenta a las personas encargadas de las bibliotecas para niños es el de decidir qué cambios serán necesarios en sus teorías y en sus prácticas. Deben decidir cómo pueden ayudar a los niños que se confrontan con la pérdida del sentido de seguridad política, a los que se encuentran confundidos por lo que no alcanzan a comprender, y a los que necesitan un refugio para sus almas que los resguarde de la tensión causada por la guerra.

Las bibliotecas pueden crear para los niños un sentido de seguridad política, estimulando su confianza en las instituciones democráticas, en su gobierno y en los que dirigen su gobierno. El uso mismo de la biblioteca pública, siempre que la experiencia de los niños les convenza de que es justo y equitativo, es de valor incalculable en asentar desde temprano su fe en las instituciones democráticas. Los bibliotecarios pueden hallar en la historia, en la biografía y en la novela suficiente material para demostrar cómo la nación ha sobrevivido épocas críticas; cómo, en el pasado, nuestros dirigentes no han desmayado ni han abandonado sus ideales, y cómo nuestros actuales gobernantes merecen nuestra fe y nuestra confianza.

Los libros que más ayudarán al niño a entender la situación actual pueden dividirse en dos grupos, que son: primero, los libros escritos científicamente, con información exacta sobre el Ejército, la Marina, el mecanismo y los pertrechos de guerra; y segundo, los libros realistas sobre su país, los cuales le serán de ayuda para comprender a todas las

clases de gentes y todos los problemas y a vencer sus prejuicios. Los libros sinceros y prácticos darán al niño el material que lo preparará para hacerle frente a los problemas de su generación. Existe una escasez de libros de esta categoría, que interpreten para los niños el significado social de las condiciones actuales. Esto constituye una necesidad que es imprescindible llenar. Como no todos los niños tienen la misma facilidad para comprender lo que leen, es necesario que se escriban libros en lenguaje sencillo. De lo contrario, se corre el peligro de que el niño que no comprenda los libros difíciles sobre asuntos contemporáneos, busque inspiración en otras fuentes, y que sus opiniones se basen sobre información errónea o nociva.

Se necesita un mayor número de libros sobre el Canadá y sobre las Repúblicas Americanas. Aunque se han publicado libros encantadoramente ilustrados, muy pocos son prácticos, vitales y que traten menos superficialmente los problemas de la vida cotidiana y que sean capaces de establecer un lazo estrecho de simpatía por medio del conocimiento y de la participación en los problemas mutuos.

Finalmente, las bibliotecas pueden rendir grandes servicios a los niños manteniendo un ambiente de paz y bienestar aun en tiempo de guerra, y cuidando de no tratar de mantener la delantera en el esfuerzo bélico sino mas bien contribuir por todos los medios a su alcance a dicho esfuerzo. En las bibliotecas, las salas para los niños pueden proporcionarles el refugio espiritual necesario, de manera que puedan fortalecer su carácter, esclarecer sus mentes y capacitarse para contribuir a la vida social tanto inmediatamente como en el futuro.

Prepared under the direction of the  
Technical Advisory Committee on  
Education and Recreation  
William G. Carr, Chairman

Section II  
Education and Recreation

PRINCIPLES GOVERNING ORGANIZATION OF EDUCATION, RECREATIONAL, AND  
LIBRARY SERVICES IN CITIES AND IN RURAL AREAS

1. Principles governing organization of educational, recreational, and library services in cities and in rural areas.

a. The purposes of education in a democracy are to enable each individual to develop fully his capacities, to achieve independence and stability, to adjust to changing conditions, and to participate effectively in a democratic society.

(1) The educational needs of individual children should receive increased attention, for a democratic educational system has no place for the philosophy or the methods of mass production.

(2) The educational program should be designed to prepare children to guard, to live in, and to develop a free society, and should encourage the use of democratic processes as superior to coercion.

b. A democratic government has the responsibility of establishing and maintaining the broad conditions under which the education of free citizens may be carried on. Having set the framework of the educational process, government should guard this framework and guarantee to the teaching profession and the educational authorities freedom and opportunity for the intelligent and loyal discharge of their duties. If an educational program undermines the loyalties of free men, fails to give the knowledge necessary to the defense of human liberty, or cultivates an authoritarian discipline or no discipline at all, it cannot be called democratic even though approved by overwhelming popular majorities.

c. Educational opportunities should be equalized so that school and teaching facilities are adequate for children everywhere whether in cities or in rural areas.

(1) Units of local school attendance and administration should be of a size that will make possible a modern, well-equipped school for every child at reasonable per capita cost.

(2) Where local funds are inadequate, financial assistance should be given by State and National Governments under safeguards against undue government control of educational programs.



(3) If necessary to insure attendance without hardship, financial aid should be given to individual children in the form of scholarships, free lodging and board in the vicinity of the school, or (in the case of older boys and girls) in the form of paid work of an educational nature.

d. Functioning literacy--that is, the ability to read and write with ease and enjoyment--is an essential for every citizen in a democracy.

(1) All children, urban and rural, regardless of race or economic status, should receive a sound elementary-school education. School attendance should be required under compulsory-education laws.

(2) Efforts should be increased toward making secondary schools accessible for all youth; also, public junior colleges and technical schools, for those qualified to benefit by them.

(3) The public-school system should be unified so that a pupil's education progresses continuously from the time he enters kindergarten or first grade until he completes the secondary-school course.

(4) Every local school system should include provision for educational services for parents and other adults.

e. The curriculum should be enriched and flexible to meet present-day needs.

(1) Teacher-training institutions should revise and enrich their training programs in order to give teachers the background and understanding that will enable them to achieve these educational objectives.

(2) The age span covered by the educational program should be gradually increased to benefit children at an earlier age than the traditional first grade; to help those who can benefit from organized instruction through high school and beyond, and to supplement the education of adults whose schooling may have been restricted in youth.

(3) The integration of subjects such as history, economics, and geography, the useful arts, and the physical sciences should be developed.

(4) The trend is also toward correlation of recreation, physical education, and health education within the school program.

(5) Education must be related increasingly to present-day economic, social, and political conditions and must give all children a broad foundation of general education including preparation for employment and for healthful living.

(6) Programs of general secondary education should contribute to responsible citizenship, wholesome family life, constructive use of leisure time, and appreciation of the national cultural heritage, and should be related to current industrial demands and opportunities.

(7) In preparing children for employment and occupational life schools should emphasize a broad educational background and the development of perfection in workmanship and versatility in a variety of skills and social adjustments rather than training for specific occupations.

f. Vocational preparation, guidance, and counselling service adapted to present conditions and the needs of youth should be available in the school systems or conducted in cooperation with the schools, in order that a pupil's choice of occupation and training may be based on his individual capacities and interests and on full information on occupational opportunities.

g. Compulsory-education laws should be harmonized with child-labor laws so that children and youth will be required to attend school until they reach legal working age, and even longer unless they actually find suitable work.

(1) Appropriate amounts of useful work are desirable elements in the experience of children and youth. During the years of compulsory school attendance, such work should be subordinate to the requirements of health and educational development of the child.

(2) The age for admission to wage-paid employment should be at least 14 years and should be raised above 14 years (16 years for industrial employment is desirable) whenever provision can be made for school attendance.

(3) Provision should be made for higher age for admission of young persons to occupations which involve special dangers for the life, health, or morals of the adolescent.

(4) The employment of a young person in any wage-paid employment should be made subject to the issuance of an employment certificate testifying that he is legally qualified to work and has passed a medical examination. The certificate should be issued without charge by, or under the supervision of, the agency responsible for administering the child-labor laws.

(5) Young workers should be safeguarded from too long hours of work, from night work, from too great strain, and from work in occupations particularly hazardous or detrimental to health or well-being.

(6) Intelligent planning is essential to arrange the general movement of young persons from school into the whole field of industry, commerce, and agriculture with the welfare of the young person and of society in mind.

h. The development of local public library services should be encouraged and assisted.

- (1) A satisfactory State library system would consist of a network of regional systems, built around existing libraries as nuclei, each regional system serving a large county or several counties or a large metropolitan area, and all coordinated with one another.
  - (2) Provision should be made for traveling libraries to reach isolated homes and communities.
  - (3) An effective State-wide school library service should be developed either by the central library agency or by the department of education.
  - (4) Special collections and personnel to serve children and young people are desirable, also library materials and advisory service for parents of the subjects of child care and training.
- i. Recreation for all through community agencies should be developed through school recreation programs for pupils; through local community programs for child, adult, and family; and through State and Federal programs to expand and supplement local facilities.
- (1) These programs should be developed on the basis of systematic, over-all planning to meet inadequacies in existing facilities and to provide for the selection and training of suitable leaders.
  - (2) School buildings should be kept open during the entire day and evening throughout the year and given maximum use as community centers where all members of the family can participate in recreational, educational, and other community activities.
  - (3) Play is important in the development of young children, and the inclination to play should be encouraged in them. Programs of play for preschool children should be more generally developed.
  - (4) Playground-parks are most needed in congested sections of urban centers where incomes are low, living-quarters crowded, and streets dangerous for children because of heavy traffic.
  - (5) For rural children, who often have natural advantages in their environment for play and recreation, opportunities for social contacts should be especially emphasized.
  - (6) Special programs should be developed suitable for children with physical handicaps or with personality difficulties.
  - (7) For young people leaving school social contacts and recreation opportunities are essential, and one of the most important methods of preventing the development of delinquency.
  - (8) Guidance should be available for families, especially those with low incomes, in choosing their forms of recreation so that a little money will be made to go a long way.

OCTAVO CONGRESO PANAMERICANO DEL NIÑO  
WASHINGTON, D.C.  
del 2 al 9 de mayo de 1942

Preparado bajo la dirección de  
la Junta Técnica Consultiva de  
Educación y Recreo. William G.  
Carr, Presidente.

Sección II  
Educación y Recreo.

PRINCIPIOS QUE RIGEN LA ORGANIZACIÓN DE SERVICIOS EDUCATIVOS,  
RECREATIVOS Y DE BIBLIOTECA EN CIUDADES Y EN REGIONES RURALES

1. Principios que rigen la organización de servicios educativos, recreativos y de biblioteca en ciudades y en regiones rurales.

a. Los propósitos de la educación en una democracia son. ayudar a cada individuo a que dé pleno desarrollo a sus capacidades, a que logre independencia y estabilidad, a que se ajuste a condiciones variables, y a que participe de modo efectivo en la sociedad democrática.

(1) Las necesidades educativas de cada niño deben recibir mayor atención, pues en un sistema educativo democrático no caben ni la filosofía ni los métodos de la producción en masa.

(2) Debe organizarse el programa educativo de modo tal que enseñe a los niños a preservar, a desarrollar y a vivir en una sociedad libre, y estimule el uso de procedimientos democráticos como superiores a la coacción.

b. Un gobierno democrático tiene la responsabilidad de establecer y mantener las condiciones amplias bajo las que pueda llevarse a cabo la educación de ciudadanos libres. Una vez fijado el marco del procedimiento educativo, el gobierno debe preservarlo y garantizar al magisterio y a las autoridades docentes libertad y oportunidad para el inteligente y leal cumplimiento de sus deberes. No podrá llamarse democrático, aunque haya sido aprobado por mayorías populares aplastantes, al programa educativo que mine la lealtad de los hombres libres, o deje de proporcionar los conocimientos necesarios para la defensa de la libertad humana, o cultive una disciplina autoritaria o no cultive ninguna.

c. Hay que igualar las oportunidades educativas, de manera que los privilegios de la escuela y de la

enseñanza sean asequibles a todos los niños, tanto en las ciudades como en los campos.

(1) Las unidades de administración y fomento escolar deberán ser de tamaño tal que hagan posible una escuela moderna y bien equipada para todo niño, a un costo razonable por persona.

(2) Donde los fondos locales sean insuficientes, los gobiernos nacional y estadual deben prestar ayuda financiera, pero debe siempre evitarse el que haya control indebido del programa educativo por parte del gobierno.

(3) Si fuere necesario, y con el objeto de garantizar la asistencia sin imponer sacrificios, debe ayudarse financieramente en casos individuales por medio de becas, alojamiento y comida gratuitos cerca de la escuela, o (si se tratare de niños y niñas mayores) en forma de remuneración por trabajo de naturaleza educativa.

d. Es esencial que todo ciudadano de una democracia sepa leer y escribir, que lo haga con facilidad, y que derive placer de ello.

(1) Todos los niños, tanto de las regiones urbanas como de las rurales, sin diferencia de raza o condición económica, deben recibir una sólida instrucción primaria. La asistencia a la escuela debe ser obligatoria por ley.

(2) Deben hacerse aun más esfuerzos por hacer la instrucción secundaria asequible a toda la juventud; también debe facilitarse la asistencia a colegios preparatorios públicos y escuelas técnicas para aquéllos que de tal educación puedan beneficiarse.

(3) Debe unificarse el sistema de instrucción pública de modo que la educación del alumno progrese continuamente, desde que entra a la escuela de párvulos o al primer grado hasta que termina su instrucción secundaria.

(4) Toda organización local de instrucción debe proveer servicios educativos para padres y otros adultos.

e. Debe ampliarse y hacerse flexible el curso de estudios para que esté a tono con las necesidades actuales.

(1) Las escuelas normales para maestros deben revisar y ampliar sus cursos para dar a los maestros la preparación cultural y la comprensión necesarias que les harán lograr esos objetivos educativos.

(2) La edad escolar que corresponde al programa educativo debe ampliarse de modo que incluya a niños demasiado tiernos para ingresar en el tradicional primer grado; que ayude a aquéllos que puedan beneficiarse de la instrucción organizada a través de la escuela superior y aun más allá, y suplemente la educación de adultos cuya educación pueda haber sido deficiente en su juventud.

(3) Debe estimularse la integración de materias tales



como la historia, la economía, la geografía, las artes útiles, y las ciencias físicas.

(4) La tendencia es relacionar con el programa escolar el recreo, la educación física y la educación higiénica.

(5) Debe relacionarse más y más la educación con las modernas condiciones económicas, sociales y políticas, y debe darse a todo niño una base amplia de educación general que incluya preparación para el trabajo y para una vida sana.

(6) Los programas de educación secundaria deben conducir a la ciudadanía responsable, la sana vida familiar, el uso constructivo del ocio, y la apreciación de la herencia cultural nacional. Deben además relacionarse con las exigencias y las oportunidades industriales corrientes.

(7) En la preparación de los niños para el trabajo y para la vida profesional, las escuelas deben hacer hincapié en un amplio fondo cultural, en el desarrollo de la habilidad manual y la versatilidad en varias habilidades, y en ajustes sociales, más bien que en la preparación para ocupaciones específicas.

f. La preparación vocacional, la orientación, el servicio de dirección adaptado a las condiciones actuales y a las necesidades de la juventud, todo eso debe ser parte del sistema escolar, o debe desarrollarse en cooperación con las escuelas, de modo que la selección profesional o de ocupación que haga el alumno sea adecuada a sus capacidades e intereses individuales, y se base en un completo conocimiento de las oportunidades profesionales.

g. Deben armonizarse las leyes de instrucción obligatoria con las del trabajo de menores, de modo que los niños y los adolescentes tengan que asistir a la escuela hasta que alcancen la edad que legalmente les permita trabajar, y aun prolongar su educación hasta que encuentren trabajo adecuado.

(1) Un elemento descable en la experiencia tanto de niños como de adolescentes es una cantidad razonable de trabajo útil. Durante los años de asistencia obligatoria a la escuela, ese trabajo debe estar subordinado a las necesidades de la salud y al desarrollo educativo del niño.

(2) La edad para ser admitido a empleos remunerados debe ser por lo menos de 14 años, y debe ser de más de 14 años (debiera ser 16 años para los empleos industriales) siempre que pueda el niño asistir a la escuela.

(3) Debe prescribirse una edad aun más avanzada para ser admitido a ocupaciones que encierran peligros especiales para la vida, la salud, o la moral del adolescente.

(4) Para emplear a un joven en un trabajo remunerado debe ser requisito el que se le expida un certificado de empleo que atestigüe que el joven está legalmente autorizado a

trabajar y que ha pasado un examen médico. Este certificado debe ser gratuito y debe ser expedido por el organismo responsable de la administración de las leyes que reglamentan el trabajo de menores, o bajo su vigilancia.

(5) Debe evitarse el que los obreros jóvenes trabajen horas excesivas, o de noche; y debe evitárseles la excesiva tensión, y el trabajar en ocupaciones particularmente peligrosas o perjudiciales a la salud o al bienestar.

(6) Es necesario planear cuidadosamente el movimiento general de los jóvenes, de la escuela hacia la industria, el comercio y la agricultura, teniendo siempre en cuenta el bienestar tanto del joven como de la sociedad.

h. Debe fomentarse y ayudarse el establecimiento de servicios locales de biblioteca pública.

(1) Un sistema estadual satisfactorio de bibliotecas debe contar con una red de sistemas regionales, construida alrededor de un núcleo de bibliotecas que ya existan. Cada sistema regional debe prestar servicios a un condado grande o a varios condados, o a una gran área metropolitana, y debe haber coordinación entre ellos.

(2) Debe hacerse posible el que las bibliotecas ambulantes visiten las comunidades y los hogares más apartados.

(3) La biblioteca central o el departamento de educación debe desarrollar un servicio de biblioteca escolar que sirva efectivamente a todo el estado.

(4) Son de gran utilidad la formación de colecciones especiales y la organización de personal idóneo para servir a los niños y a los adolescentes. También debe proveerse material de lectura y servicio de orientación para los padres en torno de los temas del cuidado y la educación del niño.

i. Debe proveerse recreo para todos mediante dependencias comunales y programas recreativos para los alumnos; por medio de programas comunales locales para niños, adultos y familias, y por medio de programas estaduais y federales que vengan a suplementar y a ampliar los medios locales.

(1) Deben desarrollarse estos programas a base de planes sistemáticos y generales, para complementar las deficiencias de los medios existentes, y para facilitar la selección y el entrenamiento de líderes idóneos.

(2) Deben mantenerse abiertos los edificios escolares durante todo el día y durante las primeras horas de la noche, todo el año; y debe dárseles el máximo de uso como centros comunales donde todos los miembros de la familia puedan participar en actividades recreativas,

educativas, y de otra índole.

(3) El juego es importante en el desarrollo de los niños, y debe estimulárseles a que jueguen. Deben desarrollarse más programas de juego para niños de edad preescolar.

(4) Son especialmente necesarios los parques de recreo en las secciones densamente pobladas de los centros urbanos, donde los salarios son bajos, donde se vive hacinado, y donde las calles son peligrosas para los niños a causa del intenso tráfico.

(5) Los niños de las zonas rurales tienen en su medio ambiente más ventajas naturales para el juego y el recreo. Para ellos deben fomentarse especialmente las oportunidades del intercambio social.

(6) Deben desarrollarse programas especiales para niños que adolezcan de defectos físicos o que tengan dificultades que afecten su personalidad.

(7) Uno de los métodos más importantes de prevenir la delincuencia es fomentar las relaciones sociales y las oportunidades de recreo entre los jóvenes que terminan sus estudios.

(8) Debe orientarse a las familias, especialmente a las de ingresos modestos, para que escojan sus diversiones de modo que gastando poco se diviertan mucho.

OCTAVO CONGRESO PANAMERICANO DEL NIÑO.  
WASHINGTON, D. C.  
Del 2 al 9 de mayo de 1942.

TRABAJO sometido por:  
Prof. Carmita Landestoy,  
República Dominicana.

Sección II  
Educación y Recreo.

FINALIDADES Y MÉTODOS EDUCATIVOS EN RELACIÓN CON  
EL DESARROLLO DE LA PERSONALIDAD MORAL Y LAS  
RESPONSABILIDADES SOCIALES.

(Resumen)

La raza, la alimentación y la educación, son los tres factores de los cuales depende la humanidad en todas sus manifestaciones.

La herencia, el desarrollo individual, y los estímulos de la educación, son los tres factores que determinan el desarrollo del cuerpo y del alma del hombre.

La raza, determina la herencia; la alimentación, el desarrollo individual; y la educación, el desarrollo intelectual, moral, etc.

Los valores están catalogados por escala, y siendo el amor al próximo uno de los más altos valores, es evidente que, para intuirlo, el material debe estar en las mejores condiciones. Por tanto se debe atender:

- 1.- a la salud física y moral;
- 2.- a impartir la educación adecuada para que los altos valores puedan ser intuídos;
- 3.- a seleccionar y formar maestros, a quienes a su vez se les haya desarrollado la personalidad moral y las responsabilidades sociales, ya que nadie podrá dar lo que no tiene.

Creo firmemente, que mientras los tres requisitos que apunto no se llenen, no debe hablarse siquiera de desarrollar los altos valores en el material humano. Alguien dijo que para triunfar se necesita; dinero, dinero y dinero. Yo digo; para poner en marcha los principios que el Continente Americano está obligado a echar a caminar, se necesita; alimentación e higiene, alimentación e higiene, y alimentación e higiene!

El fin supremo de la educación es: la felicidad humana. Y, sin embargo, todos los problemas siguen siendo problemas de educación, pues cuando se recibe la educación adecuada a su debido tiempo, lo mejor de cada individuo llega a su máximo desenvolvimiento, capacitándolo para ser útil a sí mismo y a la colectividad dentro de la cual vive.

Se necesitan maestros, verdaderos maestros, de éstos que sienten el magisterio como un apostolado, porque poseen esa clase de ternura que se impone con suavidad y energía, y encuentran siempre el camino de las almas, puesto que el amor tiene recursos que la ciencia ignora, estableciéndose entonces ese sublime púgilato mediante el cual, unos en afán de enseñar y otros en afán de aprender, todos ponen lo mejor de sí mismos en su misión.

POR TANTO: pido a los dirigentes de este Congreso, que propicien firmemente una mejor atención en favor de la alimentación y la higiene escolares, como una educación adecuada por métodos humanos, sin que se deje de elevar el standard de vida del maestro, para lograr, por ese camino, que se desarrollen la personalidad moral y las responsabilidades sociales."



OCTAVO CONGRESO PANAMERICANO DEL NIÑO  
WASHINGTON, D. C.,  
Del 2 al 9 de mayo de 1942.

TRABAJO sometido por:  
Prof. Carmita Landestoy,  
República Dominicana.

Sección II  
Educación y Recreo.

PLAN DE ALFABETIZACIÓN EN LA REPÚBLICA DOMINICANA,  
A INICIATIVA DEL GENERALÍSIMO DR. RAFAEL LEONIDES  
TRUJILLO MOLIDA.

(Resumen)

Ya se sabe que, por una u otra razón, en todos los países existe un gran número de analfabetos, y que, a todos los países preocupa también en mayor o menor grado dicho problema que tanto retarda el mejoramiento de las condiciones de vida de los pueblos.

En nuestro país, el Generalísimo Trujillo Molina acaba de trazar y poner en ejecución el programa más grande que se registra en la enseñanza primaria dominicana: cinco mil maestros están dando instrucción a cerca de trescientos mil niños en los campos de la República.

En aseveración de lo que acabamos de afirmar recordamos que cuando la guerra de 1914, los Estados Unidos de Norte América se vieron forzados a hacer un recuento de todos sus recursos; y, con el sentido práctico que los caracteriza, hicieron un minucioso recuento de sus recursos navales, militares, industriales, agrícolas, económicos y humanos y que éstos últimos fueron examinados e inventariados más cuidadosamente que los demás. Pruebas concluyentes confirmaron la supremacía de la educación como factor de producción. Por ese motivo en los Estados Unidos de Norte América se ha formulado como una ley económica-sociológica: el principio de que la producción de un Estado está en armonía con lo que el Estado invierte en sus escuelas y el número de años que los niños asisten a las mismas.

Y puesto que la mayoría de los países latinoamericanos, tienen problemas comunes, originados por causas comunes también, nos invito a estudiar el Plan de Alfabetización que el Generalísimo Trujillo Molina ha iniciado y puesto en ejecución en la República Dominicana. La Secretaría de Educación de dicho país puede suministrar importantes detalles sobre el mismo.

EIGHTH PAN AMERICAN CHILD CONGRESS  
WASHINGTON, D. C.  
May 2-9, 1942

PAPER prepared by:  
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Section II  
Education and Recreation

PURPOSES AND METHODS OF EDUCATION  
FOR DEMOCRATIC CITIZENSHIP

(Resumé)

At the present time it is of transcendental importance that the child receive the full measure of attention he deserves, since on him depends the triumph of democratic values in America. Ours is the task of preparing the child for this responsibility.

Since moral health is just as important as physical health, it is necessary to make the child understand that the strength of the Nation derives from the strength of the individual. We must demonstrate to him the benefits the good citizen receives under a democratic regime with its respect for individual rights.

The education of the child in the duties of democratic citizenship is not merely a utopian ideal. In Costa Rica, for example, a Nation which is small physically but of great moral stature, as I myself could observe, there exists a real democracy which can be considered a model of what a democratic state should be. The basis of this democracy is found in the educational system which seeks not only to mold the mind but the spirit as well. Since childhood is amoral, the development of character depends in large part on parents and teachers.

Every means available - prose, poetry, music, painting - should be employed to inculcate in the child a belief in the greatness of democracy. Such children will then be worthy heirs of the valiant men of today who are fighting to defend democracy and the democracy they create in the future will be sound and impregnable, stronger for having gone through the struggle in defense of its rights and privileges.

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For these reasons, and in the name of the Cuban Section of the Inter-American Women's Union, I submit to the consideration of the Congress the following points:

1. That the education of the child in a love of justice be made obligatory in public and private schools.

2. That the soul of the child be molded to an ineradicable appreciation of the enjoyment of self-respect and the satisfaction to be gained from following the precepts of justice. Thus he will reject all ideologies that are opposed to democratic principles.

3. That a belief in democracy be inculcated in the soul of the child along with respect for and devotion to his flag.

4. That prizes in money and medals be established for teachers who present the greatest number of students who can discourse ably on these two topics: AMERICAN FREEDOM and THE NOBLE AND HUMANITARIAN AIMS OF DEMOCRACY.

5. That the juries awarding these prizes be rotative, to provide the teachers with the stimulus of receiving prizes and medals from all the Republics of the American Continent.

OCTAVO CONGRESO PANAMERICANO DEL NIÑO  
WASHINGTON, D. C.  
Del 2 al 9 de mayo de 1942

TRABAJO presentado por:  
Sra. Aida Pelaez de Villa-Urrutia,  
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Sección II  
Enseñanza y Recreo

FINES Y MÉTODOS DE LA EDUCACIÓN EN RELACIÓN CON  
LA CIUDADANÍA DEMOCRÁTICA

(Resumen)

En los tiempos actuales es de trascendental importancia que se le preste toda la atención que merece el niño, pues en él radica el triunfo de los valores democráticos americanos. Nuestra responsabilidad consiste en preparar al niño para ocupar ese puesto.

Ya que la salud moral es tan importante como la física, es necesario hacerle comprender al niño que la fuerza del pueblo emana de la fuerza individual. Hay que demostrarle los beneficios que recibe el buen ciudadano bajo el regimen democrático, el cual le asegura el respeto de sus derechos individuales.

La educación del niño en los deberes de la ciudadanía democrática no es sólo un ideal. Se ha llevado a la práctica. Por ejemplo, según pude observar yo, en Costa Rica, nación pequeña físicamente pero moralmente grande, se encuentra una verdadera democracia, que puede considerarse uno de los modelos de democracias. Esta democracia tiene su base en el sistema educativo, por medio del cual se educan no sólo la inteligencia, sino también los sentimientos. Siendo la niñez amorala, el desarrollo del carácter depende en gran parte de los padres y de los maestros.

Es necesario grabar en el alma de los niños la grandeza de la democracia, valiéndonos para ello de todos los medios a nuestro alcance, tales como la prosa, el verso, la música, la pintura... Los niños serán entonces dignos descendientes de los que hoy combaten por la defensa de la democracia, y formarán en el futuro una democracia más exuberante y de una estabilidad inexpugnable, por estar reforzada, espiritual y materialmente, por la lucha en defensa de sus derechos y privilegios.

Por tanto, y en nombre de la Unión Interamericana Femenina, Sección de Cuba, someto a la consideración del Congreso los siguientes puntos:

1. Que sea obligatorio en las escuelas públicas y privadas, la educación de los sentimientos del niño sobre una base justiciera.
2. Que se modele el alma del niño, haciéndole comprender de manera indeleble el goce de la propia estimación y la satisfacción de proceder justicieramente. Así rechazará toda ideología contraria a los principios democráticos.
3. Que los credos democráticos sean inculcados en el ánimo del niño, al igual que el respeto y devoción a su bandera.
4. Que se establezcan premios en metálico y condecoraciones, para los maestros que presenten mayor número de alumnos que diserten acertadamente sobre estos dos temas: LIBERTAD DE AMÉRICA y HUMANITARIOS Y NOBLES FINES DE LA DEMOCRACIA.
5. Que los jurados que otorguen estos premios sean rotativos, para que el maestro tenga el estímulo de alcanzar premios y condecoraciones de todas las Repúblicas del Continente Americano.



PAPER prepared by:  
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Section II  
Education and Recreation

### YOUTH IN WARTIME

The war has changed the position of youth in the United States. During the 1930's millions of youth were drifting aimlessly, out of work and out of school, apparently unneeded and unwanted by the adults who did the work and ruled the land. The sad fact was that year after year the machine had been decreasing the need for the labor of youth. Humanitarianism and legal restrictions reinforced the trends of the economy, and youth became, to a large extent, closed off from adult work except on the farm, in the village, and in a few rare urban homes. The great majority of young people looked ahead to an uncertain future. This lack of participation hampered the development of self-confidence, reinforced incipient feelings of inferiority, and filled many of them with frustration and anxiety.

The march of Hitler's armies began to change all this in 1939. The passage of the Selective Service Act in 1940 marked a dramatic change in the status of youth. Simultaneously came a demand for an expanded labor force to produce materials needed under the Lease-Lend Act and the defense program. Appropriations made were such as to demand an addition to the working force of the United States of six million men by the end of 1942. Hence the army, the navy, and industry all began to demand the participation of youth in the defense of the nation.

The attack on Pearl Harbor and the declaration of war against America by Germany and Italy completed our involvement in the world conflict. Now the demands for the life and labor of youth have become urgent and all-embracing. The armed forces are expanding with all possible speed and the only limitation placed on the production of goods required for the war is the availability of human labor, ingenuity, machines, and materials. Youths are no longer rejected in the armed forces, in industry, in the professions, and the need for them in essential community activities is so great as to present a problem of wise choice in selection on their part.

The acceptance of youth as participants in the adult world during the war crisis should not blind us to the need for a continuing concern about their morale. This becomes increasingly important during a long war and in the difficult period of post-war readjustment. In the turmoil and excitement of the struggle for victory, it is easy to overlook many otherwise obvious facts affecting the feelings of youth. For example, the need for participation by youth in the war effort does not automatically provide the opportunity for

such participation. Such opportunity means that youth must be at the place where the need exists and be prepared to assume with effectiveness the responsibilities involved. The greatest demands for war workers up to the present time have been in coastal cities along the Atlantic and Pacific oceans and only in selected inland cities. This means that rural youth generally and youth in many inland cities are denied opportunity for defense work unless they leave home. Then, too, many of the new jobs demand a type of special training which was not generally given to youth during the depression period.

Another important factor in the present situation is that it is a temporary emergency. No one expects the war to go on forever. We all devoutly believe that the allied nations will eventually be victorious and that a peaceful and prosperous world, with armament production and the size of armies and navies severely restricted, can and will be established. Thus to become a soldier, sailor, or aviator, or a welder, machinist, or carpenter in a war industry is only a short term goal for most young people. They know that after the war the armed forces and the number of skilled workers will be reduced. The more intelligent among them also know that young people will be the group most seriously affected by any unemployment due to the shift from war time to peace time production. The future for youth is uncertain and their souls are troubled by what may be in store for them if they survive the war. Girls who desire above all to marry and establish families find the war disrupting their plans and making wholesome courtship difficult. Boys in the military camps likewise find it hard to secure opportunities to be with girls they both admire and respect.

The thing that youth needs most today is a philosophy of life which will give purpose and meaning to the necessary struggles and sacrifices of the present and hope for the future. This philosophy of life can come only from a careful deliberation about the essence of man's long struggle for a better world and the meaning of current experience. Social education teachers must assume a major role in guiding youth to develop purposes and values for living. We possess a knowledge of the American epic; we have studied the issues of the present and pondered the hopes for the future. We can help youth discover the opportunities for participation in the armed forces, in industry, in the professions, and in the essential services required by local communities. We can help them to make intelligent choices as to their own roles, based on a careful study of the needs of the nation and their own potentialities. We can help them to prepare themselves to become efficient workers, citizens, and fighters for the right. We can inspire them with the glorious traditions of democracy and the hope it holds for all.

In all our work with youth during the present emergency, we should take a long term view. Most young people now in school will probably not be required to fight or work as adults in this war. They will, however, comprise the adult world that will have to struggle with the difficult problems of post-war reconstruction. They will participate in the establishment of international peace and the securing for all peoples of the earth who desire them the nine rights amplifying the Atlantic charter, which appear in the report of the National

Resources Planning Board on planning for post-war America. These rights are:

1. The right to work, usefully and creatively through the productive years.
2. The right to fair play, adequate to command the necessities and amenities of life in exchange for work, ideas, thrift, and other socially valuable services.
3. The right to adequate food, clothing, shelter, and medical care.
4. The right to security, with freedom from fear of old age, want, dependency, sickness, unemployment, and accident.
5. The right to live in a system of free enterprise, free from compulsory labor, irresponsible private power, arbitrary public authority and unregulated monopolies.
6. The right to come and go, to speak or to be silent, free from the spyings of secret political police.
7. The right to equality before the law, with equal access to justice in fact.
8. The right to education, for work, for citizenship, and for personal growth and happiness.
9. The right to rest, recreation, and adventure, the opportunity to enjoy life and take part in an advancing civilization.

Our tasks as social studies teachers in the war emergency are to become aware of the needs of adolescents now and for the future, to determine the characteristics of behavior necessary to resolve these needs successively, and finally to use all of our resources as teachers to assist in the development of those behaviors. We must help adolescents to understand the issues and challenges that confront them, to inspire them with ideals from the American tradition, and to equip them with the competence necessary to achieve those ideals as citizens, workers, and fighters in the crucial struggles of the war and the post-war worlds.

EIGHTH PAN AMERICAN CHILD CONGRESS  
WASHINGTON, D. C.  
May 2-9, 1942.

Paper prepared by:  
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Section II  
Education and  
Recreation.

~~A~~ PAN AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL IDEAL IS EXPEDIENT

(Resumé)

- I. Make available all the possible means for a mutual understanding of the Pan American peoples, through knowing each other.
- II. Tourist travel should be intensified so that a material and spiritual knowledge of the countries and their people can be gained.
- III. The educational authorities of all the countries in the American continent who wish to unite, should formulate a simple but effective plan and make it available to all interested educators so that they can begin to work on it.
- IV. Intensify the literary production in all its aspects, with literary trends towards the union of the Sister Republics in accordance with the ideal expressed.
- V. Intensify the knowledge and appreciation of the folklore music of each country of the Pan American Union.

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OCTAVO CONGRESO PANAMERICANO DEL NIÑO  
WASHINGTON, D. C.

Del 2 al 9 de mayo de 1942

TRABAJO sometido por:  
Sra. Judith R. de Rangel,  
Maestra de la Ciudad de México,  
México, D. F., México

Sección II  
Educación y Recreo

CONVENIENE UN IDEAL EDUCACIONAL PANAMERICANO

CONCLUSIONES

- I.- Abrir todos los caminos posibles para lograr que -  
se conozcan los hombres de la Unión Pan Americana.
- II. - Que se intensifique el turismo para lograr un  
conocimiento material y espiritual de los países  
y de sus hombres.
- III. - Hacer que las autoridades educacionales de todo  
los países que deseen unirse, del Continente Americano,  
formulen un plan de trabajo sencillo y efectivo que  
se ponga en manos del educador para realizarse.
- IV. - Intensificar la producción literaria en todos sus  
aspectos, con temas encaminados a lograr la unión  
de las Repúblicas hermanas de acuerdo con el crito-  
rio expuesto.
- V. - Intensificar la difusión de la música folklórica  
de cada país de la Unión Pan-Americana.

México, D. F., a 20 de marzo de 1942.

Judith R. de Rangel  
Maestra de la Ciudad de México.



EIGHTH PAN AMERICAN CHILD CONGRESS  
WASHINGTON, D. C.  
May 2-9, 1942

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Paper presented by:  
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CHILD LABOR, STUDY AND INVESTIGATION OF THE PROBLEMS  
RELATED TO THE PROTECTION OF WORKING MINORS

(Resumé)

1. Since poverty is the fundamental cause of child labor, the first point on a program of prevention and protection of child labor should be the elimination of poverty from the worker's family by means of the establishment of "Social Security," to which the following principles may be added:

- a) More equal distribution of wealth.
- b) Equality of opportunities in obtaining means of earning a livelihood.
- c) Special attention so that every head of a family can earn sufficiently to maintain his family on a good standard of living.
- d) A system of official aid for dependent children to enable them to get their education up to the age of 16 without having to work.

2. Besides, we should strive for legislation based on common application that will tend to protect the child. Until the day when work by children under 16 will be prohibited by law, we should at least strive to attain general application of the protective measures which now are practised only in isolated cases by different countries; these are:

- a) Requirement of a medical examination, establishing a high rating for acceptance.
- b) Proof of having completed his elementary school education.
- c) Six working hours a day as the maximum.
- d) Absolute forbiddance of entrance into jobs which harm his health or morals.

3. It is also indispensable to promote an improvement from the educational point of view, to insure all the children an opportunity to attend school and be able to find in school the type of education that satisfies his interests. This improvement can be attained by the following methods:

- a) A greater number of school buildings that are well constructed and equipped.
- b) Well prepared and well paid teachers.
- c) Program of studies adapted to the needs of the environment.
- d) Vocational guidance.
- e) Special technical education that will facilitate the step from school to work, without creating a conflict between the home environment and the acquired knowledge.

4. The last point, but not the least important, is the necessity of fighting against the ignorance which exists concerning the disadvantages of child labor; this can only be done by an intense and continuous campaign, which with the help of exact facts and charts can obtain a unanimous public opinion against it. In order to enforce the law, it is necessary for everyone to know it and, also, that they fully appreciate the importance of its enforcement; in the industrial centers situated in or near cities and in other city work, the pressure of public opinion will be sufficient to enforce the law; but in agricultural centers it will be necessary to establish protective institutions with a minimum staff of a doctor, a social worker, a visiting nurse, and a sanitary inspector.

OCTAVO CONGRESO PANAMERICANO DEL NIÑO  
WASHINGTON, D. C.  
Del 2 al 9 de mayo de 1942

TRABAJO sometido por:  
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Sección II  
ENSEÑANZA Y RECREO.

EL TRABAJO INFANTIL, ESTUDIO E INVESTIGACION DE  
LOS PROBLEMAS DE LA PROTECCION A LA INFANCIA  
TRABAJADORA.

(Resumen)

S I N T E S I S.

1a.- Siendo la pobreza la causa fundamental del trabajo infantil el primer punto de un programa de prevención y protección del trabajo infantil debe ser la eliminación de la pobreza en el seno de las familias de los trabajadores por medio del establecimiento de "Seguros Sociales", a la que pueden agregarse estos postulados a seguir:

- a) Una mejor distribución de la riqueza.
- b) Igualdad en el disfrute de oportunidades para obtener medios de subsistencia.
- c) Especial atención para que todo jefe de familia gane lo suficiente para sostenerla en un buen nivel de vida.
- d) Un sistema de ayuda oficial cerca de los niños dependientes que les permita recibir educación sin trabajar hasta los 16 años.

2a.- Además, debe pugnarse por una legislación con bases de aplicación común, que tienda a la protección de la infancia. Mientras no se logre que las Leyes prohíban el trabajo de los jóvenes menores de 16 años, deberá lucharse porque se hagan generales las medidas protectoras que se practican ahora aisladamente, por distintos países, y que son:

- a) Exigencia del examen médico, estableciendo un alto coeficiente para la aceptación.
- b) Comprobante de haber recibido la educación primaria-completa.
- c) Seis horas diarias de trabajo como máximo.
- d) Prohibición absoluta de ingreso en trabajos que puedan perjudicar su salud o su moral.

3.- Es también indispensable promover un mejoramiento desde el punto de vista educacional, para que todos los niños tengan oportunidad de asistir a la escuela y de encontrar en ella satisfacción a sus intereses. Este mejoramiento podrá hacerse abarcando los siguientes aspectos:

- a) Mas edificios escolares bien construídos y equipados.
- b) Maestros con buena preparación y bien pagados.
- c) Plan de estudios adaptado a las necesidades del medio.
- d) Orientación vocacional.
- e) Educación técnica especial que facilite el paso de la escuela al trabajo, sin que surja pugna con el ambiente hogareño o con los conocimientos adquiridos.

4.- Por último, pero no por eso menos importante, es necesario combatir la ignorancia sobre las desventajas del trabajo infantil; para esto se precisa una campaña intensa y constante, que, con cifras exactas y con gráficas, obtenga una actitud unanime en contra. Para darle fuerza a la Ley, se necesita no solo que sea conocida por todos, sino que aprecien la importancia de su aplicación; en los centros industriales situados en las ciudades o cerca de ellas, así como en los otros trabajos citadinos, bastará la presión de la comunidad, para que la ley se cumpla; pero en los centros agrícolas será necesario establecer institutos de protección que cuenten con un personal mínimo de un médico, una trabajadora social, una enfermera visitadora y un inspectora sanitario.

OCTAVO CONGRESO PANAMERICANO DEL NIÑO  
WASHINGTON, D. C.  
Del 2 al 9 de mayo de 1942

TRABAJO sometido por:  
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Sección II  
Educación y Recreo

NORMAS LEGALES, ADMINISTRATIVAS Y DEMAS QUE REALIZAN EL  
TRABAJO INFANTIL Y LA ASISTENCIA A LA ESCUELA

(Resumen)

Vistas las circunstancias de que:

En el Derecho Fundamental de todos los países, los Estados se autoimponen al deber de la educación elemental.

La edad productiva que tiene como taxativa que el individuo se encuentre dentro de la edad escolar. Existe siempre persona física o moral que legalmente es responsable de la obligación llamada "alimenticia" que presupone la posibilidad de educación y la exclusión del trabajo en determinada época de la vida.

La falta de la atención antes expuesta constituye un delito.

La vigilancia, al trabajo especialmente clasificado y permitido para los trabajadores, es imprescindible, así como la enseñanza que a los propios menores debe impartirse.

Los presupuestos administrativos de los órganos del Poder Público deben empeñarse en aumentar partidas para el pago de menores escolares.

Debe presumirse que:

Los individuos con potestad, tienen la obligación bajo coacción de enviar a sus hijos y pupilos a recibir la enseñanza que el Poder Público señala como obligatoria mínima.

Por ningún motivo debe permitirse el trabajo de menores en edad escolar, los que en tales circunstancias serán atendidos por el Estado y sustraídos a su familia para ser "alimentados". Cuando las extremas circunstancias lo exijan se obligará la asistencia a la escuela vigilando que esto se cumpla.

Deber ser totalmente utilizados los servicios públicos que el Estado brinda a sus habitantes.



En consecuencia:

Se propone en cada País la creación de la "Oficina Federal Coordinadora del Trabajo y Educación de Menores".

Que la creación de este organismo debe hacerse con las formalidades debidas y legales que afirmen su permanencia y eficacia.

Para lograrlo, el ordenamiento que críe el órgano propuesto, debe tener la amplitud necesaria a modo de que, queden en cada país anexas, derogadas o modificadas las Leyes correlativas, de cualquier naturaleza u ordenamiento, que sean con el objeto de que, adjetiva y sustantivamente quede totalmente, controlado este problema concreto.

El organismo cuya creación se propone, tendrá preferente e indefectiblemente estas prerrogativas:

- a) Obtendrá de la Oficina correspondiente los datos y llevará el control total estadístico de la población en edad escolar de cada país.
- b) Cotejará el dato anterior y el estadístico de Asistencias Escolares.
- c) Precisaré la persona responsable de la falta social y debidamente identificada será remitida a las autoridades civiles administrativas a efecto de que se le sancione en forma efectiva.

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Paper presented by:  
Mrs. Margueritte Thibert, Counsellor  
Office in Charge of Investigating the  
Condition of Women and of Working Minors  
Mexico

GUIDANCE, PLACEMENT, AND SUPERVISION OF THE  
WORKING MINORS OF MEXICO

(Resumé)

Vocational guidance in Mexico is still in the preparation stage, but well on the road of full realization. The first initiative in this matter has been taken by the Social Security and the Child Aid institutions, which have understood the importance of work selection in the preservation and moral regeneration of minors who are materially and morally abandoned or in moral danger. A job that still remains to be done is the adapting of the possibilities for placement to the results of guidance examinations. The supervision of working conditions of minors has a perfect organization through which to work, in the Office in Charge of Investigating the Condition of Women and of Working Minors, which is under the Department of Labor and Social Security; this Office has a supervising staff which is specialized and well prepared in the problems of working adolescents, which is an essential condition for a truly efficient control. This Office is progressively expanding its field of action, and works in close cooperation with the other departments in charge of protecting minors, in other fields of activity, with a complete understanding of the interdependence of all the problems which each one of these departments faces.

OCTAVO CONGRESO PANAMERICANO DEL NIÑO  
WASHINGTON, D. C.  
Del 2 al 9 de mayo de 1942

TRABAJO sometido por:  
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Consejera de la Oficina Investigadora  
de la Situación de la Mujer y de los  
Menores Trabajadores, Secretaría del  
Trabajo y Previsión Social, México,  
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Sección II  
Educación y Recreo

ORIENTACIÓN, COLOCACIÓN Y VIGILANCIA DE LOS MENORES  
TRABAJADORES EN MÉXICO

(Resumen)

La orientación vocacional está aún en México en el período de preparación, pero en buenas vías de plena realización. La primera iniciativa se ha tomado en este asunto por las instituciones de Prevención Social y Asistencia Infantil, que han comprendido la importancia que tiene la elección de un oficio en la obra de preservación y regeneración moral de los menores material y moral mente abandonados, o en peligro moral. Queda aún por adaptar las posibilidades de colocación, a las indicaciones y resultados de los exámenes de orientación. La vigilancia de las condiciones de trabajo de los menores tiene un organismo perfecto en la Oficina Investigadora de la Situación de las Mujeres y de los Menores Trabajadores, dependencia de la Secretaría del Trabajo y Previsión Social, que tiene un cuerpo de inspección especializado y bien enterado de los problemas del trabajo de los adolescentes condición esencial para el control verdaderamente eficaz. Esta Oficina extiende progresivamente su campo de acción y trabaja en coordinación, cada vez más estrecha, con las otras dependencias encargadas de la protección de los menores en distintos aspectos, con la plena comprensión de la interdependencia de todos los problemas con los que se enfrentan cada una de estas dependencias.

Paper presented by:  
Mrs. Gudelia Gomez  
Federal Inspector of Labor  
Mexico

## VOCATIONAL TRAINING

(Resumé)

It is necessary to give a strong impulse to the groups of children, establishing all kinds of systems which will tend to interest them in out-of-door work as well as industrial work, so that they will be in condition to earn their livelihood.

For this purpose, it is proposed to the Honorable Assembly that the basic principle of this summary be strictly complied with, as well as the following norms and antecedents:

I. The promulgation of a Social Code that will exclusively consolidate the rights of the child and protect his condition until the time when he acquires responsibility for himself.

II. Strive for the establishment of school-workshops for Industrial Training where the children can obtain progressively the teaching and the economic technical training necessary for ordinary industrial work.

III. Stimulate the Business and Industrial companies to organize more carefully the apprenticeship, and to forbid the rendering of domestic work as part of an apprentice's duties.

IV. Guide and encourage vocational interests, organizing for this purpose Coordinating Committees that will strive to realize a technical form of teaching which will benefit both industry and the farmer.

OCTAVO CONGRESO PANAMERICANO DEL NIÑO  
WASHINGTON, D. C.  
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TRABAJO sometido por:  
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Inspectora Federal del Trabajo,  
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Menores Trabajadores, Secretaría  
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Sección II  
Educación y Recreo

PREPARACIÓN VOCACIONAL

(Resumen)

Precisa pues, dar un fuerte impulso a los grupos que constituyen los niños estableciendo toda clase de sistemas que tiendan a interesarlos en el trabajo del campo y de la industria, para ponerlos en condiciones de ganar la subsistencia.

Al efecto, la ponente se permite proponer a esa Honorable Asamblea, el estricto cumplimiento del postulado base de la presente, y, los siguientes puntos normativos y de resolución previa:-

I.- La promulgación de un Código Social que exclusivamente consolide los derechos del niño y proteja su condición hasta el momento de adquirir por sí mismo responsabilidad.

II.- Pugnar por el establecimiento de Escuelas-Talleres de Aprendizaje Industrial en donde los niños obtengan progresivamente la enseñanza y la técnica económica usual en las industrias más corrientes.

III.- Estimular a las Empresas Mercantiles e Industriales para organizar detalladamente el aprendizaje e impedir que la clasificación de aprendices incluya la prestación de trabajos domésticos.

IV.- Orientar e impulsar la tendencia vocacional, organizando para su efecto Comisiones de Coordinación que traten de realizar una forma técnica de enseñanza en beneficio de la industria y del campo.



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Paper prepared by:  
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Section II  
Education and  
Recreation.

PROGRESS IN THE CREATION OF EDUCATION AND RECREATION SERVICES  
FOR CHILDREN SINCE THE SEVENTH PAN AMERICAN CHILD CONGRESS

(Resumé)

1. That the Kindergartens be multiplied in number until not a single child be without its benefits.
2. That the education available in the Kindergartens be considered an undeniable base for the work of incorporating the native race.
3. That the happiness of the child must be borne in mind as a prerequisite in the harmonious development of his being.
4. That general attention must be given to the endowment of proper recreation for childhood.
5. That theater and movie managements must be persuaded to present programs appropriate for children.
6. That efforts be made so that radio programs will be presented which have been carefully selected for their educational and recreational value to children.
7. That children's literature be encouraged by every means possible.
8. That the creation of parks for children be promoted, and that these be absolutely limited, and their facilities be made available, to children only.
9. That the production of proper toys be stimulated, and that a national industry be made of this.
10. That the children's natural enjoyment for excursions and trips be developed, since these tend to broaden their concept of life and deepen their concept of humanity.

EIGHTH PAN AMERICAN CHILD CONGRESS  
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Paper prepared by  
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Section II  
Education and  
Recreation.

PSYCHIC-MEDICAL-PEDAGOGICAL COLLABORATION AS A BASIC FACTOR  
IN THE EDUCATION OF ABNORMAL CHILDREN

(Resumé)

1. That the problems of study, classification and orientation of abnormal children be given the importance that they deserve.
2. That National Medical-Pedagogical Institutes be established for the attention of abnormals working as: directing organism; selective center; investigation laboratory and school for specialized practice.
3. That the teachers of the Normal Schools be prepared with the proper knowledge of the mental anomaly of the child and the practical means for betterment.
4. To create, with specialization, the Profession of School Hygienists, establishing post-graduate courses of psychio-pedagogical studies in the Faculty of Medicine and in collaboration with the Schools of Pedagogy and Education.
5. To create special schools and the necessary establishments for the scientific attention to abnormal children.
6. That an intense social labor be developed in order to prevent and to combat irregularities in children.
7. That a close collaboration be maintained between the teacher, the physician and the psychologist in order to adapt the school to the necessities of the child, and to fight for the educational betterment of the modifiable abnormals until their redemption is obtained; the special instruction of the disabled; the care and guidance of delinquents; and all that constitutes a fraternal, altruistic and charitable human work, from which positive benefits to humanity will be derived.

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Paper prepared by  
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Section II  
Education and  
Recreation.

CONSIDERING THE SCHOOL AS CENTER FOR  
DIVULGING HYGIENIC PRINCIPLES

(Resumé)

1. Those dedicated to attention of children should mainly concentrate their task on educational aims.
2. Any means for divulging hygienic prophylactic rules is likely to render profitable results.
3. Even the youngest children should participate and enjoy the benefits of divulging campaigns.
4. The new methods practiced by the school's Hygiene Divulging Department, i.e. Children's Health Club, the Tests, and Unities of Work, undoubtedly constitute the most useful and efficient means.
5. The divulging work in schools is naturally projected toward homes, for which reason its benefits are artfully spread.
6. The hygienic campaign taught to children and mothers through the schools is, without doubt, the education of people by the children who as future men shall carry with them the seed to render a fruitful soil to humankind.

OCTAVO CONGRESO PANAMERICANO DEL NIÑO  
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TRABAJO sometido por:  
Sra. Elvira Alfonso y González  
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Nacional de Defensa del Niño de  
la República de Cuba.

Sección II  
Enseñanza y Recreo

BANCO PANAMERICANO DEL NIÑO

Fundación del Banco Panamericano del Niño. Funciones y cometidos del Banco:- Tendrá una Central y una Sucursal en cada República Americana, se ocupará de pagar en planteles o Universidades la educación, manutención y toda clase de necesidades del niño todo el tiempo que el Consejo Supremo de la Central haya marcado hasta la terminación de su educación, carrera u oficio.

El Banco debe tener fondos propios para cuyo caso se hace necesario la cooperación y el aporte de todos los capitales existentes en la América mediante un impuesto EN DEFENSA DEL NIÑO DE HOY Y EL CIUDADANO DEL MAÑANA, bases primordiales de la paz y progreso de nuestra seguridad Continental por medio de la formación desde su más próximo inicio del ciudadano.

Cada república deberá enviar la recaudación de dicho impuesto a la central, la cual a su vez, haciendo intercambios del aporte de los países, depositará a favor de cada sucursal, por partes iguales la cantidad destinada a pagar la educación del número de niños de cada lugar, previamente indicados por el Consejo Supremo Central, obteniendo por este medio el perfecto intercambio de servicios educacionales respondiendo exactamente este proyecto a la agenda del Temario del OCTAVO CONGRESO PANAMERICANO PARA LA NINEZ contenido en la SECCION SEGUNDA.- EDUCACION Y RECREACION. Punto 8, que dice así:- COOPERACION INTER-AMERICANA PARA EL FORTALECIMIENTO DE LOS SERVICIOS EDUCACIONALES Y RECREATIVOS.-

Como punto básico, será que el niño debe ser nacido en cualquier lugar del HEMISFERIO OCCIDENTAL y proceder de padres igualmente americanos; de no llenar estos requisitos, no podrá por ningún concepto ser admitido como aspirante a participar en el sorteo que llevará a cabo el Consejo Supremo para que pueda gozar de los beneficios que el Banco Panamericano del Niño le ofrecerá.

Esta ponencia deja en manos de la Presidencia y Superioridad de los Señores componentes del VIII Congreso Panamericano del Niño, los medios de viabilizar, si así lo tienen a bien este proyecto de acercamiento espiritual, material y de defensa indiscutible del Hemisferio Occidental que lleve a vías de realización la fundación del Banco Panamericano del Niño.

POR CUANTO:- En estos momentos en que estamos viviendo la tragedia incommensurable de los horrores de la guerra, debemos propiciar a toda costa cada día más la unión y defensa de nuestro Hemisferio, infiltrando desde la niñez en nuestros corazones el sentimiento de hermandad conviviendo conjuntamente y con todas las seguridades de un mejoramiento cultural para honrar y honra de nuestras naciones los niños de toda la América por medio del intercambio educacional que el BANCO PANAMERICANO DEL NIÑO ofrecerá desde cada una de sus Sucursales radicadas en las Repúblicas respectivas.

Al mismo tiempo, esta ponencia se sirve sugerir que por quien corresponda se sirva como el BANCO CENTRAL la ciudad de Washington.



