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***report of the committee for
differentiated education and guidance
with regard to a national pre-primary
educational programme for the
republic of south africa and
south-west africa - part II***

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SOUTH AFRICAN HUMAN SCIENCES RESEARCH COUNCIL

**REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE FOR DIFFERENTIATED
EDUCATION AND GUIDANCE WITH REGARD
TO A NATIONAL PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATIONAL
PROGRAMME FOR THE REPUBLIC OF
SOUTH AFRICA AND SOUTH-WEST AFRICA**

PART II

J. H. C. OOSTHUIZEN, B.A., M.Ed.

**INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH
DIRECTOR: J. B. HAASBROEK**

**PRETORIA
1971**

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REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE FOR DIFFERENTIATED EDUCATION AND GUIDANCE

TO THE CHAIRMAN OF THE CONTACT BODY, NATIONAL EDUCATION COUNCIL, PRETORIA,
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

The Committee for Differentiated Education and Guidance hereby submits Part II of its report to the Contact Body. This report is based on an investigation by the Human Sciences Research Council and deals with a pre-primary educational programme.

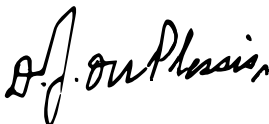
The Committee trusts that the discussion and conclusions appearing in this report will render a contribution to the effective organisation of the matters which were referred to it.

DR P.M. ROBBERTSE


CHAIRMAN

MEMBERS:

MR D.J. DU PLESSIS



DR N.J. HEYNS



PROF J.H. JOOSTE



DR J.C. GROENEWALD



DR G.A. HOSKING



MR D.J. COETZEE



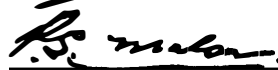
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SECRETARIAL SERVICES:

The Human Sciences Research Council's Institute for Educational Research rendered the secretarial services.

Committee for Differentiated Education and Guidance
Human Sciences Research Council,
PRETORIA.

26 August, 1969.

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Dr P.M. Robbertse	President, Human Sciences Research Council, Chairman.
Mr D.J. du Plessis	Deputy Director of Education, Department of Public Education, Cape of Good Hope.
Dr N.J. Heyns	Head, Psychological and Guidance Service, Department of Public Education, Cape of Good Hope.
Dr H.A. Coetzee	Head, Psychological Services, Natal Education Department.
Dr G.A. Hosking	Chief Education Planner, Natal Education Department.
Dr I.Z. Engelbrecht	Chief Inspector of Special Education, Department of Higher Education.
Mr D.J. Coetzee	Inspector of Education for Educational Research, Department of Education, Orange Free State.
Dr A.C. Böhmer	Chief Education Planner, Department of Education, Orange Free State.
Dr P.S. Malan	Chief Education Planner, Department of Education, South-West Africa.
Prof. J.H. Jooste	Deputy Director, Transvaal Education Department.
Dr J.C. Groenewald	Chief Education Planner, Specialised Services, Transvaal Education Department.

PERSONNEL OF THE HUMAN SCIENCES RESEARCH COUNCIL

Dr A.J. van Rooy	Vice-President
Mr J.B. Haasbroek	Director, Institute for Educational Research, Chief project leader.
Mr J.H.C. Oosthuizen	Head, Section for Surveys in European Schools.

T E R M S O F R E F E R E N C E

1. INTRODUCTION

Following a decision by the National Advisory Education Council (Now the National Education Council) that research was to be undertaken into differentiated education and guidance, it was agreed at a meeting of the Contact Body held on 6th August, 1964, to establish a "Reconnaissance Committee" under the chairmanship of the Director of the National Bureau of Educational and Social Research (now the President of the Human Sciences Research Council*) and comprising a senior official from each Education Department, and that this Committee would perform the following functions:

- "(a) to study the questions of differentiated education and guidance;
- (b) to determine what was already being done in these fields; and
- (c) to pinpoint the problems and to determine what research should still be undertaken before any steps were taken to evolve a mutually acceptable plan."¹⁾

The Committee met on 1st October, 1964, to discuss a memorandum dealing with the underlying principles of a system of differentiated education and guidance. The Committee decided that -

- "(a) an amended version of the memorandum together with a questionnaire should reach members' respective Departments on or before 8th October;
- (b) the Departments' replies should reach the Chairman on or before 30th October;
- (c) a Draft Report incorporating the replies received from all Departments would then be drawn up and circulated among the members as soon as possible; and
- (d) the next meeting of the Reconnaissance Committee was provisionally scheduled to take place on 9th November, 1964."²⁾

The second meeting of the Committee was held on 26th November, 1964, to discuss the report entitled "REPORT OF THE RECONNAISSANCE COMMITTEE WITH REGARD TO DIFFERENTIATED EDUCATION AND GUIDANCE IN THE REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA AND IN SOUTH-WEST AFRICA." The concluding remark in this report (par. 4, p. 22) is a concise statement of the conclusions of the Committee and reads as follows:

"As is apparent from the above report, all the education departments have not made the same progress in the field of differentiated education and the methods which are employed differ from each other in many respects. There is considerable agreement as to what should be understood by differentiated education, and all the education departments are convinced of the necessity of differentiated education. The differences come to the fore in its actual application. It is not possible at this stage to identify the problems for research with regard to a mutually acceptable plan, since the problems will crop up when such a mutual plan receives consideration. It appears to be desirable and essential to start the development of a mutual plan without delay." (Translation).

* The National Bureau of Educational and Social Research became the Human Sciences Research Council on 1st April, 1969.

- 1) Letter OR/M/1/3, dated 25.8.1964, from the National Advisory Education Council, Bureau correspondence file N/Y/118/3.
- 2) Minutes of the First Meeting of the Reconnaissance Committee for Differentiated Education and Guidance, par. 5.5, p. 2.

2. TERMS OF REFERENCE

The Committee submitted its report to the Contact Body and awaited further instructions. On 1st July, 1965, the Chairman of the National Advisory Education Council (now the National Education Council) wrote a letter to the Chairman of the Committee containing the terms of reference of the Contact Body and which read as follows:

"It was decided as recommended the Reconnaissance Committee should as a matter of urgency make an immediate start to evolve a system of differentiated education and a system of guidance for the Republic which would be acceptable to all education departments and to the National Advisory Education Council."¹⁾

3. IMPLICATIONS OF THE TERMS OF REFERENCE

The implications of the terms of reference are that consideration must be given to an educational system -

- (a) which will promote the aims of formative education as such;
- (b) in which the abilities, aptitudes and interests of the individual will be developed as far as possible and which will satisfy the needs of the domestic economy; and
- (c) in which a suitable guidance system will form an integral part of the educational system.

4. THE WORK PROGRAMME

In terms of the request by the National Advisory Education Council (now the National Education Council) that the National Bureau of Educational and Social Research (now the Human Sciences Research Council) should obtain the data required by the Committee²⁾, the Bureau drew up a memorandum dealing with a work programme for the execution of the terms of reference. On 7th December, 1965, this work programme was submitted to the Committee for discussion.

The work programme makes provision for research on pre-primary or pre-school education, primary education, secondary education and special education or education for handicapped pupils and for research on school guidance for the above-mentioned levels of education. The Committee will publish a report and make recommendations in respect of a national system of education for the Republic of South Africa and for South-West Africa on the strength of this research.

The Committee decided to approve the memorandum submitted, with the necessary amendments and additions, as its work programme³⁾ and the Committee agreed to approach its mandator with an exposition of how it interpreted its instructions.⁴⁾

5. MEETINGS HELD BY THE COMMITTEE

The Committee met on the following dates:

1st October, 1964, to discuss a memorandum dealing with the underlying principles of a system of differentiated education and guidance;

26th November, 1964, to discuss the report entitled "Report of the Reconnaissance Committee with regard to differentiated education and guidance in the Republic of South Africa and in South-West Africa";

1) Letter 5/3/2, dated 6.7.1965, from the National Advisory Education Council, Bureau correspondence file N/Y/118/3.

2) Letter OR/M/1/3, dated 25.9.1964, from the National Advisory Education Council, Bureau correspondence file N/Y/118/3.

3) and 4) Minutes of the Third Meeting of the Reconnaissance Committee (7.12.1965), par. 5.3.1 and 5.3.2 respectively.

- 7th December, 1965, to approve the work programme for the execution of the terms of reference;
- 28th June, 1967, to discuss the report, "A Preliminary Study on differentiated secondary education";
- 25th and 26th October, 1967, to approve Part I of its report with regard to the underlying principles of differentiation and differentiated education for submission to the Contact Body, as well as to discuss a possible system of differentiated secondary education for the country;
- from 22nd to 26th April, 1968, to discuss Part II of its report on a national system of education at secondary educational level, as well as Part III of its report on a national school guidance service;
- from 20th to 22nd November, 1968, to discuss Part V of its report on a national system of education at primary educational level, as well as Part VI of its report on a national school guidance service for the primary school;
- 26th August, 1969, to discuss Part IV of its report on educational planning on a national basis to keep pace with the manpower requirements in the vocational sphere, as well as to approve the publication and release of the report in which the above-mentioned 6 parts are integrated into one report;
- 17th to 19th November, 1969, to discuss Part VII of its report on pre-primary education.

6. RESEARCH UNDERTAKEN BY THE HUMAN SCIENCES RESEARCH COUNCIL

6.1 RESEARCH PROJECTS

The Institute for Educational Research of the Human Sciences Research Council used the work programme which was approved by the Committee as a basis to initiate research projects to enable the Committee to carry out its terms of reference. The systems of education, as well as the school guidance systems at primary and secondary education level of overseas countries, the Republic of South Africa and of South-West Africa were investigated. A thorough literature study of relevant publications was made. Data which were supplied on request to the Human Sciences Research Council by education departments or overseas authorities were also explored.

The following research projects were undertaken by the Institute for Educational Research in order to enable it to publish a report on a national system of education at pre-primary, primary and secondary educational level with school guidance as an integrated service in the system of education and on educational planning on a national basis to keep pace with the manpower requirements in the vocational sphere:

- (1) The underlying principles of differentiation and differentiated education.
- (2) The language medium (medium of instruction) in a national system of education.
- (3) A study of differentiated primary education in certain overseas countries.
- (4) A study of differentiated primary education in the Republic of South Africa and South-West Africa.
- (5) A study of certain aspects of differentiated secondary education in overseas countries.
- (6) An investigation into differentiated secondary education in the Republic of South Africa and in South-West Africa, with reference to specific problems which are encountered.
- (7) Systems of examining at secondary educational level in overseas countries, the Republic of South Africa and in South-West Africa.
- (8) The establishing of a basis for a national school guidance service, with reference to aims and terminology.

- (9) An investigation into the school guidance systems at primary educational level of the education departments in the Republic of South Africa and in South-West Africa.
- (10) A study of guidance systems at primary educational level in overseas countries.
- (11) An investigation into the guidance systems at secondary educational level of the education departments in the Republic of South Africa and in South-West Africa.
- (12) A study of the guidance systems at secondary educational level in overseas countries.
- (13) The training of school guidance officers in the Republic of South Africa and in certain overseas countries.
- (14) Educational planning to keep pace with the manpower requirements in the vocational sphere.
- (15) A study of pre-primary education in overseas countries and in the Republic of South Africa.

On the strength of these research projects seven reports were drawn up for discussion by the Committee at its meetings. The approved reports were sent to the National Education Council and the Contact Body after each meeting.

6.2 PERSONNEL OF THE INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

The research was undertaken by the following researchers:

Mr. J.B. Haasbroek, Director, Institute for Educational Research, Chief Project Leader.

Mr. J.H.C. Oosthuizen, Assistant Director, Institute for Educational Research, responsible for the report on a national system of education at primary school level.

7. THE PRESENT REPORT

The present report gives a review of pre-primary education in certain overseas countries, in the Republic of South Africa and in South-West Africa. Organised pre-primary education as a component of the planned national system of education is discussed in Chapter One. Chapter Two deals with the demanding nature of the times in which we live, the greater demands which this imposes upon pre-school children and the limitations to which they are consequently subjected. Chapter Three sketches worldwide trends regarding organised pre-primary education with particular reference to the Republic of South Africa and to South-West Africa. The reasons for the necessity of pre-primary educational institutions are given in Chapter Four of this report and a national system of pre-primary education is recommended.

8. ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The Committee wishes to thank the Human Sciences Research Council and the personnel of the Institute for Educational Research for the research which was undertaken to enable the Committee to carry out its terms of reference. The co-operation of the local and overseas education authorities is highly appreciated.

CHAPTER 1

ORGANISED PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION AS A COMPONENT OF THE PLANNED NATIONAL SYSTEM OF DIFFERENTIATED EDUCATION

1.1 INTRODUCTORY

The concept formative and formal education, the aim which is striven for through formative education or educational moulding, as well as the shared task allocated to the home and the school in this context, have already been formulated as follows:

"Formal and formative education can justifiably be characterised as one procedure with two distinguishable elements which can however never be separated. The objective which is striven for through the medium of formative education, or educational moulding, is to lead the child to full-fledged adulthood. The adulthood spoken of here does not in any way indicate the attainment of a specific stage of development, but refers purely to meaningful existence as a person. It is obvious that it is impossible for any child to arrive at a meaningful human existence by himself and without receiving the support of adults. Moreover, there is no such thing as an immediate or direct breakthrough to a meaningful existence as an adult. However, this breakthrough to adulthood, which will of necessity have to take place gradually, can be greatly facilitated for the child if he receives adequate support from adults and provided that he is accompanied along a specific path, with the use of specific methods of presentation, learning methods and learning media.

The giving of support to the child in his progression towards adulthood is primarily the task of the parental home in the pre-school period, after which the primary and thereafter the secondary school assumes part of the responsibility and carries it to greater heights than those of which the average home is capable.

In striving to reach the objective of all formal and formative education, the family, the primary school and the secondary school each has a specific and unique task to fulfil" (1, p. 46) (translation).

1.2 STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

Where, in the formulation above and also by society generally, it is commonly accepted that the care and upbringing of the pre-school child is the task of the parental home, the question immediately arises as to whether there is any justification for the phenomena, care centre for pre-school children, nursery school, kindergarten and so on.

If each parental home, as the naturally determined and therefore God-given place in which the aptitude, powers and potential of the young, budding human life can be unfurled in the best and most beautiful way, were to fulfil its training and caring function properly, there would obviously be no necessity for organised care of pre-schoolers in care centres, nursery schools or kindergartens. However, should the dedication and efficacy with which the family fulfils its training and caring task in present times be doubted, the question immediately arises as to whether some form of organised supervision of pre-schoolers should serve as a pedagogical supplement to each child's family upbringing, even if this were only to take place for a few hours each day or a few days each week. If the care of the normal pre-schooler in present times should reveal deficiencies as a result of the definite structural change which the family has undergone during the past few decades as a result of economic and social trends, one could, without underestimating the basic meaning and function of the family in rearing pre-schoolers, make out a case for establishing an institution which could render an auxiliary pedagogical service and which, in certain respects, could possibly offer the growing child more than the average family is capable of doing.

Even if the average family were to perceive the need for a pre-school auxiliary education service, and the community were to welcome its establishment, the instituting of pre-school care centres would only be pedagogically justifiable if it also appeared so in the light of the pre-schooler's world. Finality will have to be reached, among other things, on how the institution of a care centre for pre-schoolers or a nursery school shows up on the child's landscape, and on the necessity or otherwise for institutions which function in a supplementary capacity with regard to the rearing function which in the past was traditionally and exclusively fulfilled at pre-school level by the family. Answers to these questions will have to be sought on the basis of a reconnaissance of -

- (1) the world of the pre-schooler and the manner in which he experiences and gives meaning to the world in which he lives;
- (2) the extremely demanding nature of the times in which we live today, the greater demands which this also imposes on pre-schoolers, and the consequent limitations to which they are subjected; and
- (3) the capacity or incapacity of the family to provide for all the needs of the growing child.

1.3 MAN'S WORLD OF EXPERIENCE, AND MORE PARTICULARLY THAT OF THE CHILD

The child's world is different to that of the adult

That the world-picture of the child and particularly the very young child is very different to that of the adult is a fact which will be corroborated by anyone who is concerned with children in any field. As one knows, the adult can move freely in a room without fear of bumping his head against a table while the pre-schooler will definitely encounter such a possibility. His world is different - and that in no way implies that his world is a lesser one than the adult's. In the most literal sense of the word, the young child "stands" differently in the world than does the adult. In consequence, the adult finds it difficult to grasp the nature of the child's way of life. However, it is precisely a thorough understanding of the child's world of experience that is a pre-requisite, indeed an absolute proviso for purposeful and directed rendering of aid. Although the adult naturally feels attracted to the young child because of the latter's candour, dependence and originality and although the adult sympathises with the picture of man which he observes in the pre-schooler, it must nevertheless be admitted that the answers to many of the adult's questions about the "how" and "why" in the pre-schooler's existence remain shrouded in mystery.

The best and probably only way in which the adult can become acquainted with the child's picture of the world is by close scrutiny of the discoveries which the child makes. This scrutiny includes seeing, hearing and understanding how children relate to things, animals and people in order thereby to determine what discoveries they make. On the basis of these observations and conclusions, the adult can fairly accurately determine how the child sees the world.

1.4 MAN AND THE WORLD AS MUTUALLY CONSTITUTIVE CONCEPTS

The earliest basic characteristic of man's existence is his presence in the world. To mention man is to imply "world" and a reference to the world simultaneously implies "man". In other words, this relation between man and the world is so innate that it would be erroneous to isolate man from his world. Should this indeed happen, man then ceases to be a unique person in the world (2, p. 3). To man (in contrast to animals) the world at issue here is not a conglomeration of objects as described in the language of the natural sciences. Similarly, the consciousness of the human child is by no means an echoing representation thereof.

The world is man's abode, his home, the actualisation of his subjectivity (2, p. 3). Man perceives and experiences his world, explores it, experiments with and gives meaning to what he finds in it. Man, unlike animals, lives in an "open" world, a world with a great many possibilities. He can give meaning to things and experiences. By giving meaning to things he transforms the world into his world - he shapes the world to his own satisfaction, so that for him there is no such thing as the world but only my/his personal world (3, p. 14).

1.5 MAN'S PICTURE OF THE WORLD

Each person sees his world in his own way because his experience of it is different to anyone else's and he therefore retains a personal picture of the world. The question of the world-picture of adult or child is therefore closely related to the question of how the adult or child sees the world. No two people see the world in the same way and their pictures of the world differ accordingly. How man sees the world does not merely depend on what the world is like, but also on what man is like. In other words, it depends on his experiences, views, convictions, feelings and aspirations. Moreover, a person's picture of the world does not only depend on what he sees in the world but on what he thinks of that which he sees and on how he represents the world to himself. Furthermore, this is also determined by what he feels about the world and by what he seeks and strives after. "Man" and "world" thus become two concepts which are closely connected and actually constitute one another (3, p. 12).

The picture which people have of the world at a given moment also depends on how the people are feeling at that time, whether their prospects are good or bad, et cetera. Moreover, the person's picture of the world, or indeed the manner in which he sees the world, is not static but continues to evolve as new things are experienced, new horizons unfold and new perspectives emerge so that, for example, people might, in a few years' time, have a completely different view of the world than is now the case. The world-picture of the adult is thus continually acquiring more content; it becomes spiritualised - the incidental, the fortuitous, the relative, are not as highly regarded as the essential. The adult nonetheless possesses throughout a fairly permanent, stable picture of the world, precisely because he is an adult and not as susceptible to new impressions and experiences.

1.6 THE EVOLVING, RAPIDLY CHANGING WORLD-PICTURE OF THE CHILD

In contrast to the more stable world-picture of the adult, the child's world-picture is still predominantly evolutive, far more prone to change and growth because the child is still in the process of becoming a person. The child is still engaged in discovering his world and each discovery enriches his outlook on the world. One can thus speak of a child having a world-picture which is continually coming into being. The child, like the adult, is engaged in exploring and giving meaning to the world.

According to Van der Linde (3, p. 15) the essence of all formal and formative education lies in the adult's helping the child to explore the world until the latter (who has, in the meanwhile, matured) can manage this on his own. For that reason, says Van der Linde, every person is an explorer because he must sally forth and discover a new world. As this voyage of exploration progresses, one's world-picture develops accordingly. The child still stands on the threshold of this great exploratory journey. "The question of the world-picture of the child is therefore actually the question of the description of the exploratory journey which the growing person must undertake in order to achieve the world-picture of man, i.e. adulthood" (3, p. 16)(translation).

1.7 CHARACTERISTICS OF THE HUMAN WORLD-PICTURE IN GENERAL AND OF THE CHILDLIKE WORLD-PICTURE IN PARTICULAR (3, p. 15)

The characteristics of the human world-picture can be summarised as follows:

- (1) The world-picture depends entirely on the individual, so that each person has his own view of the world.
- (2) The world-picture is very strongly influenced by the individual's state of mind at a given moment, so that the world will be illuminated by the individual in a constantly varying manner.
- (3) The world-picture of the child will change radically because it is continually evolving, growing and developing.
- (4) Man's world-picture is strongly characterised by his "open" existence.
- (5) The world-picture is constituted by a number of discoveries.

1.8 DELIBERATION ON WHETHER OR NOT IT WOULD BE MEANINGFUL TO ATTEMPT TO FORMULATE SEPARATE WORLD-PICTURES FOR THE PRE-SCHOOL PHASE, THE SCHOOLCHILD PHASE AND PUBERTY INSTEAD OF ESTABLISHING A GENERALLY APPLICABLE CHILDLIKE WORLD-PICTURE

1.8.1 Introductory

Since this chapter deals with the interests and needs of the pre-school child, it would seem apposite to deal specifically with the world-picture of the pre-schooler rather than a generally applicable childlike world picture, working on the supposition that a world-picture, which can simply be formulated, emerges for each of the pre-school, schoolchild and puberty phases. However, such an argument would seem to be an oversimplification of the problem. Each of the periods named contains far more delicate nuances. The pre-school period, which in its turn can be divided into the newborn, infant, toddler and pre-school phases, can serve as an example of this. (The newborn and infant phases extend approximately from birth to 2 years, the toddler phase from 2-3 years and the nursery phase from 3-6 years). The child obviously has a personal world-picture during each of these phases. The danger is that childhood is divided into so many phases that the investigator may become confused and badly misinterpret the child's voyage of discovery through life. In addition, there are certain elements or principles which will function in each phase of the child's exploratory journey.

Thus, rather than dividing into phases the exploratory journey of the person progressing towards adulthood, attention should be devoted to the main elements or general principles which not only render his behaviour in each phase explicable, but which make an essential contribution to the constitution of his world-picture.

1.8.2 Main elements or general principles governing the world-picture of the child

According to Langeveld, the following elements and principles are distinguishable:

- (1) The biological element;
- (2) the principle of helplessness;
- (3) the principle of security; and
- (4) the principle of exploration (4, p. 62 et seq.).

For the purposes of this exposition the second and third elements can be summarised as "from helplessness to security", while the fourth element can be described as "through exploration to emancipation".

1.8.3 A short exposition of the main elements and principles and the contribution which they can make to the constitution of a personal world-picture

(a) The biological element

The child actually makes the acquaintance of the world for the first time at birth. Every child who is born makes his physical entry into the world in doing so. For the first time he makes physical contact with this world, this earth, climate, cradle, these blankets and with the adults who surround him. Thus, for the first time, he experiences the world from his physical being and through his physical presence in it. Admittedly, at this stage only a very small portion of the world is experienced by his physical being. However, as the body develops and the biologically determined growth takes its normal course, he is given the opportunity of experiencing an increasingly large part of the world.

By reason of its physiochemical composition, the body, as a physiochemical entity, is orientated towards and dependent upon care, to wit, feeding, cleaning, clothing, prevention of illness and exercise, if the biologically determined development is to take its normal course. If anything were lacking in this care, or if there were any malfunction of physiological processes or organic defects such as brain damage or a malfunctioning of certain glands, this would handicap the child's physiological development and his exploration of the world. Motor development, which in increasing measure enables the child to reconnoitre his immediate world, is also closely correlated to biological growth. Should the child reveal retardation in his sitting, crawling and walking movements because of defective reflex development, muscle development or co-ordination, his reconnaissance of the world would be limited and damaged thereby. Healthy biological growth is thus of the utmost importance to the child because he must establish his own world on the basis of it and arrive at the formulation of a personal world-picture. Since the child, in his creation, in his progression, in his reconnaissance of the world, is continually involved as a physical-psychic-spiritual totality, any abnormal occurrence in his biological development will also affect other elements, among which is his experience of security as well as his desire for exploration.

(b) From helplessness to security

In comparison with the young animal which is less helpless at birth and becomes independent far sooner, the child is utterly helpless and initially entirely dependent upon the mercy of others. It is precisely this helplessness of the child which directs a strong appeal for help and support to others (adults) as aides. In the first instance, this appeal is directed to the mother on the strength of her natural biological ties with the child. This demands of her a preparedness to accept the child as he is and to care for him lovingly as regards feeding, clothing and cleansing, among other things. Next to the mother, however, the father and other adults are also called upon for help.

Loving care of the child is of great importance to his affective moulding as well as his emotional moulding in general. The acceptance and loving care experienced by the young child make him feel safe and protected in what is, for him, still a largely unfamiliar world.

From the very beginning the child, as an "openness", as one directed towards and open to a fellow human being, enjoys a relationship with his mother and later with other adults as well. The affective relation which thus originates between child and adult is proof of mutual acceptance. This relationship offers the child his first toe-hold and certainty in his constitution of the world. On the strength of the trust which he

places in the adult as an aide and on the strength of the help and support which the adult gives him, he gradually overcomes his uncertainty and helplessness and achieves security. To the child, this relationship with his parents and other adults is a symbol of the world's attitude towards him and according to this he also determines his attitude towards the world.

If, in his first encounters with adults, he has acquired the necessary self-assurance, he will confidently enter the world to investigate it and make it his own. However, should he initially experience the opposite, it may happen that he will withdraw from the world and refuse to explore it because he lacks self-confidence and feels insecure.

(i) Factors which can impede a harmonious transition from helplessness to security

The necessity for a harmonious transition from helplessness to security should be strongly emphasised. An emotionally warm relationship between child and parents ensures stability in the emotional impressions which the child has of his parents, while an emotionally impoverished upbringing will leave the child with a feeling of insecurity, will cause him to tarry in the stage of helplessness and even return to it. An impoverished upbringing leads to affective neglect, precluding the child from receiving stable emotional impressions from his relationship with his parents.

The following are some examples of the disturbed relationships which function within the family and which can lead to affective neglect:

- (1) An excessively strong bond between parent and child, in other words pampering and over-protection;
- (2) repudiation or rejection of the child by one or both of the parents;
- (3) uneasy marital relationships;
- (4) ambivalent emotional relations between parent(s) and child (which attract as well as repel);
- (5) family incompleteness, i.e. absence of one or both of the parents as a result of death, divorce or working obligations (working mothers);
- (6) an excessively strict upbringing; and
- (7) an upbringing which lacks authority, and inconsistency in the relationships involved in this upbringing (5, p. 13).

(ii) By way of summary

The transition from helplessness to security is a gradual process accompanied by the help and support of the adult. As soon as a child feels safe and protected, i.e. no longer reliant on his helplessness, he is capable of laying himself open to the world. This in turn renders him capable of entering into open communication with the world. A child who feels secure is capable of orientating himself towards the world and thus of going to meet or venturing into it. He thus progresses to establishing or constituting his own world and concentrates in increasing measure upon the more abstract world of symbols and language. With the discovery of language, he possesses an important means of acquiring greater security and is able to give meaning to his new discoveries.

(c) Through exploration to emancipation

All the elements and principles thus far described are contributory to the development of the world-picture of the child. The child whose biological development has been normal, who enjoys an affectively warm relationship with his parents and other adults, who feels secure and protected and who can count on the support of adults, enters upon an exploratory expedition into the world with great alacrity. Only by personally exploring the world can one become acquainted with it and arrive at a personal world-picture.

(i) Fields which the child must discover in his exploratory journey and discoveries which he must assimilate

In his exploratory journey through the world, the young child enters many fields and makes all sorts of discoveries, among which are the following:

(1) The discovery that there is a world and that he has a certain place in it

The child rapidly finds out that there is a world. In addition, he discovers

that he is not alone in the world and above all, that he is not the focal point of everything. The small child is initially self-centred (egocentric) and sees and experiences only that part of the world which is of interest to him and only in so far as it is of importance to him. Only from the point of view of his own desires and needs does he give meaning to the world.

When the realisation penetrates that one not only needs others but can also mean something to them, homocentrism has already broken through the child's initial egocentrism. Later comes the realisation that one is not only dependent upon one's fellow-men and they on you, but that all men are also dependent upon a Higher Being (3, p. 17, 18).

(2) The discovery and classification of the interminable variety of objects in the world

The child enters a world in which the adult has already divided everything which surrounds him into inanimate and animate things while in turn the living things have been divided into plants, animals and people. The child as yet has absolutely no conception of this process of differentiation and he must gradually arrive at a classification. Because a child observes physiognomically, i.e. determines the nature of an object by its outward appearance, a bouncing ball or rolling wheel may appear more vibrant to him than a static aloe. If he should scratch himself on the plant's thorns, he sometimes accords human characteristics to the plant by imagining that the plant hurts him because it is annoyed with him for some reason. Eventually the child emerges from this confusion through discovering the characteristics of things and beginning to differentiate between people, animals, plants and "dead" things or objects. The child does not accomplish this classification easily and asks many questions by way of orientating himself.

(3) The discovery of and entry into the world of phantasy

The adult departs from stark reality into phantasy and creates an ideal world for himself, while the child creates a phantasy because he cannot do otherwise. The child's phantasy is partly due to the fact that he observes physiognomically in the sense of "experiencing everything as lived" and that he attaches certain characteristics to objects on the strength of appearance. The child who feels secure and protected will carry his phantasy over into the highest form of childlike play, to wit illusory play.

(4) The discovery and discernment of the differences between the sexes

The child first experiences the difference between the sexes by perceiving that the mother is different to the father and that sisters are and act differently to brothers. He thus begins to draw a distinction between the sexes and learns that he needs different methods of approach in his dialogic dealings with the two sexes.

(5) The discovery of and subjection to norms

In his dealings with animals, people and objects, the child becomes acquainted with their characteristics. Thus he learns that objects have specific characteristics and that people live according to certain norms and have certain habits which he must take into account and to which he must subject himself. He learns, therefore, that he cannot merely do as he pleases but must comply with certain norms, such as the following, among others: eat nicely; not sit with his feet on a chair; and be obedient. Because he also receives instructions which he must carry out, he eventually realises that life also makes demands on him and that this is an obligation which he must fulfil.

(ii) Summary

The discoveries discussed above and the fields which are covered cannot be localised in particular stages of the child's existence because many of these discoveries take place gradually. The child is prepared to venture upon this voyage of discovery because, in the words of Langeveld: "... a child is someone who would very much like to be someone". The exploring child continually progresses to the establishment of a new world of meaning and to giving meaning to his own world. He constantly encounters new situations, expands his horizon, constitutes and sculpts a new world for himself. In this way he starts off on the road to becoming someone, he is himself involved in and co-responsible for his crystallisation, emancipates himself and shares in his own emancipation (5, p. 14).

1.9 AIDS WHICH ASSIST THE CHILD IN DESIGNING HIS OWN WORLD PICTURE

1.9.1 The two most important aids, to wit, childish play and language

In his exploratory journey through the world, on the strength of which he establishes a world of his own, the child employs two aids, i.e. play and language, as the means to discovery and classification.

1.9.2 The meaning and function of play as an aid

(a) Introductory

It is generally assumed that the world of childhood and particularly the world of the pre-schooler is still mainly one of play - a world in which there is little thought of a structure of responsibility. The way in which a child occupies himself with the things of his world can only be described as play.

Speaking of play, Nel writes as follows: "The most modern conception of play is that it is the way in which the child deals with things in his reconnaissance of the world. It is the way in which he communicates with his own little world. This is not bound by time and an aim as is the accomplishment of work. There is no real beginning or ending to it but it is nevertheless a serious occupation. On the one hand, the child is actually driven to occupy himself with the things of the world and takes delight in it when he embarks upon it. He must, therefore, explore these things and his manner of dealing with them constitutes his play. On the other hand, the things of the world have a certain allurements. They invite the child not only to communicate, to be occupied or to play, but also to play in a certain manner" (6, p. 54)(translation).

"It is important to emphasize that the child who associates in a specific manner with the things of the world, i.e. his playthings, constantly discovers new relationships and possibilities in them" (6, p. 54, 55)(translation).

(b) Aspects of the child at play

In an analysis of childish play and particularly of the young child, Bladergroen distinguishes the following aspects or elements:

(1) Functional play

Play has a functional significance in early childhood when the child has yet to learn to direct and control his movements and to use his senses in co-ordination. During this period, when the child practises his functions in a "playful" manner, the main stress falls upon movement, whether in the form of spontaneous movement or by copying observed movement.

Functional play initially develops in the mother-child relationship. The mother plays a decisive role in the origin of functional play. Without her encouragement, without her coaxing of the childish reaction in her contact with him, the child would hardly progress to functional play. The child's first functional toys are the mother's body and his own body. In addition he is brought into contact with toys such as a rattle or a string of multi-coloured, tinkling objects. Thus the child is led by the adult to the objects with which he must learn to associate. Playmate and toys are the two directing factors in the development of play. The urge to activity which is natural to the child interacts with the factors named and is guided and transformed into playing, exploring, deliberate actions (7, p. 91, 92).

In functional forms of play, one sees how the child learns and develops. If the concept "function" is not limited to fairly simple sensory-motor actions but extends to all sorts of behavioural structures requiring repeated practice, one can justifiably state that functional practice takes place throughout childhood although on continually higher levels. The child at play who repeats fixed forms of play, assimilates behavioural norms in doing so and establishes individual and social patterns of behaviour which are of assistance in learning to control situations which arise in life (7, p. 92).

(2) Experimental play: the child and the objects

The functional play mentioned above is soon followed by experimental preoccupation. The child investigates everything that he encounters, with the aid of his senses of touch and sight. The touching-looking-manipulating engrossment is particularly striking in the second year of life. By that time the child is already more mobile and can, by virtue of crawling or walking, make the acquaintance of space

and the world of objects. Three levels of development can be distinguished in the child's reconnoitring and experimenting activity:

- a. In the beginning, touching and manipulating constitute a definite form of getting acquainted with the qualities of the object. The child grasps objects with his hands, probes them with his fingers, feels them with his mouth and looks at them in scanning eye movements. The objects have no symbolic value as yet and are only objects for throwing, swinging, licking or feeling and are experienced as manageable, enclosable, smooth and prickly, among other things.
- b. The realisation that objects vary gradually increases. Objects which are variable, i.e. can appear, disappear or change (for example by breakage) arouse great interest. Games of appearance and disappearance are played with great enthusiasm. Thus, for example, all objects are thrown away or broken where breakable. The change which thus occurs arouses wonderment and invites repetition. The human child is engaged in making a fundamental discovery concerning the variability and transformability of the world. In addition, the realisation penetrates that he can shape the world according to his needs, that he can change and make things.

It is of the greatest importance that the child be given access to materials which are transformable. Sand, water, clay and objects to fill, empty, stack or discard give him the opportunity of alternating between destructive play and his own still primitive forms of constructive play.

Man is placed in a material world of earth and water - with these basic materials he has created an environment for himself within which he feels protected and can live in reasonable comfort. In experimental play, the small child discovers the possibilities which lie within himself and within these things. The opportunity of experimentally becoming acquainted with himself and these things should not be denied to any child, even if he is born and must live on the top floor of a towering block of flats. Even these children (and there are tens of thousands of them) should have access to sand, water and clay as playthings.

- c. The child gradually progresses to constructive play and in doing so attains a purely human level of play. The constructive play takes place on still higher levels - for instance the block formations take on the form of houses. There is an increasing tendency to form a plan or set a target and work according to it. The preparedness to strive after the voluntary goal set in the course of play is of great importance if one considers the demands which will be imposed upon the child at school to strive after an aim which has been determined by adults (7, p. 93-99).

(3) Imitative games

The ability to imitate is fundamental to the child's growing up or becoming a human being. As a result of the ability to imitate, the child develops his specifically human forms of behaviour. Two forms of imitation are distinguished:

- a. Self-mimicry, where the child becomes aware of the effect of an action of his own and is thereby encouraged to repeat it imitatively, for example in the imitative repetition of his own gurgles.
- b. Imitation of other persons: the child imitates sounds made by adults and in this way learns his mother tongue. He also imitates mouth movements and thus achieves articulation of linguistic sounds. He imitates movements and expressions which thereby derive meaning for him.

Imitation must be seen as a bridge between the outside world and the child. By imitation the child makes the outer world his own - in the reflection lies the possibility of identification and therein that of learning to know and understand. It is implicit in the imitation of movements and sounds that all the characteristics of the things be noticed and digested and, by this means, the things are then reproduced and symbolised. As a result of imitation the child becomes familiar with the outer world and fits in with it. Moreover, the child identifies himself with the world and with what occurs therein.

In imitative play the child gives expression, in his own way, to what he has experienced. He reproduces that part of reality which has made the greatest impression on him. This form of play gives an indication of how the child experiences reality and that which is important to him therein. Imitation helps the child to find his way through the encircling reality (7, p. 99, 100).

(4) Play involving phantasy

The small child experiences the realities of the adult world in a different dimension and because he cannot control reality with his small body, he approaches it from the point of view of phantasy. He sees and experiences the world differently to the adult. He assimilates his impressions in his own way, gives them a personal, subjectively coloured meaning and colours them with his own wishes, desires and emotions.

In this way the child creates a world which can be controlled by him in phantasy - an illusory play world in which he is the master and can make anything happen. In this play world he unravels his problems and seeks a grip on the world he has created for himself. In the world of phantasy the child creates the possibility of experiencing the wonder, the marvel, the unexpected, the unlimited possibilities. Play involving phantasy is necessary, because in it the child discovers his fancied world, examines his experiences, gives substance to his emotions and becomes acquainted with the values of experience. The adult can stimulate the unfurling of this phantasy by making provision for the child's need to look at pictures, sing songs and listen to stories. The supernatural, mystery, tension and anxiety are components of the phantasy world in which the child becomes conscious of his inner experiences (7, p. 100-102).

(5) Social play

Social play, as it crystallises in the course of playing with other children, only becomes apparent in the pre-school stage. Prior to that it is more a case of being together, which is indeed felt to be fun but shows few signs of true contact. The children merely play with the objects that are at hand.

Even the other child is made into an object by seeing a nose, ear or hand as something quaint to be tweaked or pushed.

Even in the pre-school stage, children find it difficult to play together with, for example, construction material. The best joint games and contact take place when they play a role together, for example, housie-housie or school-school. True communication, even in conversations, takes place only sporadically, since children tend to indulge in monologues in each other's presence (7, p. 102).

(c) Summary

- (i) The child's playful approach to the world is his way of getting on with the world and exploring it. Through constant play he achieves an individual attitude regarding the world and arrives at the constitution of a personal world-picture. Every facet of childish play should come into its own, because of the essential function which it fulfils and the material contribution which it makes in respect of the child's exploration of the world and his attitude in present times.
- (ii) Finality will have to be reached on the troublesome question of whether the interests of the child have not perhaps, in this century which is still generally stamped as the "century of the child", become hopelessly repressed by the economic and material considerations which have so completely taken control of the present way of life. In present times, is sufficient attention paid to the fact that the childish mode of existence is precisely a playing mode of existence? Does the highly specialised and cultivated world in which we live not intrude upon childish play?
- (iii) Taking into account the fact that the child may not play or experiment with most of the objects which he encounters in his home, are there still sufficient possibilities for discovery remaining in the domestic sphere?
- (iv) What effect does the lack of room to play in, arising from the heavy concentration of population in our cities and the accumulation of residential units in towering flat complexes, have on the child's pattern of play and his exploration of the world?

These and similar problems will be elucidated and considered in the paragraph dealing with the demanding nature of the times in which we live and the effect which this will inevitably have on growing children.

1.9.3 The meaning of language as a tool in the childish voyage of exploration through the world

(a) Introductory

The use of language is one of the most characteristic human functions - one which not only distinguishes man from animals, but also distinguishes between man and man (2, p. 3, 4). Nevertheless, the child enters the world as a being without a language, possessing no competence in language. However, the Creator gave man, but not animals, the ability to articulate and to use the language which thus originates as an aid to communication. In his dependence upon an adult, the child is called upon to speak in his association with adults. He must be able to make himself understood to his fellow-man in order to be able to exist as a full-fledged individual.

With a view to mastering the form systems in the encircling world, it is demanded of the child that he acquire language. This learning occurrence starts in about the twelfth month of life and within the first three to four years the child acquires a complicated system of linguistic habits - an achievement which he seldom thereafter equals (2, p. 4). The child progresses gradually from egocentric speech (with himself about his own belongings) to socialized speech (with others) which serves as a basis for a complete dialogic existence (2, p. 4).

Language is thus the basic prerequisite for the spiritual blossoming of the child, since without it very little would come of the upbringing and educative concern by which the adult wishes to bring the child to full-fledged adulthood. Language is the medium through which the higher intellectual functions find expression; it is the indispensable means of social intercourse among people; it is the peculiarly human achievement which cannot be attained by any other creature on earth (2, p. 4). It is the only and also the most complete way in which man can give meaning to his world - a way in which he can lay his world open to others and through which he can enter that of others.

(b) Spoken language as a many-sided, peculiarly human instrument

Verboon calls spoken language a specifically human tool (3, p. 38, 39). Language distinguishes itself from other tools in that its potential for application and its possible fields are practically unlimited. As a tool, it is so usable that, with it, man can quite easily surmount concrete reality. With language, man can bridge both time and space by establishing the presence, in a symbolic sense, of everything which is not here and not now.

(c) Ways in which language can facilitate a child's exploratory journey through the world

The employment of this many-sided, specifically human tool facilitates the child's exploratory journey through the world since it renders him capable of the following:

(1) The child can draw on others' experience of life

By means of language the child "stands on the shoulders of the previous generation" (3, p. 39). Because he possesses language, man can quote from his own experience of life for the benefit of anyone who cares to listen. By drawing on this accumulated knowledge and experience the succeeding generation can begin where the previous generation ended and thus one can say that man undergoes a continually cumulative progress and development, the end of which is not at present in sight.

(2) The child can develop as a social being

By reason of the opportunities for contact which language offers, the child can make spiritual contact with others. Spiritual contact can only come about between beings who possess language, since the spiritual exists only in and through abstractions. Contact with one's fellow-man creates the possibility of gaining entry to the social order as a social being.

(3) The child can arrive at a normated mode of existence

Man's symbolic language also enables him to live as a moral being. Man would not be able to act upon the abstractions which we call norms unless he could render these norms manageable by sound or sign. Language enables one to test all human actions on the basis of the norm or law and to designate them as good or bad.

(4) The child can attain a knowledge of that which is religious

In and through his language, man can make the existence of God "visible" both to himself and to others. Moreover, prayer, as a dialogue with God, takes place in human language. Through language, man can thus not only speak to and about God but can, in his turn, be addressed by Him, since we can understand Him if He speaks to us.

(5) The child may experience anxiety but can also achieve eventual security

The possession of language enables man to withdraw from the reality in which he finds himself and to confront himself with something alarming which does not yet exist but which can become a reality. In this context, Nel maintains that not only is anxiety inseparably bound to childhood, but to mankind in general (6, p. 125). Experiencing anxiety is thus part and parcel of our human existence and arises from the fact that we are in the world - a world which is experienced by the Christian as sinful and thus terrifying but which offers the prospect of succour (3, p. 40).

Although the child can never escape from his anxiety it is nevertheless possible to lighten the heavy load which this lays upon him, on the strength of the security which he initially experiences within the family and the community and eventually in his trusting relationship with his Creator.

(d) Linguistic handicaps and defects impede the child's establishment of his own world

The foregoing argument clearly shows that language is an indispensable aid to recon-naissance, classification and conquest in a child's establishment of a personal world. Defective linguistic development and consequent linguistic defects and handicaps will lead to the child's dialogue with the world of meaning which is to be met, becoming utterly attenuated, so that to him, the world will not be one of meaning or one which invites answers. Where the relationship "child-world" is impeded in this manner by defective mastery of language, it is obvious that such a child will not achieve meaningful self-proclamation and self-realisation. Absolute mobility in and entire mastery of the language with which he must reconnoitre his world, endow it with meaning and make it his own, can thus be viewed as an ideal, if not absolute requirement if the child is not to be handicapped in his progression towards full-fledged adulthood.

Therefore, on the strength of a concise exposition of the ways in which linguistic development takes its course, an indication will be given of those factors which can contribute towards the origin of linguistic handicaps and defects in the pre-school child - factors which can have a retardatory effect upon his establishment of a personal world.

(e) Elements in the linguistic development of the pre-school child

At birth, the child, who has no knowledge of language, enters a world which already has language as a system. The child must discover this system for himself. The child's latent linguistic ability must be developed and the course of this development is a gradual one and is dependent on many factors. The course of development is influenced by the interaction of both endogenic (inner) and exogenous (external, environmentally determined) factors (6, p. 38; 7, p. 210).

Nel mentions the loving care of the child as one of the important influencing factors from outside which react favourably upon the child's linguistic development (6, p. 38). The following stages can be distinguished in the linguistic development of the child:

(1) The gurgling stage

The child who is physically sound and the recipient of loving care, begins to make gurgling noises at an early stage. After the third month gurgling, as such, commences and entire little melodies rapidly emerge. On the one hand, gurgling can be regarded as the result of the child's need for vocal expression, but, on the other hand, it is also certain that, through the maturing of the vocal organs, the child discovers that he can play with vocal expressions and through them make contact with his own little world. This cheerful babbling, which is an introductory stage and a preparation for the child's speech later on, is strongly encouraged by the loving conversations which the mother has with the child when she tenderly cares for and caresses him. The young child's crowing and babbling also constitute his answer to the loving sentiments expressed to him by his mother. This contact and conversation between mother and child are of the greatest importance for emotional or affective moulding and thus for the child's future linguistic development (6, p. 38).

Should the small child be deprived of this loving care and these little conversations because of the mother's daily absence from home as a result of occupational labour or extra-domestic social activities, there is a danger of affective and pedagogical neglect. Should the child in addition be dependent upon a Non-White servant for care, this can result in the child's potential remaining dormant, in his being afraid to explore the world, in tardiness in learning to speak and the development of a muddled patois in imitation of the distorted language usage of the person who cares for him.

(2) Passive language mastery gradually becomes active language usage

Active language mastery is preceded by passive language mastery. This implies that the child can understand what an adult says long before he is capable of expressing himself by means of language. From all the sounds which the child experiences, he learns to differentiate between the linguistic sounds, aided by the facial expressions and tone of the speaker. Most children can say approximately four to five words, including "mama" and "dadda" at the age of one but already understand many more. Up to the eighteenth month children are in the one-word phase, where one word expresses a whole sentence, for example "daddy" can mean "daddy come here". As soon as the child can speak his first meaningful word he already has the ability to use language to give expression to something - a wish or a state of mind.

(3) The discovery of the symbol system of language

At the age of approximately a year and a half, the child reaches an important stage in his linguistic development when he begins to acquire insight into the symbolic character of language and he arrives at the discovery that each of the things that surround him has a name which is designated by a sonic symbol. On the strength of the fact that each thing has a name and that the names are constant, the child begins to classify the multiplicity of objects around him. The child poses many questions in the process of doing so, in an attempt to learn the names of all sorts of things. Thus the child's vocabulary expands from about 20 words at the age of eighteen months to about 120 words at the age of twenty-one months.

As a condition for this breakthrough at the appointed time of maturation, Nel states that the parent, and in particular the mother, must make adequate contact with the young child, must talk to him and show him picture books. Should this condition not be satisfied because the child is left in the care of servants for the whole day, the child's power to create language can be gravely injured, muddled and retarded (6, p. 40).

(4) Refinement of the child's linguistic ability

A gradual refinement in the child's mastery of language takes place in the period between his second and sixth years. The finer and purer his linguistic development, the more powerful an instrument it will be for him in his exploration of the world. In addition, refined language usage forms the sound basis on which the development of thought unfolds. Refined language usage is apparent, among other things, from the two to two and a half year-old's use of sentences consisting of three or more words, while the increasing number of questions of the "where", "how" and "why" type begin to connote the connection between language and thought.

(f) Summary

It is assumed that by the time the child is 5-6 years of age, he has already developed a general language pattern. The secure, protected child who grows up in a tranquil domestic atmosphere and is not deprived of care and attention (particularly from his mother), usually possesses a refined, well-grounded, highly usable language structure by the time he is 6 years old. However, the child who does not feel secure or protected in his world, who experiences conflicts in his domestic sphere and does not have the opportunity of exploring the surrounding world in safety, can experience severe impediments and show signs of serious disturbance in his linguistic development. Such children would be able to surmount these linguistic defects either partially or even totally if they could be helped in nursery schools in which a service supplementary to the educative task of the family is rendered in a pedagogically accountable manner.

CHAPTER 2

THE DEMANDING NATURE OF THE TIMES IN WHICH WE LIVE, THE GREATER DEMANDS THAT THIS IMPOSES UPON PRE-SCHOOL CHILDREN AND THE LIMITATIONS TO WHICH THEY ARE CONSEQUENTLY SUBJECTED

2.1 INTRODUCTORY

It is generally conceded that the present age imposes high demands upon each individual. Moreover, it can be assumed that these demands will increase as the tempo of industrialisation accelerates. Rapid industrialisation and the consequent acceleration in working and living tempo cause all sorts of neurotic handicaps which are alien to a simpler and more tranquil way of life. Both the nature of the domestic sphere and the human hierarchy of values have undergone a distinct structural change in the past few decades as a result of such economic and social circumstances.

Motives arising from economic and material considerations are often the controlling motives in our daily lives these days. Although this century is still generally called the "century of the child" the child is actually being threatened and to a large extent being forced into the background by these material and economic considerations. This repression of the child's interests naturally assumes greater proportions in urban areas than in the rural areas where the child still lives in another, less demanding world which he can assimilate at his own tempo.

Every child is required to become familiar with a world which is increasingly complex, while the time permitted him for doing so is extremely limited. Only the child who can count on accountable pedagogical support from interested adults, will be able to meet this demand. Included in such accountable pedagogical support will have to be the realisation that, in this modern age of space travel and mass media, children will have to be made familiar with a complicated society in another way than was previously the case. This familiarisation will, of necessity, have to take place gradually and on the basis of experimentation in the widest sense of the word. In this context it would seem important that the family, or where possible, organised nursery centres, should encourage and teach pre-school children to undertake an independent reconnaissance of the world by making them understand that it is quite permissible to experiment.

If, in the family or in organised nursery centres, no notice should be taken of the demanding nature of the present times in which we live and the fundamental developmental needs of pre-school children, there is a definite danger that an increasing number of children will be neglected, go off the rails, be designated as nervous or difficult to rear and appear unready for school when the time comes for entering the primary school.

The concept "neglect" is today no longer only applicable to children from unfavourable environments who suffered from both physical and spiritual handicaps but often also to outwardly well-cared for, well-dressed, well-fed children from sound milieux who, in spite of all this, still reveal pedagogical deficiencies. These days, one can, in fact, speak of "elegant neglect" since children with deficiencies in upbringing often come from the best socio-economic milieux. Since the whole point of formative education is to achieve as complete a development as possible of the total aptitude (all talents), i.e. the complete personality, neglect, in our time, would seem to point to defective recognition and development of human talents and potential.

It is currently of the greatest urgency that the potential and talents of all children should reach full development, since all children at birth encounter a society which is literally crying out for their talents (7, p. 137). Moreover, the present age offers them greater opportunities than ever before to allow their talents to ripen and develop fully.

Pedagogical neglect of pre-school children can often lead to such things as untoward shyness and reserve, brutality in their association with others, destructiveness in handling objects and materials, incapacity to keep themselves meaningfully occupied, stuttering, nail-biting or bed-wetting, and it is clear that pedagogical neglect greatly impedes their discovery of the world and the development of their inherent potential.

2.2 DEFECTS IN UPBRINGING WITHIN THE FAMILY CONTEXT, WHICH CAN LEAD TO PEDAGOGICAL NEGLECT OF THE PRE-SCHOOL CHILD

2.2.1 The small child does not feel that his domestic sphere is a haven

Through the centuries the young child has needed loving individual care in a sphere of security and protection and this is linked to the opportunity offered of achieving full growth and development (9, p. 172-176).

(a) The mother's share in making the domestic milieu one of security

The experience of security within the domestic sphere is and remains an indispensable component in the healthy growth of the young child and lies in the person of the mother as a personal, private contact figure. A true mother does not only receive her child with joy and thankfulness, but also accepts him as he is. If at all possible, she will feed him herself, play with him, caress him lovingly, utter endearments and sing him songs. She will encircle him with her gaze and gestures while her physical cherishing and inner empathy will promote the even tenor of his childish existence (7, p. 133). The child makes his first and most important breakthrough on the strength of this and many other forms of maternal care, in that he experiences a feeling of certainty, protection and safety. As has already been stated, it is only by means of such an experience of security that the child is prepared for exploration and the establishment of his own world. Every child needs such mother love. Nevertheless, many children must do without this tender care and experience of security from early childhood because their mothers are away from home as a result of extra-domestic work or social obligations. According to Sellenraad these children are undergoing the first form of neglect (7, p. 134).

The young child's experience of security also suffers a severe setback if his mother is not at home when he returns (from walks, playground or nursery school). Although the child possibly only calls to his mother when he comes home and when she has answered, occupies himself unconcernedly with his own affairs, there is actually more to it than that. His mother's reply gives him the assurance that he is safe - and that is enough for him. From this haven he can face the world because he knows that he can fall back on it should danger threaten.

(b) Young children are often cheated of a feeling of security by exposure to the frenzied pursuit of money, social status and pleasure which has become fashionable in modern times

As a result of work and social obligations, parents have virtually no time for their children any more. However, the excuse of "no time" often hides the far more serious reason of "no love". The parent who deeply loves his child will want to get to know him and learn to live with him and this necessitates time. Such parents will indeed find the time - because love, of necessity, makes time. The child who must go without this deep bond, this co-existence and mutual presence because of a lack of time, experiences a serious deficiency in his upbringing which will be to his disadvantage in his design of the world when he will necessarily have to live and co-operate with other adults and children in situations involving trust. In the co-existence here at issue, the length of time is not the decisive factor, but the nature and standard or quality of this co-existence.

(c) Young children often do not have enough opportunities for taking up independent stands

In the family situation, parents and brothers and sisters repeatedly intersect the world design of the young child. This, in itself, is not necessarily a hindrance. However, when parents continually interfere in the child's affairs, are excessively cautious, over-protective in their behaviour and fight all the child's battles, he remains unsure of his own capabilities and never becomes independent. Parents must thus refrain from continually interfering, checking, dampening the child's initiative and always wanting to help. This treatment does not give the child the opportunity of being himself or of exploring his world in a unique way and with assurance. In the nursery centre as well, one must guard against continual interference in the world design of the pre-school child and against the tendency to proffer too much aid.

2.2.2 Linguistic development does not take place along satisfactory lines

Defective linguistic development or linguistic neglect, to which pre-school children, even those from wealthy milieus, are sometimes subject, is closely connected with the affective neglect discussed in the preceding paragraph. As has already been indicated, the lovingly tended child begins to babble happily early on. In doing so he gives expression to his need for uttering sounds, but also "answers" his mother's

loving remarks. His physical contact with his mother and her loving conversations with him are of the greatest importance as regards both his affective moulding and his future linguistic development. Many children must now do without this loving care and talk because the mother is away from home for the major part of the day as a result of work or social obligations. This brings with it the danger of pedagogical neglect in general, but more particularly of linguistic and affective neglect. When, in addition to this, children are dependent upon Non-White nannies for physical care, a real danger exists that their potential will remain dormant and they will be scared to venture upon exploration of the world. Such children often only learn to speak very tardily and, in most instances, develop an imitation of the mutilated language of their nannies, an extremely awkward, distorted patois. The pre-school child can only achieve insight into the symbolic system of language, refinement of his linguistic ability and enrichment of his language usage, if his mother and other adults take the time and trouble to make constant linguistic contact with the child by engaging in conversations with him. The language pattern of the 5 to 6 year-old pre-schooler is already so firmly established that it is very difficult for them to break the habit of incorrect or clumsy speech and to learn better linguistic usage. Pre-school children who are subject to linguistic neglect could perhaps derive a great deal of benefit from entering a nursery school early on, where special provision can be made for remedying such linguistic deficiencies.

2.2.3 The pre-school child does not get enough opportunity for reconnoitring the world

The pre-school child who initially enters the world as a being without culture can only acquire culture by undergoing all sorts of basic experiences. He also needs to explore the world by tackling things on his own. Only by direct contact with the things which surround him, can he get to know and utilise them. In modern society he is often not afforded this opportunity because he is not allowed to play with the objects which are to be found in his home. Thus he has few opportunities of discovery and achieving the development of his own potential in an independent manner. The pre-school child's reconnaissance of the world is subject to all sorts of limitations within the family context, some examples of which are the following:

(1) The parents' exaggerated sense of tidiness

Adults are often obsessed with tidiness. As a result there are some parents who will not allow the child to undergo basic experiences in their immaculate house or sitting-room because they do not want any disruption in the prevailing order. They find it difficult to reconcile themselves to the uncultivated enthusiasms of children and to their need for investigating, handling, testing and experimenting with everything they encounter. However, mothers will have to learn to realise that messing with mud and water, soiling his clothes and handling objects are necessary if the pre-schooler is to assimilate basic experiences.

In present times the world which surrounds the child is so complex and cultivated that few opportunities and possibilities of undergoing basic experiences remain to him. If the parent forbids him to experiment within the family context, the already limited possibilities are constricted still further. The situation has already become so serious in heavily populated urban areas and particularly in blocks of flats, that the child has no water and sand, plants or animals or even children of his own age near him. If water is available he is not allowed to play with it because he spatters the floor, wets his clothes and soils everything. It is easier for such children to undergo the necessary basic experiences with a view to the establishment of a personal world, in a nursery school where they are permitted to handle all objects, play with sand, water and mud and where no exaggerated value is attached to neatness.

(2) The exclusively singular nature of objects which the pre-school child encounters in his home

Every object which the child encounters at home is used for only one purpose by adults and thus has only one meaning for them. The child's approach is quite different since he uses an object for the purpose for which he needs it. A chair can thus quite comfortably be used as a battlement or an ashtray as a helmet. Thus, in every home, there are numerous objects which attract the pre-school child and present all sorts of opportunities to him, but which the adult is reluctant to let him touch because they are breakable, irreplaceable or even dangerous.

The objects which the child encounters in the nursery are specially designed to be handled and to be in no way dangerous. These objects which are available to him, lend themselves to the process of undergoing basic experiences and are not limited to one purpose as are the household articles at home.

the child who is fortunate enough to live in a private house with its own garden encounters a less limited world outdoors. He can use the sticks, stones, tins and branches that he finds there as he sees fit according to the purpose for which he needs them. The child who lives in a flat is less fortunate because even the objects which he encounters in playgrounds, such as swings and see-saws, have one purpose and meaning only. It is probably only in the playground of a nursery school that pre-school children can encounter objects that are usable and can be employed for whatever purpose is desired.

(3) The limited opportunities for discovery in cramped flats

As a field of discovery, cramped living space, as exemplified in modern apartment buildings, naturally offers the child very little in the way of opportunities for exploration. As soon as the pre-schooler has investigated everything within the boundaries of this limited world, he is eager to widen his horizons. He cannot do this in safety outside the flat because of heavy traffic in the streets. Playgrounds and open spaces can be of use in this context, but are seldom experienced by the pre-school child as a safe place in which he can experiment with impunity. Such children would probably derive more benefit from reconnoitring their worlds in the safe playing space of a nursery school, in the certain knowledge that should danger threaten, they can count on the help and support of the nursery school supervisor.

2.2.4 Childish play does not come into its own

(a) Introductory

The world of the pre-schooler is still primarily one of play. In his playful approach to the world he communicates with objects, becomes familiar with things and establishes his own world. The basic play needs of the developing child today are fundamentally the same as they were before, but threaten to become repressed because of the great changes which are taking place in society. The highly specialised and cultivated world in which we live often has a deleterious effect on childish play. In this age, when great demands are often made on the individual, the child is also affected when people lose sight of the fact that the child's mode of existence is precisely one of play.

(b) Limitations which are placed upon childish play within the family sphere

All sorts of limitations are placed upon childish play within the family context and in close correlation with housing circumstances. Some examples are the following:

- (1) Many parents do not allow their children to play in the house or living room or with the objects there. Considerations of tidiness, propriety, orderliness or even the safety of the child are usually the decisive factors. To compensate for the limitations which are thus imposed upon the child's opportunities for play, parents are often eager to construct a playroom. In spite of all the possibilities for play which this offers, it is seldom a success. Small children are not keen to play there because they do not want to be isolated from the rest of the family. They wish to have a full share in total family life. They want to be where their parents and older brothers and sisters are. After all, they are part of the family and feel very strongly that they belong with the other members.
- (2) The toys which the child is offered with a view to undergoing basic experiences do not thoroughly satisfy the demands which they ought to. It is obvious that well-chosen and well-handled toys can have a positive developmental influence. Good toys should fulfil a dual function by enabling children to gain all sorts of basic experience safely and to assimilate experiences they gain elsewhere by independent repetition (8, p. 263). By using well-chosen playing material such as sand, water, clay and finger paint, the child can give active expression to his creative urge, his phantasy and his need to experiment.

Housing circumstances, or more particularly, flat-living, render utilization of the play materials mentioned impossible. Miniature toys such as miniature cars, stoves, dolls and tea sets which are forced upon the flat-dwelling child as a substitute, do not enable him to gain the necessary basic experiences. Toys of this nature can often only be used for one purpose, are closed in structure, too complicated, break too easily and bring the wrath of the child's parents down on his head. Few basic experiences are to be gained from such toys.

- (3) Cramped accommodation puts a damper on the child's need for freedom of movement and spatial reconnaissance. The pre-school child who skips, trots, runs, jumps,

plays hide-and-seek and dances, is not only engaged in testing and investigating his own powers of movement but is also occupied in exploring space with a view to determining his own place in that space.

As a result of their circumstances, parents who live in flats must often make unreasonably high demands on pre-school children, i.e. not to jump, run, shout or share in rowdy activities, since such activities might disturb their immediate neighbours. It is obvious that such demands do not take into account the basic developmental needs of the pre-school child as regards his own powers of movement and spatial exploration.

As can be expected, heavy traffic, with its attendant perils, as well as the lack of open spaces where children can play freely, contribute towards the attenuation of opportunities for play, towards the impoverishment of play and to the inhibition of play potential. Since playing in the street has become mortally dangerous, certain forms of play such as hoops, tops and balls have already disappeared from the street scene. In the same way, walking, climbing and running games that require open spaces have almost completely disappeared. This cannot but have a deleterious effect on the child who should develop in his play, who should discover himself, his fellow-man and the world through it. "Playing space, playing time, toys and playmates must serve the growing human child at school, outdoors and at home if he is to undergo harmonious development" (7, p, 106)(translation).

It is clearly apparent from the foregoing that many pre-school children who are fortunate enough to be reared within the familial context, can nevertheless experience deficiencies in respect of protection, linguistic development, opportunities for play as well as world discovery in general.

2.3 GAPS IN FORMATIVE EDUCATION WITHIN INSTITUTIONS, WHICH CAN CONTRIBUTE TO THE PEDAGOGICAL NEGLECT OF THE PRE-SCHOOL CHILD

That the pre-schooler is best off with his mother and that he should be cared for and reared by her, is still a valid hypothesis in modern times. However, in practice, it often now happens that children spend long periods in hospitals or nursing homes as a result of chronic illnesses. Moreover, many pre-school children who are orphaned, as well as those from broken homes, end up in some institution or home. Such children are deprived of the tender cherishing of their own mothers. It is a known fact that some of these children pine away and even die, in spite of the outstanding physical care they receive, while others fall behind in their development. This phenomenon, known as hospitalism, probably arises from an inadequate experience of security and from affective neglect.

The child in a nursing institution or other place of care needs loving individual care in a safe and protected sphere in order to be able to achieve complete development and maturity. Little of this comes to pass at most institutions. Well-meaning adults in such institutions often concentrate upon merely ensuring excellent physical care. To their way of thinking a child is adequately cared for if he is fed at regular times, washed, allowed to sleep, kept from danger and protected against illness. In such institutions there can often be no recognition of the fact that a personal, private contact figure is absolutely essential for the experience of security and the sound affective development of the pre-school child.

For the young child in an institution, it is a tremendous sacrifice to share the love and care of the mother figure (whether it is a house-mother, nurse or nanny) with other children of his own age group. He regards them as competitors for her care, attention and love. During the years when they are greatly preoccupied with solving problems in their personality development and establishing relationships, pre-schoolers need the help and support of an adult who, although in the background, is always available as an accepting, controlling and approving contact figure. The manner in which pre-school children in institutions are treated by "contact adults" is decisive for the course of their development and upbringing. With care which is of too impersonal a nature and mainly concentrated on physical well-being, the child does stay alive and outwardly, at least, grows up healthy and normal, but because affective moulding has suffered damage, more often than not defects in personality development appear.

The remedying of deficiencies in the affective composition or personality structure of neglected children obviously requires the utmost care and attention. In small, homely nursery centres where small groups of pre-school children are entrusted to the care of pedagogically thoroughly grounded nursery school teachers, many deficiencies in a child's affective moulding, in his experience of protection and his linguistic ability, can gradually be remedied.

2.4 DELIBERATION ON WHETHER OR NOT THE PHENOMENA "NURSERY CENTRE/NURSERY SCHOOL" ARE MEANINGFUL IN THE LANDSCAPE OF THE PRE-SCHOOL CHILD

The existence of pre-school nursery care centres would only appear pedagogically justifiable if such centres seem meaningful in the pre-schooler's landscape. This, in turn, is only possible if such centres can make a real contribution to the pre-schooler's moulding, his constitution of a world of his own and his establishment of a personal world-picture. If every child could be reared within the family context and provided that the family could fulfil its educative function properly, there would naturally be no need for supplementary rearing activity in a nursery centre or nursery school.

However, should the family upbringing, or the formative education which pre-school children receive in institutions, be subject to certain defects with deficiencies in the child's experience of protection, his play potential, opportunities for play, acquisition of language - deficiencies which would hobble him in his discovery and constitution of his own world - the nursery care centre, if it can function in a supplementary or even preventative capacity with regard to certain deficiencies, would definitely appear to be a meaningful structure on the pre-school child's landscape. The contribution which such a supplementary service can render in the interests of the child's moulding, as well as towards preventing malformation, would indeed seem meaningful as well as pedagogically accountable, particularly on the strength of the fact that numerous children are in need of it.

2.5 REASONS WHY NURSERY CENTRES APPEAR MEANINGFUL ON THE LANDSCAPE OF MANY PRE-SCHOOL CHILDREN TODAY

2.5.1 The structural change which the family has undergone and the deficiencies revealed in family upbringing

The basic needs of today's pre-school child remain essentially the same as in the past, but threaten to become pushed to one side as a result of the great changes which are occurring in society. As a result of both economic and social trends, family upbringing has also undergone a definite structural change during the past few decades. This change has by no means always been to the advantage of the pre-school child. Because of the frenetic pace which characterises the modern age, there is little time left over for one's fellow-man. The fact that the parent also has little time to devote to the pre-school child means that many children have fallen by the wayside as a result of neglect. Pre-school children are often either left to the mercies of Non-White nannies as a result of the absence of many mothers because of work or social obligations, or at a very early age find themselves in some nursery centre or nursery school for part or the whole of the working day.

2.5.2 The increase in the number of pre-school children who are dependent upon care in institutions because of domestic circumstances

Apart from the pre-school children who are exposed to neglect in the family context, there are thousands of orphans or children from broken homes, who end up in children's homes or institutions where insufficient attention is sometimes devoted to their affective needs, with the result that they often show signs of pedagogical neglect. The purposeful, pedagogically accountable attention which is paid to the pre-school child in a nursery school, could probably contribute significantly towards ameliorating deficiencies or even preventing pedagogical neglect. Obviously, concern for the pre-school child at this level must always be supplementary to the family upbringing in cases where children grow up within the family context, but in the case of the child in an institution, this care would have to function largely as a substitute.

2.6 SUMMARY

If one considers the position of many pre-school children who experience all sorts of deficiencies in their pedagogical moulding as a result of defective care in the family or institution, the phenomenon "nursery care centre/nursery school" begins to show up more and more significantly on the pre-school child's landscape. If the child cannot experience the necessary protection within the family or institution and his linguistic development and playful exploration of the world do not blossom, he is a candidate for a centre where, from a safe base, he can reconnoitre his world with the aid of language and play. Many children will only obtain such protection, opportunity for play and for developing and refining their language in small, homely nursery schools and under the sympathetic and loving supervision of a nursery school teacher who has a thorough pedagogical grounding. Such nursery centres would definitely be of significance and benefit to many neglected pre-school children because in them the child's family or institutional upbringing can be supplemented, he feels accepted and safe and dares to be himself because all activities carry on in a pleasant atmosphere of cosiness and understanding of his potential and limitations.

2.6.1 The meaning which the nursery school can have for many pre-school children

According to Pulles (8, p. 265) the nursery school has had many differently emphasised meanings over the years. In early days the nursery school was merely there to confine and safeguard the child during certain hours of the day. The greater insight into the characteristic mode of existence of the child which has been obtained has led to an intensive search for new possibilities with which nursery-school children can keep themselves occupied so that in doing so they can independently create a personal world within the school.

2.6.2 The nursery school is concentrated upon the childish mode of existence

(a) The nursery school takes into account the child's need to develop at his own tempo

In the adult world outside the nursery school, the child is required to adapt himself as rapidly as possible to the adult pattern of living and to comply with the demands of the adult world. This can have a disruptive effect on the harmony and equilibrium of the pre-schooler's development. Within the nursery school, the child enjoys protection against the excessively high demands imposed on him by the outside world. Here, in a world which is orientated towards his needs and capacities, he can develop at his own tempo.

(b) The nursery school recognises the child's need to undergo basic experiences

In the nursery school, the child moves in a world which is adapted to his childish mode of existence and which offers him plenty of opportunities of gaining basic experience. In contrast to the adult world in which there is little time and opportunity for him to undergo basic experiences because he is continually being required to behave like an adult, the child can go his own childish way in the nursery school. He can behave naturally and undergo the necessary basic experiences at his own tempo. Among the basic experiences of fundamental importance with which he is confronted, are the following:

(1) Human relationships

Here the pre-school child learns to live with contemporaries whose temperaments, natures and even way of life may differ noticeably from his own. He experiences the "differentness" of the others by way of contrast: the mild and submissive as opposed to the demanding and dominating; the benign and helpful as opposed to those who need and seek help; the irascible and quick-tempered as opposed to the genially friendly; the over-cautious, reserved as against the robust dare-devils. In this way he becomes familiar with the characteristics of others and finds that he can wend his way through the nursery school without conflict by considering not only his own wishes, but the wishes and desires of others.

(2) The characteristics and utility value of objects

The child learns the characteristics and names of objects by handling them. He classifies the multitude of objects around him on the strength of this knowledge. He gradually develops new skills in handling objects and acquires new insight into their utility value and potential. The great significance which the nursery school has for many children lies precisely in the fact that every object here, in contrast with the position at home, is available to the child for gaining basic experience.

(c) The nursery school provides for the child's need of playmates

Contrary to the family situation where the child often has no playmates, there are enough playmates in the nursery school for the child to consort with if he feels the need. Even in the course of playing with others, he is busy complying with the directive to establish his own world and to engage in a dialogue with his fellow-man and the objects which surround him. He can satisfy his need for movement by walking, running and playing freely in the protected space which the nursery school offers him.

(d) The nursery school takes into account the limitations to which the pre-school child is subject

In the family context there is often little recognition of the limitations to which pre-school children are subject, with the result that excessively high demands are often made on the children. The following are some of the limitations imposed upon pre-school children which are borne in mind in the nursery school:

- (1) His linguistic ability and language mastery still leave much to be desired. He can accordingly not yet express himself adequately in everyday speech and is incapable of listening for long periods and attentively to another person. He

must thus be given the opportunity of exercising and refining his linguistic ability.

- (2) His attention fluctuates and he is therefore incapable of remaining occupied with one thing for long or concentrating for long periods.
- (3) He does not as yet know all the rules for social intercourse and needs an adult to show him the way.
- (4) He is still not sufficiently independent to take all kinds of factors and objects into account and needs an accepting, controlling, directing contact-adult.

2.6.3 Dangers which may lie hidden in organised nursery centres

Although the nursery school is orientated towards the childish mode of existence, it is nevertheless a great sacrifice for the child to leave the familiar domestic sphere for the unknown nursery school. It is important that, in this new environment, the child can be himself, feel accepted and not be taxed too greatly. It is an unfortunate fact that children in certain nursery centres, but particularly those in nursery schools, are often the victims of defective acceptance, of conformity and of overburdening.

(a) Faulty acceptance

The feeling of security which results from feeling that one is accepted is extremely important for a child's affective moulding. It is chiefly the mother who can accept the child most easily as he is because of her biological ties with him. The attitude of many nursery school supervisors or teachers is often totally different, however, and willingness to accept the child as he is, is often lacking. There is, in many cases, a tendency to reverse the roles and so to influence the child that he accepts the nursery school teacher. However, this does not give any child the feeling that the nursery centre is a safe, protected haven or that the nursery school teacher is a maternal substitute.

(b) Conformism

When children encounter the group situation they are more often than not required to conform. By means of all sorts of cunning measures pre-school children are adroitly forced into an artificial adjustment to the interests of the group or the wishes of the nursery school teacher. This can obviously only take place at the expense of personal identity and wishes, preferences and methods of exploring.

(c) Overburdening

Children in nursery schools are often lured into doing more than their capabilities will permit by means of ingeniously chosen play material or the stimulation of creative play. Such overburdening with a view to eliciting a performance which measures up to adult standards, represents exploitation of the pre-school child.

A great deal of the pre-school child's development should be an inner process without any outwardly discernible or measurable achievements. Outward achievement usually takes place at the expense of the important inward development. Excessively high demands upon pre-school children as regards discernible achievement are particularly frequently made in so-called "nursery schools". It is precisely in the concept school, as an institution from which one expects tangible, visible, measurable results, that there is a hidden threat to pre-school development and growth. The formal school's reading, writing and arithmetic which are pursued at some nursery schools can be classified as activities which concern outwardly visible, measurable achievement and represent overtaxing of the pre-school child.

CHAPTER 3

WORLD TRENDS WITH REGARD TO ORGANISED PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION WITH REFERENCE TO THE REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA AND TO SOUTH-WEST AFRICA

3.1 GENERAL TRENDS AND VIEWS IN COUNTRIES ABROAD

3.1.1 Pre-school education

Organised pre-primary education is to be found in practically every country in the world. Such organised pre-primary or pre-school education usually takes place at institutions which are attended by children during the period prior to compulsory school age and preceding their formal education. The mere fact that what these institutions offer the child is designated as organised pre-school formative education and not as formal education or instruction, indicates the adoption of an important attitude. It means that in most of these pre-school institutions the children are offered a broad functional moulding by way of supplementing the upbringing which they receive at home. Apart from this, they are guided, in an informal manner, to gain practical experience on the basis of which they are prepared for formal assimilation of knowledge and school attendance later on.

3.1.2 The right of existence of pre-school educational institutions

It is generally accepted that the right of such pre-school educational institutions to exist arises from the inalienable right of every child to a thoroughly pedagogically accountable moulding. The formative activity in these institutions can render an important supplementary service to many a child who experiences deficiencies in his upbringing at home. Moreover, this activity can function as a replacement for the domestic upbringing which is denied to orphans or children who are placed in care centres because of domestic circumstances.

3.1.3 Pre-school educational institutions do not disregard the parent's educational task

It is generally accepted that the establishment of such organised, pre-school educational institutions in no way indicates a disregard of the parent's inalienable right to be personally and solely responsible for the upbringing of his pre-school child, should he prefer it that way. Precisely because it would infringe upon the parent's right, it would scarcely be justifiable to make the attendance of pre-school educational institutions compulsory for all pre-school children, or even for those who fall into certain age groups.

3.1.4 Pre-school learning is of an informal nature

It is obvious that such organised pre-school educational institutions may not give new content to the traditional pre-school educational procedures. It must be borne in mind that the formative aspect is primary in the concern with the child within the family context. While no-one would deny that the pre-school child must also occasionally learn certain things, pre-school learning activities are naturally informal and often of a fortuitous nature. For this reason there should be no question, in pre-school educational institutions, of deliberately and formally confronting the child with learning requirements such as reading, writing and arithmetic. However, it is generally accepted that, in his general basic moulding, the child will gradually and in an informal manner be prepared for the formal assimilation of knowledge at a later stage.

3.1.5 - Criteria with which pre-school educational institutions must comply

In order to be generally acceptable and pedagogically accountable, such organised pre-primary educational institutions must, of necessity, comply with certain carefully formulated criteria. Among the aspects in respect of which certain requirements will have to be met are physical space including buildings and playgrounds; aids and equipment; selection, training and provision of staff; the educational programme; medium of instruction and parental participation.

Consequently a brief description will be given of certain general trends with regard to the types of pre-school institutions and their names, control, financing, staff provision and training, standards of buildings, educational programme, etc. Moreover, a brief indication will be given of the actual situation regarding these matters in a few Western countries. well as in the Republic of South Africa, with the object of drawing certain concl from which recommendations might conceivably flow.

3.2 CONDITIONS AND TRENDS IN OVERSEAS COUNTRIES REGARDING TYPES OF PRE-SCHOOL INSTITUTIONS AND THEIR NAMES AS WELL AS CONTROL, ORGANISATION AND FINANCING

3.2.1 Types of pre-school institutions

There would seem to be wide diversity across the world as regards both terminology and types of pre-school institutions. Practically all the countries which were involved in a Unesco survey (63 out of 65) indicated that they made provision for pre-school education in one form or another (10, p. 12). Although such institutions are usually called nursery schools or kindergartens, there is wide diversity in the nature of the institutions, not only among the different countries but even within a single country.

3.2.2 Types of institutions according to internal organisation

On the basis of internal organisation as it appears from the duration of the planned programme, one can differentiate between the following institutions:

- (1) Half-day institutions which mainly fulfil a formative educational function;
- (2) Full-day institutions which are open all day, provide one or two meals and care for the children as well as fulfilling a formatively educational function;
- (3) besides the two types of institution mentioned above, which appear to be fairly general, some countries have institutions which only function during certain seasons, for example during harvest-time or other periods of intensive agricultural activity; and
- (4) in a number of Communist countries there are institutions which are permanently open during the five or six-day working week in order to cater for the children of shift workers (10, p. 12).

3.2.3 Special types of pre-school institutions

Special pre-school institutions are established in various countries in order to provide for specific needs. Thus there are the so-called Schulekindergartens for children of compulsory school age in a number of large German cities. These are for children who are not considered mature enough or capable of deriving benefit from the ordinary primary school course. In the United States of America there are separate kindergartens for exceptional pupils which, among other things, contribute towards the early diagnosis of mental retardation.

There are institutions for physically handicapped children in countries such as West Germany, Rumania and the Ukraine and there are also sanatorium kindergartens in the U.S.S.R.

3.2.4 Wide diversity in nomenclature

Very few or no meaningful deductions can be made about the nature or programme of a pre-school institution solely on the strength of its name. The fact that two institutions are called kindergartens in no way indicates that both make provision for children of a specific age group or for a specific educational programme. The fact that a name such as "kindergarten" is applied to all sorts of institutions from a crèche to a full-fledged formal nursery school serves to exacerbate the confusion. Most of the countries which were involved in the Unesco survey refer to all their pre-school educational institutions as kindergartens (10, p. 11). However, a group of countries differentiated between the nursery school and the kindergarten as if the two institutions represented two consecutive phases of pre-primary education. This differentiation can be explained as follows:

- (1) According to the view mentioned, the nursery school is intended for children who are younger than those normally encountered in a kindergarten. The nursery school seems similar to the crèche. The action taken in the interests of the child in a nursery school, however, has a stronger educational element than would seem to be the case in a crèche. The nursery school is fairly generally encountered in Anglo-Saxon countries.
- (2) The kindergarten makes provision for the slightly older child who is not yet of compulsory school age and more often than not it represents a kind of transition from the nursery school to ordinary primary education. Sometimes the kindergarten fulfils a function as a preparatory school with a view to linking up with primary education.

From the above-mentioned facts one can deduce that there is a good deal of confusion about the nomenclature and function or task of pre-school institutions. Greater clarity on what, precisely, is meant by the names crèche, nursery school and kindergarten as well as on the specific function or task which each ought to fulfil and on the age groups of the pupils for which each institution should make provision, would contribute materially towards the clarification of what at present appears problematical.

3.2.5 Control, external organisation and financing

The control and financing of pre-school educational institutions normally takes place in most countries in three distinguishable but not always separable phases. In the first phase, individuals who have the interests of underprivileged children at heart step forward to establish, finance and control such institutions. The second phase is usually characterised by the appearance of philanthropic and/or clerical associations which establish such pre-school educational institutions as an integral part of their welfare work. The third phase, which might overlap chronologically with the previous two, is characterised by the control and financing of the pre-school institutions gradually passing into the hands of the official authorities whether on a governmental, provincial or regional level. The assumption of control and financing of pre-school institutions in some cases leads to those institutions being incorporated in the public school system for which such an authority carries the responsibility.

According to the Unesco investigation, in which 63 countries participated, the provision of pre-primary educational institutions varies from a few private or municipal establishments in certain countries, to an extensive network of public institutions in others where they represent the initial level of pre-primary education. There are both private and public institutions in more than three-quarters of the countries (10, p. 16).

(a) Public control

In no less than ten countries there were only public pre-school educational institutions, controlled and maintained by the authorities. However, in the vast majority of countries there is, next to the private institutions, a more or less standardised form of public pre-primary education under state control. Where the authorities establish public pre-school institutions, these can be at national, provincial or local level, depending on the general organisational structure of the education system.

In approximately half of the countries involved in the investigation, control and financing are partly or entirely in the hands of the central government. However, some of these countries also have public institutions which fall under the control of provincial or local government bodies.

In sixteen countries, however, among them West Germany, England and Switzerland, regional or local authorities are exclusively or mainly responsible for the control, organisation and financing of public pre-primary education (10, p. 16, 17).

(b) Private control

Privately controlled institutions still fulfil an important function in a great many countries. In many countries private initiative has a greater share in pre-school education than the state does, while in no fewer than seven countries it is the only supplier of pre-school educational facilities and institutions.

Private initiative for the establishment of pre-school educational institutions usually arises from philanthropic considerations in the case of child welfare or church associations. However, the profit motive can be decisive in the case of individuals who wish to make money out of such an institution. Certain industries or businesses also make pre-school educational facilities available to their employees' children, in the interests of promoting greater productivity and better relations. Such pre-school educational institutions may also come into being at the instance of groups of parents who co-operate in bringing about the establishment of facilities. Such parents usually also play an active part in the proceedings.

The funds for such private institutions are usually obtained from private sources. However, public funds are sometimes placed at the disposal of private institutions on a subsidy basis. In most countries institutions must comply with certain requirements in order to qualify for subsidisation. In at least thirteen countries, no subsidies from public funds are allocated to private institutions.

3.3 ACTUAL CONDITIONS IN A FEW WESTERN COUNTRIES AS REGARDS TYPES OF PRE-SCHOOL INSTITUTIONS, THEIR NOMENCLATURE, CONTROL, ORGANISATION AND FINANCING

3.3.1 The United States of America

(a) Types of pre-school institutions and their nomenclature

There is a great variety of pre-school institutions for children under the age of six years in the United States of America. Other than is the case in many other countries, a clear distinction is drawn here between nursery schools and kindergartens and particularly in the sense that: "the nursery school is the first and the kindergarten the next school experience preceding the first grade" (11, p. 1).

(i) Kindergarten

This is a school, or a section of a school for the pre-primary year or years which precede the first year at primary school. It forms an integral part of the child's elementary (primary) school programme, enabling him to realise his potential more satisfactorily with the aid of a professionally qualified teacher (11, p. 13). Kindergartens are usually attached to primary schools. Kindergartens are attached to 52 per cent of all primary schools. The percentage varies between 70 and 90 in the urban areas, but in the rural part of the southern states it is as low as 4% (12, p. 18). Some private schools which are found in public school districts offer a two-year kindergarten programme and admit children at the age of approximately 4 years (11, p. 13).

(ii) Nursery school

This is an educational institution for the pre-primary year or years which precede the kindergarten period. Nursery schools are usually independent institutions which are organised and controlled by private bodies, but they sometimes form part of the public school system. Three to four-year-old children are usually admitted to these institutions for a period of from one to two years (11, p. 13).

(iii) Other institutions for pre-school children

Apart from the two types of institution mentioned, there is also a variety of other institutions for the care of pre-school children whose function and field of activity is not so clearly delineated. The following may be mentioned:

(1) Parent-Co-operative nursery school and kindergarten

Parents get together on a co-operative basis to establish facilities and have an important share in the activities.

(2) Laboratory nursery school and kindergarten

This institution is established by a college or university department which also supervises its functioning. These types of pre-school institutions serve as demonstration centres or laboratories for students training to teach pre-school children.

(3) Parochial or church-sponsored nursery school and kindergarten

Such institutions function as part of the educational and uplifting service which the church offers.

(4) Nursery school and kindergarten for handicapped children

These are schools for the blind, deaf, crippled, mentally retarded and children with speech defects. Public and private, day and residential institutions are to be found among them.

(5) Nursery school and kindergarten for the educationally disadvantaged

Such schools are established in large cities particularly with a view to reducing or eliminating educational retardation or backwardness by -

(i) the early recognition of the factors which contribute to scholastic retardation and behavioural deviations and

(ii) making available such educational programmes for young children and their parents as will prevent or correct learning deficiencies.

(6) Play group or play school

The intention is not that this type of school should function as a nursery school, but that it should establish certain desired social activities as well as wholesome play for the children of a group of parents.

(7) Day care centre

This is not a school but provides care for the children of working mothers, especially for the duration of the working day (11, p. 13-15).

(b) Control, external organisation and financing

The institutions discussed above are controlled and financed by private bodies or by the authorities. Some of these institutions are established, administered and financed by colleges or universities, while others are organised by groups of parents, church groups, public school districts or one or more individuals as a private undertaking. Private nursery schools, kindergartens and other pre-school care centres are financed by -

- (1) the contributions of parents, sometimes according to a scale which is adapted to their incomes, or
- (2) by church parishes and/or other bodies (12, p. 20).

Public nursery schools and particularly kindergartens are mainly financed by the federal government from federal funds or by local authorities from their own funds (12, p. 20). The divided control in the United States is generally felt to be a shortcoming because, as a result, no continuous training and educational programme for pre-school and primary education can be planned by a state.

(c) Parental share in financing

No fee is payable by parents whose children are enrolled in public kindergartens. However, parents whose children attend private kindergartens, nursery schools or other pre-school institutions must pay the prescribed fee. This fee is sometimes determined according to the salaries of the parents.

3.3.2 Sweden

(a) Types of pre-school institutions and their nomenclature

Various organisations or individuals make provision for pre-school education in the following types of institutions:

(1) Kindergarten

The activity which concerns the child in the kindergarten is intended to supplement domestic educational activity. Provision is made for two groups of children per day, of which one group attends between 9 and 12 a.m. and the other between 1 and 4 p.m. The institutions are intended for four to six-year-olds, but three-year-olds are sometimes admitted in some districts. Six-year-olds are mainly admitted in districts where there are long waiting lists (13, p. 2).

(2) Day nurseries

Since this pre-school institution is intended as a care centre for the children of working mothers, children are admitted from their sixth month to their seventh year. Although the institutions are open from 6.30 a.m. to 6 p.m., attempts are being made to limit each individual child's stay as much as possible.

Family day nurseries, in which one or two children are cared for by a private family, serve as a supplement to the nearby day nurseries and are usually supervised by the head and inspectress thereof (13, p. 4).

(3) Recreation nursery (afternoon nursery)

This institution is intended for school-going children but is considered a part of the nursery school organisation. The institutions were previously known as afternoon nurseries because they accommodated school-going children between 1 and 6 p.m. The divergent school hours (different sessions) led to these institutions accepting the same hours as those of the day nurseries. School-going children now attend the recreation nursery before school, then return to school,

have a meal, do their homework and participate in all sorts of activities until their parents return home from work. The recreation nursery thus provides approximately the same service for school-going children as the day nurseries do for pre-school children.

(b) Control, supervision and financing

All pre-school institutions are subject to the authority of the National Social Welfare Board. However, they are controlled and maintained by local authorities, private organisations and associations of varying kinds and, in a limited number of cases, by individuals. The inspectors who are appointed by local authorities also inspect the pre-school institutions. Pre-school institutions which comply with certain requirements are considered for financial support by the state. However, this only applies to institutions which are controlled by a club, community or foundation. Institutions which are established and controlled by individuals do not obtain any financial support from the authorities. An annual subsidy (per accommodation) of 100 kroner for kindergartens, 1200 kroner for day nurseries and 500 kroner for recreation day nurseries is at present given. In addition, a government grant can be obtained for the building of day nurseries and recreation day nurseries. Financial aid can be obtained from the Public Endowment Fund for the building of kindergartens (13, p. 5).

However, financial aid from the authorities only covers about a quarter of the total expenses of pre-school educational institutions. The fees paid by parents provide another quarter, while the remaining half must be obtained from contributions by the community (13, p. 6).

(c) Parental share in financing

Kindergartens require a prescribed monthly fee from all parents. Although the fee of a specific institution is the same for all, it can, in deserving cases, be reduced in accordance with the parents' financial resources. A daily fee, calculated according to the parents' income, is payable to day nurseries and recreation nurseries.

3.3.3 Belgium

(a) Types of pre-school institutions and their nomenclature

The Bewaarschool (crèche) forms the basis of the Belgian school system and represents the first level thereof. It makes provision for three to six-year-old children (14, p. 23). Except in the case of private creches, the term "crèche" has gradually fallen into disuse and such schools are nowadays known as nursery schools. Besides the crèches and nursery schools, there are also care institutions which provide for children younger than three years of age. More than 85 per cent of all three to six-year-old children attend the various pre-school institutions because pre-school education is regarded as part of schooling, although attendance is not compulsory (14, p. 83).

(i) Types of crèches or nursery schools

One can differentiate between official (public) and free (or private) schools according to control.

(a) Official schools

The following institutions are official schools:

(1) Government schools which are usually attached to Normal Schools for nursery school teachers or to intermediate schools which are under government control. Government schools made provision for 5.6 per cent of the school-going children in 1961 (12, p. 29-30; 14, p. 88).

(2) Provincial schools are established by provincial authorities in some provinces and are usually attached to provincial institutions for intermediate or normal education. In 1961, 0.04 per cent of all school-going children were in provincial schools.

(3) Community schools are instituted and maintained by community councils and in 1961 made provision for 28.91 per cent of the school-going children (12, p. 30; 14, p. 87).

(b) Free or private schools (unofficial schools)

(1) Subsidised free schools are established by private bodies or individuals, are subject to the supervision of the local community council but are privately controlled and financed.

(2) Private crèches are privately instituted and maintained. The state has no authority over them nor does it subsidise them. The free schools accommodated 65.46 per cent of all school-going children in 1961 (12, p. 30; 14, p. 88).

(ii) Nursery schools for handicapped pre-school children

Apart from the above-mentioned schools for normal pre-school children, legal provision is also made for separate nursery schools for subnormal children, those with defective eyesight or hearing, deaf mutes and those with motor disturbances (12, p. 31).

(iii) School colonies and kiddies' centres

Frail pre-school children are admitted to these centres. These children are not really ill but need a way of life which makes allowances for their defective physical condition. Frail children from nursery schools can be sent to these centres for a fairly protracted stay. Some of these centres are open-air schools at the coast or in the country where children can be sent at the recommendation of the school doctor for a cure of a few months (14, p. 65, 74).

(iv) Other types of pre-school institution

The following pre-school institutions are distinguished:

(1) Crèches or infant care centres

Young children from infancy to the age of three years are cared for in these institutions while the mothers work. In these Kinderkribbes there is often a section for the accommodation of school-going children from the time the schoolday ends until the parents return home (12, p. 31; 14, p. 74).

(2) Pre-nursery school classes

The administrations of a few large cities such as Antwerp, Brussels and Liège have added classes for two to three-year-olds to their nursery schools in order to cater for tiny tots and overcome the lack of space (14, p. 76).

(b) Control and finance

As regards the official schools, government schools are established, maintained and controlled by the state, while provincial schools are instituted and maintained by the provincial authorities. The community schools are established and maintained by community councils and are subsidised by the state, subject to certain conditions.

Free or private schools are entirely under private control, but can nevertheless receive government subsidies provided that they comply with the conditions laid down in the Act of 29 May, 1959. Subsidies can be obtained for the redemption of -

(1) all running costs such as salaries and services, and

(2) up to 60 per cent of the building costs.

At present only provincial and community nursery schools are granted building subsidies. The private schools are now agitating for inclusion in this scheme.

Apart from all this, the provincial administrations give an annual contribution to subsidised schools for buying books and school material.

(c) Parental share in financing

Nursery school education is free in government institutions and in those which are subsidised by the state. Parents make no direct financial contribution since no school fees may be received from them. The school requisites are also provided free of charge.

3.3.4 The United Kingdom

In contrast to the position in the countries thus far discussed, the compulsory school age in the United Kingdom is five years of age. Pre-school educational institutions thus provide a service for children who are younger than five years of age.

The names "Infant schools" and "Infant classes" which are to be found in these countries' school systems can create confusion. These schools are not intended for pre-schoolers, but for five to seven-year-olds, and they represent a part of the provision which is made for compulsory education (10, p. 258; 15, p. 11).

Although England and Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland each have a separate education department, the provision of pre-school educational facilities is based on the same legislation and takes place in approximately the same way in the various parts.

Legally, the state is responsible for education at pre-school educational institutions (Educational Act of 1944) and it delegates its powers in this context to local educational authorities (LEA's) (12, pp. 21-22).

(a) Types of pre-school institutions and their nomenclature

(i) Nursery schools and nursery classes

On the basis of control, one can differentiate between public nursery schools and nursery classes which fall under the LEA's, and private nursery schools which are under private jurisdiction. The following schools are to be found:

- (1) Public nursery schools usually function as independent units under the control of the local educational authority.
- (2) Public nursery classes form part of the ordinary primary school or infant schools which fall under the local educational authority (LEA) (12, p. 22).
- (3) Private nursery schools can either be completely independent of the state as regards control and financing, or, provided that certain requirements are satisfied, subsidised by the authorities. The small number of private nursery schools which are to be found in Northern Ireland are not subject to Departmental supervision, nor are they subsidised by the Department (10, p. 258, 263, 267).

The above-mentioned two types of pre-school institutions, i.e. nursery schools and nursery classes, make provision for two to five-year-olds. In England, Wales and Northern Ireland, two to five-year-olds are admitted to nursery schools, while three to five-year-olds can gain entry to nursery classes which are held at primary schools. In Scotland both these institutions make provision for two to five-year-olds.

(ii) Other pre-school institutions

By establishing day nurseries (crèches) the Department of Public Health makes provision for younger children and those who cannot be catered for in the above-mentioned two institutions. This department also handles the registration of private crèches, private nursery schools and "childminders" (persons who look after children in their own homes at a fee) (12, p. 22, 23, 27).

(b) Control and financing

The government delegates its authority over public pre-school educational institutions to the local educational authorities (LEA's), who are responsible for the establishment, maintenance and financing of all independent public nursery schools and all public nursery classes in primary schools.

The private institutions are controlled and financed by individuals, voluntary organisations and church associations, but can qualify for government subsidies under certain conditions, except in the case of Northern Ireland. Up to half of the running costs of such subsidised private schools can be met by state subsidies. The independent private institutions are mainly financed by the fees paid by parents.

(c) Parental share in financing

Attendance is free at all public pre-school institutions. A contribution for the meals which children are given is sometimes requested. Some private institutions which are established and controlled by welfare organisations and church associations also demand no fee from parents. However, where private persons or bodies establish such

institutions for the purpose of making a profit, fees are indeed levied and these are sometimes high.

3.3.5 West Germany (German Federal Republic)

In this country pre-school education does not form a legally recognised part of the education system, so that the ministers of education in the 11 Länder have no authority over them. Nursery school education, like all other institutions for pre-school and post-school care, falls under the Department of Youth Affairs (landsjugendämter) and is regarded as an activity on a social level (12, p. 34).

(a) Types of pre-school institutions and their nomenclature

(i) Kindergartens

There are two types of kindergartens in West Germany, to wit, kindergartens for children who are under six years of age and therefore not obliged to go to school, and School Kindergartens (Schulkindergärten) for six-year-olds and over, who are already of compulsory school age. The difference is as follows:

(1) Kindergartens for pre-school children

Most of these kindergartens for pre-school children are independent institutions which are not attached to primary schools. However, some of them form part of community houses (Nachbarschaftshäuser) or of semi-boarding school institutions (Kindertagesheime) for pupils between the ages of three and fifteen years (10, p. 133).

(2) School kindergartens (Schulkindergärten)

In various large cities there are special school kindergartens for children of school age who are regarded, from a physical and intellectual viewpoint, as not being mature or ready enough for successful introduction to the first year of study of primary education (10, p. 133). As a matter of principle, no pupils who are not of school age are allowed to enter school kindergartens. Strictly speaking, therefore, this type of educational activity does not fall under that which is normally envisaged by pre-school educational institutions. Moreover, the main issue at stake in these institutions is solely the interests of the pupils.

(3) Kindergartens for handicapped children (Sonderschulkindergärten)

There are also special kindergartens for physically handicapped children, at which they undergo therapeutic treatment and participate in an infant programme, as far as their capabilities will allow (12, p. 35; 10, p. 133).

Attendance at pre-school institutions is on a voluntary basis. The minimum age of admission to kindergartens for pre-school children is usually three years but two to three-year-olds are also admitted in exceptional cases. The above-mentioned institutions normally make provision for infants between the ages of three and six years. The minimum age of admission to the school kindergarten corresponds to the compulsory school age, viz six years. Moreover, school kindergarten attendance is optional in most countries (10, p. 133, 134).

(ii) Other pre-school institutions

"Kinderhort" and "Kinderkrippe"

"Kinderhort" and "kinderkrippe" exist for the care of the children of working mothers. In these institutions, pre-school children can be looked after all day while school-going children receive care after school hours. Children of nursery school age can be fused into a unit on their own within the broad scope of such a day care institution (12, p. 35).

(b) Administration and financing

Kindergartens for pre-school children are established, administered and financed by -

- (1) communal committees, including municipalities and the committees of local communities, and
- (2) church congregations, philanthropic institutions and societies, church organisations, industrial institutions or private individuals.

Practically all school kindergartens are established, administered and financed by the "Länder" or by communal committees or by both at the same time. Kindergartens which

are financed by congregations or philanthropic societies receive a financial grant from the Länder or from the communal committees. It is a general ruling that other kindergartens (under other types of control) do not receive any subsidy from the authorities (10, p. 133).

The grants which are received by subsidised institutions from public funds cover approximately half of their expenses. Such financial grants received from the authorities can be used for the establishment of kindergartens, as well as for the defraying of running costs. However, the salaries of the staff may not be paid out of these grants (12, p. 36). The state also contributes financially towards the training of teaching personnel.

(c) Parental part in financing

Attendance at kindergartens is not free. Parents must cover about 50-60 per cent of the costs by means of attendance fees. In urban areas, fees are determined according to the incomes of parents, while in rural areas, there is a fixed, uniform fee for everybody (12, p. 36; 10, p. 134).

3.4 PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION IN THE REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA AND SOUTH-WEST AFRICA

3.4.1 Introduction

In all four provinces of the Republic of South Africa and in South-West Africa, the care of pre-schoolers takes place in -

- (1) private nursery schools which are registered with the education departments and which receive a financial grant from departmental funds;
- (2) independent, unsubsidised, private nursery schools, and
- (3) care centres which are registered with the Department of National Welfare and Pensions (not applicable to South-West Africa) (16, p. 2, 3).

3.4.2 Types of pre-school institutions and nomenclature

Among the pre-school institutions in this country, there are -

- (1) institutions which are open only in the mornings;
- (2) institutions at which the times vary from 3 to 6 hours per day;
- (3) institutions which are open throughout the day in order to fit in with the hours of work of the working mother; and
- (4) care centres with a section for pre-schoolers, which offer accommodation to the working mother's child from the infant stage to the attainment of school age (12, p. 9).

(a) Nursery schools

The following schools are distinguished:

- (1) Registered private nursery schools (subsidised nursery schools)

According to a survey undertaken in 1968, altogether 293 privately controlled infant schools were registered with the four provincial education departments and the education department of South-West Africa. There were 908 teachers at these schools, which made provision for 16 596 pre-school children (16, p. 2-3).

- (2) Unregistered private nursery schools (unsubsidised nursery schools)

According to the Children's Act of 1960, a nursery school which is not administered by an education department or which is not approved or registered by it, is regarded as a place of care. It is subject to registration in terms of Section 42 of the Act. According to the 1968 survey, the private infant schools which were not registered with the various education departments numbered 60 in the Cape Province, 58 in Natal, 4 in the Orange Free State and 4 in South-West Africa (16, p. 2). The Transvaal indicated that the unregistered nursery schools in this province were included in the 103 places of care found there (16, p. 3).

(b) Pre-school sections at private schools

In the Transvaal there are 27 and in Natal 5 private schools which have a pre-school

section attached and in which 893 pre-school children are at present accommodated (16, p. 2, 3).

(c) Other pre-school institutions

The Children's Act (Act No. 33 of 1960) describes a place of care as follows: "'place of care' means any building or premises maintained or used, whether for profit or otherwise, for the reception, protection and temporary or partial care of more than six children apart from their parents, but does not include any boarding school, any school hostel or any establishment which is maintained or used mainly for the tuition or training of children and which is controlled by or which has been registered or approved by a provincial education department".

The position regarding places of care in the four provinces on 31 May, 1968 was as follows: altogether there were 192 places of care, which made provision for 8290 children. The number of places of care include -

- (1) eight vacation camps with accommodation for 659 children, and a few study centres, and
- (2) five infant nursery schools which make provision for 419 children (16, p. 3).

It is thus clear that provision is made for pre-school, as well as school-going children at these places of care.

3.4.3 Control and financing

There are no public nursery schools in the Republic of South Africa and in South-West Africa which are directly controlled and financed by an education department. The existing nursery schools, registered as well as unregistered, came into being at the instigation of private bodies, including church societies, women's organisations, philanthropic societies and individuals and are controlled and either partly or fully financed by them.

(a) Subsidisation of nursery schools by authorities

Nursery schools which require financial support from the authorities and which comply with certain conditions for registration, can be considered for registration with a view to subsidisation. "In all four of the provinces of the Republic of South Africa and in South-West Africa, nursery education is subsidised, subject to certain conditions, by the Administration concerned" (16, p. 7 - translation). "In the Transvaal, Cape Province and Natal, the subsidy is allocated per pupil per annum, with due consideration of the financial capacity of the parent. Subsidies are paid in South-West Africa, regardless of the financial capacity of the parents. In the Orange Free State, assistance is rendered by paying the salaries of the teachers in accordance with the official scales. Parents pay at least R16 per pupil per annum as their contribution towards these salaries. Of this amount, R10 per pupil per annum must be paid into the Provincial Revenue fund, while R6 per pupil per annum may be retained for running costs. In the case of indigent pupils, no levy is required and the Administration pays an amount of R4 per pupil per annum to the nursery schools as a subsidy" (16, p. 7 - translation).

(b) Subsidisation of places of care

"Only a very small number of places of care are subsidised by the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions: The majority are administered on a profit-making basis - " (16, p. 3 - translation).

3.4.4 Parental part in financing

As regards subsidised schools, the position can be summarised as follows: "In all the four provinces and South-West Africa, school fees for nursery education are paid by the parents. Amounts vary from school to school and pupils from impoverished homes are usually exempted from these requirements" (16, p. 7 - translation).

The expenditure of unsubsidised schools and places of care is borne in full by the parents and the fees are usually high, except in cases where church or philanthropic societies render welfare service by establishing facilities and bearing part of the running costs. In places of care, which are subsidised by the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions, parents pay for the care of their children according to their capacities (12, p. 9, 10).

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS REGARDING A PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION SYSTEM FOR THE REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA AND FOR SOUTH-WEST AFRICA

4.1 INTRODUCTORY

It is generally acknowledged that it is in the best interests of the child that he remain in the care of his mother, within the family situation, from birth until the age of at least three years. In this family situation, the child normally experiences the necessary security. Sufficient challenges are also offered him in these surroundings. Most children under the age of three years find enough opportunities for exploration in the domestic milieu and it is on this basis that they can explore their world and shape it into a world of their own. It is usually only in the child's fourth year that he begins to search for something more than that which the average family can offer him. He becomes increasingly intent upon breaking down barriers and experiencing new adventures (including situations outside the domestic context) in order to broaden his horizon. Organised nursery education at institutions which are established for this purpose offer these children new challenges, new experiences and new opportunities for exploration, and the education which they receive in these places serves to supplement the education within the family context.

In the light of the significant and well-nigh indispensable role of the mother and the domestic milieu in the small child's upbringing, it would appear to be extremely undesirable for mothers of children who have not yet attained the age of three years, to work away from home. The ideal situation would be that -

- (1) mothers with children under the age of three years should not work away from home at all, and
- (2) mothers of children aged three years and older, or of primary school children, should be employed on a half-day basis (morning work).

This would mean that -

- (1) no places of care for children under the age of three years would be necessary,
- (2) only half-day places of care would be necessary for pre-schoolers between the ages of three years plus and compulsory school age, and
- (3) no afternoon institutions would be necessary for pre-schoolers or primary school children, since they can then be at home, in the care of their mothers.

However, it appears to be practically impossible, in this country as well as in overseas countries, to achieve the "ideal situation", as set out above, in practice. The working wife and mother is playing an increasingly prominent part in the national economy. At the moment there is only sporadic provision for morning work for mothers of young children so that they can be free to spend the afternoons at home with their children. Many pre-schoolers are consequently dependent on the care of Non-White servants or are placed in pre-school institutions for at least half a day but often for the full duration of a working day. There is also an urgent need, in the case of primary school children whose mothers work full-time, for centres where such children can be cared for after school hours. In order to fulfil this need there are, at present, a variety of institutions in this country as well as in overseas countries which have been established to assist the child in his need for care and education.

4.2 TYPES OF PLACES OF CARE WHICH APPEAR TO BE NECESSARY UNDER PRESENT CIRCUMSTANCES

In the light of the situation in overseas countries and with a view to the factual position in this country, it would appear that, at the present juncture, there is room for the following institutions:

- (1) Infant centres (nurseries, crèches)

There is a need for places of care for young children between the ages of six months and three years, where such children can remain for a half-day or the entire day while the mothers are working. The main emphasis at these centres will naturally fall on safe protection and loving care, but the educational action in the interests of the child must not be neglected.

- (2) Nursery schools

There is also a need for places of care which cater, on a half-day basis, for pre-schoolers between the ages of three plus years and compulsory school age.

Apart from safe protection and care, provision will have to be made for a thoroughly planned education programme which will give the pre-schooler plentiful opportunity of exploring the world around him and gradually establishing his own world, with play and language as the most important aids. (Facilities can be created at one or both of the above-mentioned two institutions for the afternoon care of pre-schoolers who attend nursery schools in the mornings).

4.3 FINDINGS AS REGARDS ESTABLISHMENT, CONTROL AND FINANCING

4.3.1 Findings as regards establishment of institutions

In all the countries involved in this investigation, the authorities, whether central, provincial or local, or some or other government department (health, national welfare) have some say in the establishment of pre-school institutions. The authorities must be consulted in the establishment of such institutions since -

- (1) institutions can only be established subject to their approval, and
- (2) provided that these institutions comply with the set requirements.

In the Republic of South Africa and in South-West Africa, it is not necessary to obtain prior approval from an education department for the establishment of a "nursery school". It is only when subsidisation is at stake that certain requirements which are set by the education authorities as to, inter alia, building and playground standards and staffing, must be met in order to qualify for registration. All pre-school institutions which are not registered with education departments as "nursery schools" and in which six or more children are cared for away from their parents, must be registered with the Department of Social Welfare, in terms of the Children's Act (No. 33 of 1960).

The following decision regarding the establishment of nursery schools has already been taken by the Minister of National Education and was announced by him in his press statement of 13-14 April, 1969. It reads as follows: "The Committee is of the opinion that any person or body should have the right to establish a private nursery school (nursery class) without any financial assistance from the education department concerned, provided that the requirements and standards for registration, as laid down by the education department, are complied with" (par. (g) of the press statement)(translation).

4.3.2 Findings regarding control

Where the authorities do not themselves establish pre-school institutions, it is obvious that, in most cases, they do not exert any direct control over the functions and educational programme of such institutions. In cases where private pre-school institutions receive subsidies from the authorities, there is a certain measure of control, in that the inspectors of the educational authorities regularly visit such institutions to check on the educational programme, among other things.

The divided control of pre-school educational institutions is looked upon as a serious deficiency and a limiting factor in a large number of the overseas countries, as well as in this country. The view is fast gaining ground that a suitably equipped body should have the say in the establishment of pre-school institutions and should be able to control them.

In this country, the establishment of educational facilities, on an organised basis, for pupils of school age is the responsibility of the various provincial education authorities. If organised nursery education is thus considered desirable as a supplement to domestic upbringing, the establishment of pre-school institutions for this purpose should also be the responsibility or fall under the control of the various education departments. These departments, which are the only bodies with the necessary means and experience, are pre-eminently suited to accept this challenge. By also entrusting this facet to the education departments, it will be possible to plan, control and co-ordinate all organised formative and formal education from the informal pre-school stage up to and including Form 12 (the present Std 10) as a continuous unit.

The decisions regarding control of nursery education which have already been taken by the Minister of National Education and which were made public in his press statement of 13-14 April, 1969, read as follows:

- "(i) Nursery education is controlled by the provincial education departments.
- (ii) The existing education ordinances will consequently have to be suitably amended in order to place nursery education under the control of the Director of Education, as the representative of the Provincial Administration" (par. (e) of the press statement) (translation).

4.3.3 Registration of nursery schools

The decision taken by the Minister of National Education regarding the registration of nursery schools, and which was made public in his press statement of 13-14 April, 1969,

reads as follows:

- (i) Registration with the various education departments must be compulsory in the case of all persons and bodies who care for, bring up and educate the minimum prescribed number of pre-schoolers from the age of three years, away from the parental home.
- (ii) In order to comply with registration, particular requirements will have to be met with regard to, inter alia, buildings (according to uniform minimum standards), equipment, qualifications of staff, staffing, enrolment, the educational programme, length of the school day and language medium" (paragraph (f) of the press statement) (translation).

.3.4 Financing of nursery education

The decision which has already been taken by the Minister of National Education with regard to the financing of nursery education, reads as follows in his press statement of 13-14 April, 1969:

"The Committee recommends that the financial aspect be referred to the Conference of Administrators" (paragraph (j) of the press statement) (translation).

4.4 FINDINGS WITH REGARD TO SIZE OF PRE-SCHOOL INSTITUTIONS

4.4.1 Introductory

It is fairly generally accepted that an intimate domestic atmosphere is conducive to a young child's experience of security. This security, which is so essential for the small child, can only be provided at relatively small institutions for the care and education of pre-schoolers. Attempts are consequently made to restrict the size of nursery centres and preference is normally given to centres which can accommodate about 90 pre-schoolers.

4.4.2 Overseas countries

"The official minimum sizes of schools in overseas countries vary from 20 to 40 and the maximum from 50 to 90. The actual minimum sizes vary from 20 to 60 and the maximum from 50 to 100. In England, attempts are made to allow groups of 40 pupils in the larger schools to function as independent units" (17, p. iv - translation).

By way of illustration, the position in only two countries, viz Belgium and West Germany, is briefly outlined:

- (1) In Belgium, urban nursery schools consist of from 1 to 6 classes, but schools with 2 to 3 classes are by far the most common. In the rural areas of Wallonia, the school normally consists of only one class. In Flanders, however, some rural schools have 6, 7 or even 8 classes, as a result of the large number of pre-schoolers (14, p. 84). The authorities try to avoid grouping too many pre-school children in one pre-school complex, except in cases where a high density of population and lack of suitable space leave no other alternative.
- (2) In West Germany, preference is given to small schools and a school providing for 60 to 80 pre-schoolers is regarded as being the most practical and economical in size. The minimum size of a school is put at approximately 30, while the maximum should not exceed 120. When a school reaches maximum enrolment, it is recommended that it should be divided into units (12, p. 35).

4.4.3 The Republic of South Africa and South-West Africa

According to data available for 1968, a total of 293 registered nursery schools provided for 16 596 children, i.e. for approximately 57 per institution in that particular year. The 192 places of care which were registered as such with the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions in 1968, offered accommodation to 8290 children - an average of about 44 per place of care (16, p. 3, 4). The authorities apparently do not lay down any hard and fast rules concerning minimum and maximum sizes of schools. Nursery school associations and principals of nursery schools who were consulted in this regard, put the minimum enrolment at 40 and the maximum at 100 (17, p. v).

4.5 FINDINGS REGARDING LANGUAGE MEDIUM

4.5.1 Introductory

It is generally accepted that language, as the medium in which man thinks, in which he enters into a dialogue with his fellows and on the basis of which he discovers

and regulates his own world, plays a determining and decisive role in a pre-schooler's successful adjustment to a new environment (such as a nursery centre). The fact that he is there addressed in his own language and is able to conduct a dialogue gives him confidence and allows him to feel at home and secure.

The generally accepted principle, namely that a child should be brought up and educated through the medium of his home language, should consequently also be strictly applied in all organised pre-school educational institutions.

The fact that a child is addressed in his own language does not pose any problems in unilingual countries, where it is obviously natural for him to be addressed in his own language by his family, as well as in pre-school and school institutions. In bilingual countries, or in countries where more languages are spoken, the situation involving usage and education in the home language becomes more difficult.

4.5.2 Overseas countries

(a) Countries with only one official language

In all the countries in which only one language is officially recognised (including Sweden, West Germany, the United States of America and the United Kingdom), education in pre-school institutions is provided through the medium of the home language, which serves as the medium of instruction.

(b) Countries with two official languages

Of the countries involved in this investigation, Belgium is the only one with two recognised official languages, viz French and Flemish. Mother tongue instruction is, however, also compulsory in this country. Although the parent may choose the nursery school he wishes his child to attend, such a choice may not clash with the stipulations of the 1963 Act regarding mother tongue instruction. According to this Act, the child's speech is assessed and he is accordingly placed in a school which provides for his language group. Inspectors of education must control this aspect and ensure that the provisions of the law are complied with.

There are certain exceptions, as in cases where minority groups are too small to justify a separate school. In these circumstances, a minority group is formed at a school which primarily serves the other language group. The two language groups are kept apart for all directed activities and addressed in their own language. Apart from the fact that such a regulation is in accordance with the spirit of the Act, it has also been found that it is much easier, from a practical viewpoint, to employ only one language for stories and other directed activities. However, there is no such separation on the playground. Here children can mingle freely, experiment with one another's language and, in so doing, gradually become acquainted with the other official language (12, p. 33, 74, 83, 84; 10, p. 92).

(c) Attitude towards dialects and unofficial languages

(i) Sweden

Since Swedish is the home language of practically the whole population and is, in addition, the only recognised official language, it is used throughout in pre-school institutions as the medium of instruction. In the northern boundary sector, however, where Finnish is the spoken language of a part of the population, attempts are being made to teach pre-schoolers to speak Swedish, with a view to an easier adjustment to primary education (10, p. 228).

(ii) Scotland

Since Gaelic is still the spoken language in parts of Scotland, the staffs of pre-school institutions are encouraged to address the pre-school children in this language, wherever possible. A Gaelic-speaking pre-schooler should under no circumstances be allowed to feel ill at ease because he uses the dialect. The transition to the official language should therefore take place in a natural, relaxed manner (12, p. 74).

(iii) Belgium

The regional language, which is the home language of most of the children (French, Flemish or even German in a small part of the border area) is used as the medium of instruction in the nursery schools of a particular region. In cases where there are children who speak a dialect, as is fairly general among the Wallonians and the Flemish, the nursery school helps such children to switch gradually to the national language of the region concerned (10, p. 92).

(d) Integration of immigrant children who speak foreign languages

(i) England

English nursery schools must make provision for large numbers of immigrant children who speak foreign languages. Since the language development of the immigrants, as well as that of the other children, can suffer if there are too many immigrant children in one school, there is a standing rule that the number of immigrants at a school may not exceed a third of the total enrolment. An attempt is made in this way to acquaint the children with the English language as soon as possible, since this is the only medium of instruction in all pre-school institutions (12, p. 66).

(ii) The United States of America

The transition from the home language of the foreigner to the official language generally takes place very easily. When children whose home language is not English are admitted to a class of English-speaking contemporaries, they learn the language partly by means of mingling with their playmates. In addition, special language teaching is often offered, however, in order to assist them during the transitional period (10, p. 273).

As far as the Spanish-speaking children from Puerto Rico are concerned, it is considered important that they be addressed in their own language at the beginning. This facilitates the integration of such children, after which they are gradually acquainted with the usage of the official language. Teachers are kept informed of the best methods by which English can be taught to children for whom it is a second language (12, p. 58).

(iii) Israel

Although Israel is not one of the countries involved in this investigation, it would appear, for the purposes of this investigation, to be of interest to take note of the way in which the extremely large numbers of immigrant children who speak foreign languages and who come from countries all over the globe, are integrated into the Israeli way of life and are provided with a knowledge of Hebrew. Since many children hail from immigrant families where no Hebrew is spoken, it is considered important that they should be made acquainted with the Israeli way of life and spoken language as soon as possible (thus already in the pre-school period). All children may attend nursery school from their third year but are compelled to do so in the year prior to admission to primary school (18, p. 255).

4.5.3 The Republic of South Africa and South-West Africa

English and Afrikaans-speaking pre-school children, as well as those who speak foreign languages, are found in most pre-school institutions in this country. Naturally, only the official languages are used as the spoken language and medium of instruction, so that each child is addressed in his home language (English or Afrikaans). In South-West Africa, where German is the home language of a large part of the population, it is also recognised as the spoken language and medium of instruction in pre-school institutions.

All nursery school personnel are expected to be sufficiently bilingual to address a pre-school child in his home language and to educate him through this medium. This expectation is obviously only valid in cases where the child's home language is one of the recognised official languages. It is recommended that the medium of instruction at nursery schools should be organised on an interdepartmental basis.

4.6 FINDINGS WITH REGARD TO THE PROVISION OF MEDICAL SERVICES

4.6.1 Introductory

In all the countries involved in this investigation, provision is made on an organised basis for health services to children attending pre-school institutions. The health services at such institutions are provided along more or less the same lines as those applying to primary schools. The service is provided free of charge by local authorities such as municipalities and community councils, local education authorities or the central government. The existing local health services are frequently entrusted with the task but there are also cases where a special school medical service has been established.

4.6.2 Overseas countries

(a) Medical examination on admission

In at least three of the countries involved in this investigation, the requirement has already been laid down that children should be subjected to a thorough medical investigation before entering a pre-school centre. A fourth country is at present considering the desirability of a medical examination on the admission of children to a nursery centre.

It has already been stipulated in the United States of America that the application form for admission should be accompanied by a medical certificate in which an indication must be given, inter alia, of whether the child is free of any infectious diseases. Evidence must also be supplied with regard to the immunisations which the child has successfully undergone.

In West Germany, children are subjected to a thorough medical investigation on admission and cognisance is taken of the immunisations which have already been carried out.

In Belgium, the school medical practitioner must examine every child enrolled at a school.

In England, the desirability is at present being considered of having all the children subjected to a thorough medical examination before they are admitted to a nursery or any other school (12, p. 21, 26, 34, 37; 10, p. 93, 135, 136, 260).

(b) Regular medical examinations

Medical examinations are carried out at regular intervals in all the countries. The time lapse between consecutive examinations naturally differs from country to country. In Sweden, for instance, the only information gleaned was that such examinations, which also involve the staff, take place regularly as part of the health programme (13, p. 6).

(c) Annual examinations

The school health services in England carry out annual inspections at pre-school institutions. In West Germany, regular medical visits and examinations also take place annually. The same pattern is followed in the United States of America and medical examinations which include the personnel are repeated annually (12, p. 21, 26, 37).

(d) Monthly visits

The pre-school institutions in Scotland are visited by the doctor once a month, while nurses may even do so once weekly. The school medical practitioner is expected to visit Belgian schools at least once a month and a report must be sent to the mayor after every visit (12, p. 28, 33, 34).

(e) Specialised services

In addition to the routine medical examinations, most countries also provide many specialised services, such as dental services. The United States of America can serve as an example. Here, the medical service which is provided also includes control over infectious diseases, as well as immunisation against them, in addition to dental treatment and hearing, speech and eye tests. The school medical practitioner in Belgium is assisted, where necessary, by eye, ear, nose, throat and nerve specialists and also by dentists (12, p. 21, 34).

(f) Daily observation and health service

In all the countries, the pre-schooler is closely observed by the staff of the nursery centre as regards cleanliness and state of health. A balanced midday meal is served in most of the full-day nursery centres in order to make partial provision for the children's nutritional requirements, while light, supplementary meals are served at half-day centres. Both the above-mentioned institutions also provide for rest and/or sleep periods in order to prevent over-exertion of the children's physical powers, with its attendant dangers to their health.

4.6.3 The Republic of South Africa and South-West Africa

As a result of the divided control over pre-school institutions, health services are not provided according to hard and fast rules and no particular body is responsible for providing pre-school institutions with medical services. Certain large municipalities do, in fact, at present undertake such services within their municipal areas.

As far as can be ascertained, the provincial hospital services do not, as in the case of schools, provide a health service for pre-school nursery institutions. Individual pre-school children are usually dependent on the services of the family doctor for examination, immunisation and treatment.

It is recommended that the matter of medical services for nursery schools should be organised interdepartmentally.

4.7 FINDINGS REGARDING PROCEDURE FOR ADMISSION

4.7.1 Introductory

In all the countries involved in this investigation, admission to pre-school institutions takes place according to a fixed procedure. Most countries do not at present have sufficient accommodation for all the applicants and are thus compelled to employ preferential admission, according to a fixed procedure. Belgium is an exception to this rule since there are apparently enough facilities to admit everybody who qualifies for admission.

4.7.2 Overseas countries

(a) Application for admission

In most countries parents are required to complete an application form in good time, since there is a shortage of accommodation. There is no need for this in Belgium, where the accommodation is sufficient.

In both the United States of America and the United Kingdom, parents must apply in writing to have their children admitted. Schools in the former country have an application form which must be completed by the parents. The form must be accompanied by a medical report, in which an indication must be given as to the number of successful immunisations the child has already undergone and whether he is free of infectious diseases.

In West Germany, admission takes place on the strength of the recommendation of a social worker, after an investigation into the child's need for care at a pre-school institution. It is not clear whether a parent may approach the social worker personally, or in writing, with the request that his child be considered for admission to a pre-school institution (12, p. 48, 58, 59, 68, 84). In Sweden there are long waiting lists, on which the names of prospective entrants must be placed in the hope of vacancies (13, p. 2).

(b) Selective admission

It appears to be a general principle that, for the purposes of admission, preference is given to neglected children, those who, for some reason or other, are in pedagogical distress, and older children. The decision as to which children have the greatest need for admission is often left to the discretion of the head of the institution.

It is especially in the United Kingdom that the principal of the institution must use his own discretion with regard to admission, basing his decision on the premise that children who are in the greatest need of pre-school institutional care should be given preference in this matter. Although there are no fixed rules for selection, the pressing need of a child with one parent, with badly educated parents or of an only child, a sickly child or a child with sickly parents, is decisive. Older children obtain admission more easily than younger ones. It is only in the case of the children of teachers who wish to resume their occupation that the principal is compelled to admit such children.

The needs of the child also play a decisive role in preferential admission in the United States of America. Since all the children cannot be admitted, preference is given to children over the age of three years. Those who are younger than three years of age and who are in great need of pre-school institutional care may, however, also be admitted. Pre-school institutions which are integrated into the "Head Start Program" give preference to impoverished children and those from poor surroundings.

In West Germany, the need of the child is decisive in the recommendation which is made by the social worker. Approximately two-thirds of the children who attend pre-school institutions are there because both their parents are working or because they have only one parent. The rest are there because they are only children, have speech or emotional problems or have no room in which to play at home (12, p. 48, 58, 59, 68, 74, 84).

(c) Gradual admission

It is generally accepted that gradual admission of new pupils is the most accountable way in which to organise matters. This enables the staff to devote personal attention to newcomers, so that everyone can feel safe and secure in the new environment as soon as possible.

In all the overseas countries involved in this investigation, pre-school children are admitted gradually, in the course of the first few days, or even weeks. The tempo at which this takes place differs from country to country, however. In the United States of America, for instance, pupils are admitted at a rate not exceeding five per day, while in West Germany, not more than fifteen newcomers per day are admitted. In order to make the children feel more at home, parents, but especially mothers, are encouraged to spend a day or part of the day at the nursery centre (12, p. 48, 58, 59, 68, 74, 84).

4.7.3 The Republic of South Africa and South-West Africa

As a result of the divided control over pre-school nursery centres, there is no question of a generally valid or prescribed procedure for admission. Some nursery centres which have insufficient accommodation to cope with applicants, have waiting lists. Principals use their own discretion in admitting pupils. Newcomers can normally only be admitted as vacancies are created by children who leave and thus large numbers of pre-school children are never admitted simultaneously.

4.8 FINDINGS REGARDING GROUPING OF PRE-SCHOOL CHILDREN

4.8.1 Introductory

According to the size of a pre-school institution, the staff have to deal with children whose ages may span a period of six years. It often happens that pre-school children at a nursery centre must, for organisational reasons, be divided into smaller groups and allocated to the various nursery supervisors. The manner in which such a classification is made and groups are formed should bear testimony to the fact that the interests of the child are considered. The individual "otherness" of the pre-school child and the level of development at which he finds himself should be taken into account in his placement in a specific group. The grouping of pre-school children at present usually takes place on the basis of one of two acknowledged forms of grouping, viz age grouping and family grouping.

Age grouping in nursery centres corresponds largely to the method generally applied in the public school system. Pupils of the same age are placed in one group, where possible. In cases where family grouping is employed, children of various ages are placed in the same group. The advocates of this method of grouping claim that it is more natural, since it is very similar to the family situation. The child learns to associate and live together with children of varying ages, as is the case in the household. Younger children are given the opportunity of learning from the older ones.

4.8.2 Overseas countries

Both the above-mentioned methods of grouping are fairly generally applied, although certain countries prefer one method to the other. Age grouping is fairly prevalent in the United States of America, Belgium, West Germany, Sweden and in some Scottish nursery schools. Some of the last-mentioned nursery schools which still apply family grouping are considering the re-institution of age grouping. Family grouping is widely applied in English and Scottish "nursery classes" and "nursery schools". In the United States of America, this method is especially employed at certain model schools which are attached to universities and training colleges.

In England, family grouping is considered to facilitate organisation. Schools which provide for a half-day as well as a full-day programme can group pupils staying for these periods without taking age into consideration. This method also ensures fairly constant groups. The places of children who leave the school or are transferred to the primary school are simply taken by newcomers. This in no way disturbs the grouping of the other pupils.

Family grouping is applied in Belgium in cases where the numbers are too small to justify more than one group and provision has to be made for a minority group using the other official language at a pre-school institution. Family grouping is also applied in West Germany and it is the recommended method of grouping.

In all countries in which family grouping is applied, however, it is sometimes found necessary to differentiate according to age. The differences existing between pre-school children of various ages with regard to level of development, ability to

concentrate and field of interest, make it desirable to separate older children from the younger ones for certain activities which are more in keeping with their level of development. It is sometimes desirable, especially during story time, to group the older children only, while the young ones who are not yet fascinated by a story, are allowed to play (12, p. 50, 60, 61, 69, 70, 77, 85).

4.8.3 The Republic of South Africa and South-West Africa

There is no prescribed or recommended practice of grouping in this country. It can be assumed that both age and family grouping are employed in the classification of pre-school children into manageable groups, according to circumstances.

4.9 FINDINGS REGARDING THE DURATION OF THE HALF-DAY AND FULL-DAY PROGRAMMES AT NURSERY CENTRES, AS WELL AS THE NUMBER OF DAYS PER WEEK ON WHICH PRE-SCHOOL CHILDREN ATTEND THE CENTRES

4.9.1 Introductory

It is obvious that it would be to the advantage of any pre-school child to spend a large part of the day at home, in the care of his mother. For this reason, preference is given in most countries to half-day sessions, i.e. either a morning or an afternoon session. Persons with wide experience in the field of pre-school educational institutions are, in fact, of the opinion that most children derive the greatest benefit from attending half-day sessions. Where mothers work full-time, however, nursery centres are obliged to provide for the care of children for the entire day and the duration of their daily programme is thus adapted to the mothers' working hours.

4.9.2 Overseas countries

In the United States of America, most nursery schools and kindergartens make provision for both a morning and an afternoon session so that it is possible for two separate groups of pre-school children to attend. The duration of these sessions varies according to local conditions and can last for $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 hours. Institutions of care, including "Day Care" and "Family Day Care" centres adapt the duration of their programme to the working hours of mothers who are in employment. Such institutions are consequently open between the hours of 6 a.m. and 6 p.m.

Two considerations, viz (1) that a five-day week is too strenuous for many pre-school children and (2) that as many children as possible should be enabled to attend pre-school institutions, cause various nursery schools to take one group of pupils for only three mornings a week, while a second group attend two morning sessions and one afternoon session (12, p. 51). In both Scotland and England, most "Nursery Schools" or "Classes" offer two sessions daily. This offers the children the following alternatives: (1) to attend the morning session only (usually the youngest children), (2) to attend the afternoon session only, and (3) to spend the entire day at the centre for both sessions. The duration of the morning and afternoon sessions is the same and varies, according to circumstances, from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 hours. The programmes at such centres commence at approximately 8.30 a.m. and last until about 4.30 p.m. The programme in the so-called "Play Groups" and the children's wards of hospitals also lasts for between $2\frac{1}{2}$ and 3 hours. The infant schools, which provide for the children of working mothers, are usually open from 7.30 a.m. to 6 p.m. (12, p. 61, 62, 70).

The Belgian nursery schools all offer a full-day programme, consisting of a morning session of three hours, a lunch hour and an afternoon session of two hours. There are morning sessions only on Wednesdays and Saturdays. Since it is generally felt that a programme extending over a period of 5 hours is too drawn out for young pre-school children, they are allowed to stay at home on other afternoons as well (excepting Wednesday and Saturday). The nursery schools are also closed during the school holidays. The hours of private infant schools are adapted to the working hours of mothers who are in employment. The community centres look after children from the pre-school to the high school stage after school (or nursery school) and during holidays until the mothers return from work (12, p. 77, 78).

German nursery schools are open from 8 a.m. to 6 p.m. and make provision for a morning session, a lunch hour and an afternoon session. Children are not compelled to attend the afternoon session and about one-third of them do, in fact, stay at home. The hours of the "Kinderhort" (Child Centre), which is more specifically aimed at providing care, extend from 7 a.m. to 6 p.m., for the sake of fitting in with the working hours of the parents (12, p. 85).

The Swedish kindergartens make provision for morning and afternoon sessions of three hours each, which are attended by separate groups of children in order to cater for as many pre-school children as possible. Children can remain at the "Day Centres" and "Recreation Centres" from 6.30 a.m. to 6 p.m., if necessary. Everything possible is done,

however, to accommodate the children in these institutions for the shortest possible length of time per day (13, p. 4, 5).

4.9.3 The Republic of South Africa and South-West Africa

Certain of the pre-school institutions make provision for morning sessions only. There are, however, a large number with full-day sessions, where the hours correspond approximately to the working hours of the mothers.

4.9.4 Considerations involving daily and weekly duration of pre-school care and education in the interests of the child

In the planning of the length of the daily sessions, the following matters, at least, should be taken into account:

- (1) That the child should spend the greatest part of the day at home;
- (2) that the pre-school child should not be overburdened by unnecessarily long sessions;
- (3) that the duration of a session should nevertheless be long enough for the execution of a balanced supplementary educational programme; and
- (4) that children who are exposed to pedagogical neglect because their only parent or both parents work all day, should be provided for in full day centres, where the hours will correspond to the working hours of the parents.

4.10 FINDINGS REGARDING STAFFING SCALE

4.10.1 Introductory

The number of children's nurses or nursery supervisors who are allocated to a pre-school care or educational centre, ultimately determines the sizes of the groups which are formed (see also paragraph dealing with grouping). It is quite clear that, especially in the case of the youngest and most helpless children, the groups should be as small as is practically possible and preferably not larger than 10 pupils per group. It is only then that the nurse or teacher can learn to know and understand each child intimately and that individual children can receive adequate attention from the adult who is in contact with them. Only in this way are children able to identify themselves with the nurse or teacher and they very soon feel accepted and secure in the new world of experience constituted by the nursery centre.

Although most countries support a very favourable staffing scale, on the basis of which small, intimate groups can be established, the above-mentioned ideal situation is very seldom achieved in practice, as a result of staff shortages and other problems.

4.10.2 Overseas countries

A staffing scale which provides for one adult for every 10 pre-school children, is aimed at in the care centres and nursery schools of the United States of America. The following numbers are fixed as the ideal in nursery schools:

- (1) One qualified teacher plus one non-professional aide for 10-12 three-year-old pre-school children; and
- (2) one qualified teacher plus one non-professional aide for 15-20 five-year-old pre-schoolers.

In practice, however, only about one-third of the nursery schools have fewer than 25 children per teacher, while the rest vary from 25 to 35 pre-school children per group.

The ratio of 1 adult to 10 pre-school children is maintained in the "Day Care Centres", at which lower qualifications are demanded than in the case of nursery schools. Much use is also made of unqualified aides, among whom are mothers of pre-school children.

In the "Day Nurseries" and "Nursery Schools" of England and Scotland, an adult-child ratio of 1 to 10 is also striven after. As far as the "Nursery Schools" and "Classes" are concerned, the ideal is fixed at one teacher plus one nursery nurse for every 20-25 pre-school children. In the "Day Nurseries", at the head of which are trained nurses with the rank of sister or matron, an endeavour is made to provide for -

- (1) one nursery nurse per 10 children between the ages of 2 and 5; and
- (2) one nursery nurse for 6 children under the age of two years; and
- (3) one nursery nurse for 6 babies or subnormal pre-school children.

In the "Play Groups", attempts are made to have two nursery nurses for every 20-25 pre-school children (12, p. 56, 60, 69).

As regards staffing in Belgium, a distinction is made between pre-school institutions for normal children and those for the handicapped. The staffing scale for institutions which accommodate handicapped children is much more favourable than the scale for institutions which serve normal pre-school children. The staffing scale for normal children is 2 teachers for the first 31 children, with an extra teacher for every 30 additional children. Staffing consequently becomes progressively more unfavourable. (In a school with 31 children and 2 teachers, the ratio is 15.5 to 1, while it deteriorates to 22.8 to 1 in a school with 91 children and 4 teachers.) The staffing scale for abnormal children is as follows:

- (1) Physically handicapped: 1 teacher for the first 10, 2 for the first 16 and a further teacher for every 10 additional children.
- (2) Children with other handicaps: 1 teacher for every 12 children (12, p. 75-77).

The ideal regarding staffing in West Germany is that there should be one trained teacher for every 20 children (25 is stipulated as the absolute maximum). There should, in addition, be one aide for every two teachers. This gives an adult-child ratio of approximately 1 to 10. It is found in practice, however, that there is 1 trained teacher per 30-45 children. A more favourable adult-child relationship is obtained by appointing nursery assistants (kinderpflegerinnen) as aides (12, p. 84).

In Sweden, the staffing scale for "Day Nurseries" is more favourable than that for kindergartens. The staff for kindergartens, who consist of trained teachers, are provided on the basis of 1 teacher per 20 children. Each teacher has to take two sessions a day, however, and thus serves two groups of twenty children each. Staffing for the "Day Nurseries" is as follows:

- (1) Children under the age of 2 years: 10 per adult;
- (2) children between the ages of 2 and 3 years: 12 per adult; and
- (3) children of 3 years of age and over: 15 per adult.

The staffs of these institutions consist of nursery teachers as well as nursery nurses.

4.10.3 The Republic of South Africa and South-West Africa

As a result of divided control, there is no uniformity regarding staffing, since no prescribed, generally valid staffing scale exists. In the case of the subsidised nursery schools, the provinces have some authority with regard to staffing and can ensure that the ratio of teachers to children does not become too unfavourable.

According to available figures for 1968, there were 293 nursery schools registered as such with education departments in that year. There were altogether 908 teachers at these schools, which made provision for 16 596 children. This gives a teacher-child ratio of approximately 18:1.

Of the 192 places of care, with accommodation for 8290 children, which were registered with the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions on 31.5.1968, no adult-child ratio could be calculated because the number of members of staff was not indicated (16, p. 2, 3).

4.11 FINDINGS REGARDING MAINTENANCE OF RECORDS AND REPORTS

4.11.1 Introductory

It is generally assumed that the keeping of certain records and reports on the pre-school child can serve a useful purpose, provided that this is done in an accountable manner. It is also thought that certain reports, including personal and medical reports, obtain even greater utilitarian value if they can be sent with the child to the primary school.

4.11.2 Overseas countries

In most of the overseas countries, the following records are kept with regard to each pre-school pupil:

- (1) The application form for admission;
- (2) the medical report; and
- (3) a personal report, based on the observation of the teacher/nursery supervisor.

In some countries, including Belgium and the United States of America, all the documents referring to a pre-school child are placed in his personal file. In the case of Belgium children, the personal file of each pupil is sent to the primary school at which he later enrolls. The information contained therein serves as a guide for the primary school teacher and acquaints her with the child's background.

The keeping of a medical report on every child is an accepted procedure in all the countries involved in the investigation. It appears that, in the case of England, Scotland and Belgium, the above-mentioned medical report accompanies the child when he proceeds to another school.

The personal report on individual pre-school children is based on the observation of the teacher/nursery supervisor in respect of, inter alia, his development, his personal relationships as revealed in the association between the child, his contemporaries and adults, his field of interest and possibilities and his participation in or withdrawal from certain activities. Reporting to the parent on this matter usually takes the form of a discussion, during which the parents, as well as the nursery school supervisor, often arrive at a better understanding of the child. A written report is submitted to parents in exceptional cases only (12, p. 55, 64, 65, 71, 72, 81, 86).

4.11.3 The Republic of South Africa and South-West Africa

There is no prescribed or generally valid procedure with regard to the keeping of records and reports. In cases where records and reports are, in fact, kept, it is thanks to the initiative and sound judgement of the school principal and nursery school supervisor(s), or it is done on the recommendation of one of the acknowledged Nursery School Associations.

4.12 FINDINGS REGARDING PLANNING OF THE PHYSICAL SPACE OF THE NURSERY CENTRE

4.12.1 Introductory

Most countries act on the assumption that any planned pre-school care and/or educational programme can only be effectively carried out in a thoroughly planned physical space. This space includes the building in which the children are accommodated, as well as the surrounding playground with its facilities. The educational programme obviously makes certain demands as regards playgrounds, buildings, facilities and equipment. The efficacy of the building, playground and equipment or the lack of it can thus possibly affect the standard of the care and/or educational work which is performed at such an institution.

All the countries involved in this investigation consequently lay down certain minimum requirements with which buildings and playgrounds must comply. These pre-determined minimum requirements must also be satisfied with regard to equipment and other facilities. Not only the effective functioning of the care and educational programme, but also the safeguarding of the child's health and the promotion of his physical well-being are taken into account in the determination of the above-mentioned minimum requirements.

The existing buildings and playgrounds obviously do not all satisfy the requirements in every respect but care is normally taken to ensure that the minimum requirements are complied with in the erection of new buildings.

4.12.2 Sites

(a) Situation and distribution of sites

(i) Introductory

Since pre-school nursery centres should serve the interests of children in a

certain residential area, it is important that sites be chosen which are situated as centrally as possible in the area which must be catered for. Practical considerations, such as easy accessibility by means of fairly quiet streets can, however, also play a determining role.

(ii) Overseas countries

The policy in most countries is that the nursery centre should preferably be within easy walking distance of the children's homes. As a result of the dense concentration of population in the urban areas of European countries, it is very seldom necessary for children to walk more than a few blocks to the nursery centre. Here, the demand determines the distribution of pre-school facilities. Sites are often very difficult to obtain in heavily built-up urban complexes.

In the urban areas of the United States of America, preference is given to nursery centres which are within walking distance of the children's homes, i.e. not more than half a mile. In less densely populated or in rural areas where bus transport is necessary, the nursery centre should preferably be reached by bus within half an hour at the utmost (19, p.16).

In Sweden also, much importance is attached to the easy accessibility of nursery centres. Preference is given to sites for centres within a district or community which are within ten minutes' walking distance of the children's homes. These centres should, in addition, preferably be situated in a quiet environment and should be easily accessible by means of safe roads with relatively little traffic (13, p. 8).

(b) Size of sites

(i) Introductory

In order to be functionally effective, the site of a nursery centre should be large enough, after allowance has been made for buildings, to ensure that there is sufficient room for the children to play. Most countries do, in fact, lay down regulations regarding the number of square feet of playing space per child, for which provision must be made on the site.

(ii) Overseas countries

It is assumed in Sweden that every child requires an outdoor playing space of at least 161 square feet (13, p. 8). In the United Kingdom, the minimum requirement is put at 100 square feet (12, p. 165), while the figure for the United States of America is 75 square feet (12, p. 165). Some experts are of the opinion, however, that it should be as much as 100 - 200 square feet per child (11, p. 54; 19, p. 16). In West Germany, as well as in Belgium the minimum requirement per child is 64 square feet (12, p. 165).

(iii) The Republic of South Africa and South-West Africa

Two of the provinces lay down a playing space of at least 60 square feet per child as one of the requirements for the registration of nursery schools, with a view to subsidisation (16, p. 17).

(c) Planning and lay-out of sites

(i) Introductory

It is generally considered desirable that the planning of the building and the lay-out of the site should be done simultaneously. It is also accepted that provision should be made on a well-planned playground for -

- (1) intimate, sheltered playing nooks for each individual nursery group, right next to their interior playing space, if at all possible; and
- (2) joint or communal playgrounds for all the children, in which there should be provision, inter alia, for hard surfaces such as paths for wheeled toys, storage space for wheeled toys and garden tools, paved surfaces, space for running (lawns), sandpits, bushes and flower beds and a special space for large fixed outdoor playing apparatus such as, for example, swings and slides.

(ii) Overseas countries

The nature and situation of the site exercise a determining influence in respect

of the placement and lay-out of the building, as well as on the planning and lay-out of the playground. For this reason, none of the countries lay down requirements for the lay-out of the site. Minimum requirements with regard to, inter alia, paved surfaces and sandpits, are laid down in some cases. Even such regulations should be flexible, however, since local conditions can be determinative. In cases where there are no regulations at all, therefore, the minimum stated requirements are not regarded as absolutely binding. The following assertions can be made with regard to paved surfaces and sandpits:

(1) Paved surfaces

Local weather conditions exert a decisive influence with regard to the necessity for and the area of paved surfaces. An example which may serve as an illustration is the fact that only in the United Kingdom, with its misty, damp weather conditions, are requirements laid down in connection with paved surfaces. Here, for instance, there is a regulation which stipulates that at least 40 of the 100 square feet of outdoor playing space per child should be paved (12, p. 176). The weather conditions in the high rainfall regions of the United States of America create the need for larger paved surfaces. It is sometimes necessary to cover the entire playground with a hard surface and to build roofs over the paved portions, since this would be the only way of providing a dry outdoor playground. In contrast, there is little need for paved surfaces in the low rainfall regions of this country (12, p. 176). In most countries, there is a mere reference to the necessity for paved surfaces, on which children can play with wheeled toys, among other things.

(2) Sandpit

It is generally accepted that sand is, and ought to be, an ideal and even universal means of play as a result of its plasticity and transformability. Most countries lay great stress on the fact that hygienic considerations should be of paramount importance in the construction and maintenance of sandpits. Weather conditions should be considered in the placement of such a pit. These will determine, inter alia, whether it would be desirable to have an outdoor sandpit or a sand-box mounted on wheels, which can also be used indoors in unpleasant weather conditions.

Certain countries lay down minimum requirements with regard to the size of sandpits. In the United States, a size of 144 square feet per 40 children is laid down (12, p. 178). There are no minimum requirements in Belgium and West Germany but preference is given to a large number of smallish sandpits. In the United States of America, sand-boxes mounted on wheels, which can be used indoors as well as out, are regarded as the most useful. However, such boxes are obviously limited in size (12, p. 177, 178).

4.12.3 Building standards

(a) Introductory

Since the effectiveness of the building can have a decisive influence on the execution of the proposed care or educational programme, all the countries involved in this investigation lay down certain standards or norms with regard to the size and construction of the buildings. However, none of the countries have attempted to draw up standard plans, since varying local conditions would obviously result in great adaptations. It is usually left to the architect to place the building and plan it from the inside, with the lay-out of the site in mind. He is, however, bound by the necessity of making provision for certain rooms which, experience has taught, have appeared to be necessary for nursery centres, as well as for the minimum sizes of these rooms, which are laid down by regulation.

(b) Overseas countries

(i) Introductory

In most countries, the following are considered necessary: Playrooms and washing and toilet facilities for the children, a kitchen, an administrative room (principal's office), a staff room with toilet facilities for the members, passages and verandahs and indoor storage space. Minimum requirements are laid down with regard to the floor space of each of the above-mentioned rooms.

(ii) Rooms which are specifically intended for pre-school children

The following rooms are essential:

(1) Playrooms

The playroom is generally acknowledged to be the most important room in the nursery centre, because all the indoor educational and play activities take place there, while, on occasion, it also serves as a place in which to eat, sleep and rest. The most effective playroom has appeared to be a large square room without subdivisions, in which the nursery supervisor can create separate play, story or other nooks. An intimate outdoor play nook is usually created immediately in front of such a playroom. It serves as an extension of the indoor playing space and as a bridge to the communal playground. This intimate outdoor play nook is often in the form of a covered, paved verandah.

In all the countries involved in the investigation, the playrooms must conform to minimum standards in respect of floor area. Although this obviously varies from country to country, a minimum floor space of approximately 30 square feet per child is accepted as the norm in practically all countries. The minimum permissible floor area varies from approximately 21 square feet per child in the West German States to 35 square feet per child in the United States of America. A further recommendation in America is that no playroom should be smaller than 720 square feet, irrespective of whether the size of the group justifies it (19, p. 16; 12, p. 138).

In addition to the usual playroom space, calculated at 30 square feet per child in Belgian schools, an additional spacious playroom, calculated at 10 square feet per child is provided for every 90 children. This pushes up the total available playing space per child to 40 square feet (12, p. 138). In Sweden, the floor area per child is determined according to the age of the children, as follows:

- (1) 5 plus years: 32 square feet per child;
- (2) younger than five years: 38 square feet per child; and
- (3) the youngest children: 43 square feet per child.

The latest recommendation of the "Social Welfare Board" is that, in the planning of new nursery centres, the following will serve as the minimum area per child:

- (1) youngest children: 54 square feet per child; and
- (2) all other children: 43 square feet per child.

The idea behind this recommendation is that the larger rooms will not only be more useful but that normal wear and tear will be limited as a result (13, p. 7).

(2) Cloak-rooms and toilet facilities

Everything is done to plan clean and effective cloak-room and toilet facilities for the children. In order to ensure cleanliness, the requirement is laid down that walls should be tiled or finished in washable paint, while floors have to consist of hard and serviceable material which can easily be cleaned. The cloak-room and toilet facilities usually form a continuous whole, adjacent to the playroom and accessible from the playground. The partition between the playroom and cloak-rooms usually consists of low walls with glass panels above them, since this facilitates supervision.

(iii) Floor space

None of the countries lay down minimum requirements in respect of the floor area of cloak-rooms and toilets. The latest model plans in the United States of America make provision, however, for 7 square feet per child, while the figures for the United Kingdom, West Germany and Belgium are 7.5, 7.7 and 8.6 square feet per child respectively (12, p. 150).

(iv) Equipment for children

The equipment under discussion comprises the following:

(1) Wash-basins

The wash-basins are adapted to the needs of pre-school children according to size, height at which installed and manageability. The fact that the washing of hands is usually a directed activity, i.e. part of a planned programme, is usually taken into consideration in the determination of the number of wash-basins which are required. It is consequently necessary for a large number of children to be able to wash their hands within a reasonably short space of time and there must be enough facilities to eliminate unnecessary waiting. The minimum number of wash-basins which are demanded varies greatly, for example from 1 per 4 children in the United States of America and 1 per 5 in the United Kingdom to as few as 1 per 12 children on the European continent (12, p. 143).

(2) Toilets (cisterns)

The heights of the seats and handles are adapted to the size of pre-school children. A plastic, horseshoe-shaped seat is generally recommended. Separate booths are approximately 30 inches in width and are separated from each other by means of a low partition of 42 inches. Doors are not recommended and are seldom found. Separate facilities for boys and girls are not considered necessary. The required minimum number of cisterns is at present put at 1 per 14 children in the United States of America and at 1 per 10 in the United Kingdom and on the European continent. The latest model plans in the United States of America also make provision for 1 cistern per 10 children (12, p. 147, 148).

(3) Mirrors

There are no regulations governing the provision of mirrors. Experienced nursery supervisors nevertheless consider it imperative that there should at least be a mirror above each wash-basin (12, p. 145).

(4) Clothing lockers

A multipurpose clothes locker with room for shoes, garments and personal possessions as well as hanging space for a towel are considered necessary for each child. Although there are no regulations in this connection, such personal lockers are indeed provided. Varying designs are to be found, of which some incorporate a seat in the lower section.

(v) Rooms which are specifically intended for the staff

(a) Staff room

Staff rooms are not considered a prerequisite in the United States of America. However, in the United Kingdom it is required that a staff room with cloak, washing and toilet facilities be provided. The staff room is occasionally used for medical examinations. Virtually all the West German states require that a nursery centre with more than 4 staff members should have a staff room (12, p. 151, 152).

(b) Principal's office

The United States of America, the United Kingdom, Belgium and West Germany follow the policy of having an office for the principal. The principal's office sometimes also serves as a reception room for visitors and a tea room for the staff. The latest trend in the United Kingdom is for a larger office for the principal which, with the addition of small kitchen, must also serve as a staff room (12, p. 150-152).

(vi) Other rooms and spaces

(a) Kitchen

There are no specific regulations governing the provision of kitchen facilities. In some countries where the children attend both a morning and an afternoon session, a pantry and even a dining-room are provided.

(b) Store-room

None of the countries make any specific provision for storage space. However,

most nursery centres possess adequate storage space for material and cots in each playroom as well as separate central space for general stock and cleaning materials.

(c) Passages and verandahs

There is a general attempt to limit the space taken up by passages to a minimum. In the latest model plans passages only appear where they constitute the only possible means of linking rooms.

Passages and verandahs take up approximately 30% of the total area of the building in the model plans. It can be assumed that verandahs represent the major part of this. Paved and covered verandahs which are directly in front of the playrooms are generally used as intimate outside playrooms, supplementary to those indoors.

4.13 FINDINGS WITH REGARD TO THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMME

4.13.1 The nature of the educational programme

(a) Introductory

The educational programme of the nursery centre must make provision for activities which are directed towards the moulding of the child through the development of all his potentialities. That which is offered the children in such a programme corresponds far more closely to what should be offered the child within the family context than to formal school education. Although such a programme also advances the acquisition of knowledge, this does not take place in a formal scholastic way, but in an informal, incidental way. The pre-school child acquires knowledge by playing and engaging in practical activities.

Most programmes make provision for directed and free activities indoors and outdoors. Habit-forming activities, opportunity for linguistic development, adequate opportunities for play, safe-guarding of health, physical exercise, music and singing, resting and sleeping are all important facets of a balanced, pedagogically accountable programme. The sequence of the different activities and the transition from one activity to the next, require careful planning. The children must progress from one activity to the next in a natural, easy manner in small groups without wasting time and definitely without regimentation. In order to comply with all these requirements, a programme must be flexible, usable, adaptable and stimulating without being over-stimulatory.

The daily activities incorporated in the programme must be determined in the light of a group of pre-school children's needs. However, the individual child's development must not be indivisibly bound to that of the group, since each child should be allowed to develop at his own tempo.

(b) Overseas countries

(i) Introductory

Most countries merely lay down general guidelines along which the educational programme should be pursued. Only in Belgium, where nursery education forms an integral part of the school system, is the daily lesson time-table prescribed by the authorities. Pre-school institutions in other countries enjoy considerable freedom as regards the implementation of the programme decided upon.

(ii) Belgium

The most important objective of the education offered by nursery schools is: the highest possible "development" of the pre-school child's personality to the advantage of himself and society. This must supplement the upbringing which the child receives at home and ensure a meaningful transition from family life to actual school life. It must be assumed that although all pre-school children, derive benefit from nursery education, not everyone needs it for the same length of time. Thus not everyone (and particularly the youngest children) needs a full-day programme and it is not necessary for everyone to attend nursery school for the full three years.

The lesson time-table for each day is prescribed by the Ministry of National Education and Culture. The teacher must, however, plan the daily activities according to the group for which she is responsible and make adjustments where necessary. By reason of the prescribed lesson time-table the approach

is very formal so that all the children in a given class group are usually engaged in the same activities at the same time, except during free playing time. The activities usually last for 30 minutes and apart from a daily period of free play out of doors, usually take place indoors.

The educational programme makes provision for -

- (1) linguistic experience and development, for which the teacher's example is extremely important and which includes the learning of rhymes, a story hour and looking at picture books;
- (2) aesthetic education, during which children are made conscious of the pure and beautiful things around them;
- (3) singing and music in various forms;
- (4) free play;
- (5) physical exercise;
- (6) the practice of handicrafts;
- (7) "intellectual development" which does not take place through direct instruction but through the influence and quality of the environment; and
- (8) an individualized approach to the older children particularly, to whom preparatory activities and exercises are offered with a view to linguistic development and reading and calculating readiness. (However, no formal reading and arithmetic lessons are given.) (12, p. 78-80.)

(iii) The United Kingdom

(a) England

The most important objective striven after in the educational programme is the "general development" of the child. Since it is reasoned that the nursery school functions as a supplement to domestic upbringing, nursery education is not regarded as equally important for children from good and poor domestic environments. While children from good environments do not necessarily have to attend the half-day programme for five days a week, it is felt that children from poor environments even need a full-day programme.

The average programme seldom makes provision for an activity in which all the children in a group can engage simultaneously. For this reason two adults per group are needed, so that, for example, half of the group can listen to a story while the other half continues with other activities. Light refreshments are even served on an informal basis and everyone continues with his own activity when he has eaten. However, children in the same group do come together for rhythmic activities, music and singing. Mealtimes are also communal and everyone rests thereafter.

Although the rhythms and patterns differ, there are nevertheless great similarities between the programmes at half-day and whole-day centres as regards content. Periods of active play are alternated with rest periods in both cases. Weather permitting, children are allowed to play outside. A great variety of material and activity is offered to the pre-school child. The activities offered are directed towards -

- (1) the pre-school child's muscle control;
- (2) eye-hand co-ordination;
- (3) perceptive ability;
- (4) development of intellect;
- (5) exercising his powers of observation;
- (6) developing his feeling for music and rhythm;

- (7) making him as independent as possible;
- (8) teaching him to mix with other children;
- (9) stimulating his love for and interest in books; and
- (10) developing his linguistic ability (12, p. 62 - 64).

(b) Scotland

The nursery education programme is planned with the "general development" of the pre-school child in view, and to serve as a supplement to the upbringing which the child receives at home. Attempts are being made to provide for the following activities in the daily programme:

- (1) A musical activity, including singing, rhythmic movement, percussion band and listening to records;
- (2) linguistic activities such as listening to stories and dramatisation;
- (3) project work, during which both linguistic development and expansion of the vocabulary enjoy attention;
- (4) handicraft activities, during which children are given the opportunity of manipulating various materials;
- (5) play activities which also make provision for muscular development; and
- (6) the opportunity of playing housie-housie - baking, cooking, needle-work and cleaning.

As in England, no definite lesson time-table is followed and all the children in a given group are seldom engaged in the same activity (12, p. 70 - 72).

(iv) The United States of America

The aim of the educational programme is to help bring about the full unfurling of each pre-school child's potential. Bearing this in mind, the gaps in pre-schoolers' experience, resulting from poor environmental influences, must be traced early on with a view to ameliorating them.

A thoroughly planned but flexible and informal curriculum is suggested as ideal and should include the following: Sensory, creative and intellectual experiences in music, art, language and literature, science, arithmetic and social studies.

The programme must give the child adequate opportunity for listening and speaking and thus developing his linguistic ability. All activities must be adapted to the child's "level of development" and potential so that he can undertake them successfully and experience a feeling of adequacy.

The importance of free play outdoors and of creative activities with raw and scrap material (which does not receive its due in some programmes) is at present being re-emphasised. The daily programme should be balanced, take into account the child's developmental needs and make provision for the following activities:

- (1) Morning inspection: Particular attention must be paid to changes in the child's appearance, health and behaviour.
- (2) Adequate variation: Periods of active involvement must be followed by quiet play.
- (3) Play activities which create learning experiences for the group and the individual.
- (4) Provision of light refreshments which may sometimes include a period of relaxation and conviviality.
- (5) Rest periods (sleep) or a quiet period of listening to music or stories.

(6) Toilet routine

(7) Play out of doors

(8) A balanced midday meal (at whole-day institutions) in the preparation and serving of which, those children who capable of doing so, can assist (12, p. 51-54).

(v) West Germany

Here there is particular emphasis upon the educational aspect of the pre-school programme. Some states require that the programme contribute towards children's school-readiness with a view to a successful transition to primary education. However, no formal instruction may be given. It is strongly emphasised that a domestic atmosphere must be created in the nursery centre, within which the pre-school child is given the opportunity of playing as he does at home.

No prescribed educational programme exists. It is trusted that the nursery supervisor's training and knowledge of pre-school children at different stages of development will enable her to plan a programme which provides for all needs. However, a few guidelines are supplied as to what the programme ought to contain. Most programmes also make provision for -

- (1) musical experience in singing, percussion and Orff instruments;
- (2) physical exercise;
- (3) a variety of handicraft activities;
- (4) linguistic development;
- (5) imaginative play; and
- (6) free play (12, p. 85-86).

(vi) Sweden

The object of the educational programme is to bring about the development of the child's potential. It is therefore not only directed towards the intellectual aspect but touches on the physical, social and spiritual components.

Full account is taken of the potential of pre-school children of different ages in the planning and implementation of the programme. This is done as follows:

(1) Pre-school children younger than three years of age are not yet mature enough to work or play together in groups and are thus permitted to play freely by themselves, thus spontaneously developing the different facets of their personalities and personal interests. Every opportunity offered for group play should be utilised, however, but without compulsion.

(2) Pre-school children between the ages of 4 and 7 are also allowed to play freely with toys which they select themselves. This gives the nursery supervisor the opportunity of observing each child and offering help and guidance if necessary. Playthings which offer creative possibilities, such as paper, paint, needlework, woodwork and building requisites, in particular, are made available to this group. This age group is gradually given more and more group activities. Regular group meetings are held and children are encouraged to talk, relate, sing or play group games for a short while.

Attempts are made to arouse interest in the world among the 5 to 7 year-olds in such groups and to make them acquainted with it. Taking points of interest such as ships, trains or aircraft as a point of departure, a visit is planned to a harbour, for instance. Beforehand, pictures and other material concerning harbours and shipping are collected, stories are told, modelling and drawing done, after which the visit is planned and made. In this way the children do not only acquire useful, integrated knowledge, but their interests are stimulated, they learn to work in groups and they have good opportunities for linguistic development. The programme does not provide for instruction in formal reading, writing or arithmetic, but children who are mature enough and show a spontaneous interest are supplied with preparatory

practising material which promotes reading and learning readiness (13, p. 12, 13).

(vii) The Republic of South Africa and South-West Africa

An investigation which is orientated towards the educational programme which is at present followed in subsidised nursery schools, reveals the following:

- (1) there is no generally applicable prescribed programme in existence, but as a result of the influence of -
 - (i) Nursery school associations,
 - (ii) the "Manual of Nursery School Associations" (20, p. 29-44), and
 - (iii) the Inspectors of Education.

The existing programmes nevertheless reveal a great many similarities.

- (2) A distinction is drawn between the two to three-year-old group and the four to six-year-old group as regards the duration of the activities. However, the programme is flexible enough to make provision for the lengthening or shortening of activities depending on whether the children evince interest or boredom.
- (3) the average programme provides for -
 - (i) indoor play and activities, including group activities such as singing, stories, directed play as well as play with manipulative apparatus, creative activities and imaginative play;
 - (ii) outdoor play which can be free or directed and which makes a particular contribution towards social and physical development; and
 - (iii) routine activities, such as washing hands, enjoying refreshments, resting and sleeping, toilet routine, medical and dental examinations.
- (4) No provision is made for formal school instruction in reading, writing and arithmetic in the programmes of subsidised nursery schools (16, p. 26, 27). A few unsubsidised nursery schools offering formal instruction in these subjects disrupt the informal nature of pre-school educational activity and thus charm the pre-school child who, at this stage, particularly needs a supplement to and expansion of his domestic upbringing.

With regard to the educational programme, the Minister of National Education made public the following in his press statement of 13-14 April, 1969:

" A well-planned programme should make provision for scientifically accountable content and practices such as -

- (i) activities promoting social development;
- (ii) opportunity for creative activities and self-expression;
- (iii) activities promoting the enrichment or development of active and passive language mastery;
- (iv) activities and play to exercise the intellectual capacity;
- (v) play or activities orientated towards movement and thus bringing about muscular development;
- (vi) opportunity for aesthetic moulding; and
- (vii) habit-forming activities such as handwashing, toilet routine, etc." (Paragraph (i) of the press statement.) (Translated)

4.13.2 Control over the implementation of the educational programme

(a) Overseas countries

Nursery centres are visited by inspectors of education in all the countries where such centres are under the control of an education authority. The inspectors check on the manner in which the educational programme is implemented and advise the staff where necessary. In those countries where nursery centres fall under other government departments, the buildings and facilities are inspected by officials from the departments concerned. Inspectors from educational authorities also sometimes visit such centres at the invitation of the government departments in order to check on the implementation of the educational programme. Some private nursery centres have their own inspectors while others invite the educational authorities' inspectors to carry out inspections (12, p. 65, 72, 81, 82, 86).

(b) The Republic of South Africa and South-West Africa

All nursery schools registered at education departments and subsidised by them are subject to inspection by provincial inspectors of education. The inspectors usually report on the facilities of the nursery school and the manner in which the educational programme is implemented.

Unsubsidised institutions are naturally not subject to any control by the authorities. However, if such institutions are affiliated to the Nursery School Association, representatives from this body are sent to inspect the nursery school.

Aspects of care in institutions subsidised or registered by the Department of Welfare and Pensions are checked on by inspectors from the department. However, there is no control over the educational aspects of such institutions.

With regard to control over the implementation of the educational programme, the following decision has already been taken by the Minister of National Education and made public in his press release of 13-14 April, 1969:

"All nursery schools, including non-subsidised ones, should be subject to inspection. Inspection must be carried out by the inspectors of the education department with which the nursery school is registered. The nature of the inspection will be determined by the broad objectives of nursery education and it will have to be determined whether the demands and standards laid down for registration are satisfied". (Par. (h) "Inspection of nursery schools" of the press release.) (Translation)

4.14 FINDINGS WITH REGARD TO SELECTION AND TRAINING OF PERSONNEL

4.14.1 Introductory

The successful implementation of any planned system of pre-school education depends largely on the thoroughly trained, dedicated, competent nursery school supervisor. Her personality, intellectual ability, language usage, respect for the individual "otherness" of each child, her sympathetic approach and conception of his needs, as well as her insight into his potential, are decisive as regards the course of that which is planned.

In order to ensure that nursery school supervisors will be equal to their task, the responsible authorities see to it that -

- (1) selection takes place mainly on the strength of personality traits;
- (2) minimum entrance requirements as regards scholastic qualifications and age on admission are prescribed; and
- (3) specialised training courses are offered. (Countries which also make use of trained auxiliary staff, offer special training courses for them.)

4.14.2 Overseas countries

(a) Selection and training of nursery school teachers

(i) Selection

Personality traits, in particular, are subjected to scrutiny in the course of selection. Students who are not sufficiently patient and affectionate towards pre-school children are advised to discontinue the course. People who tend to dominate others are advised not to take the course since it is felt that the pre-school child should not be dominated and tyrannised in an institution but rather given the opportunity to explore the world and make it his own under the sympathetic guidance of an adult.

In West Germany the initial selection takes place during the practical year which precedes the two-year training course. The test school's evaluation of the student's potential and their findings with regard to her suitability for nursery instruction are decisive for admission. However, selection is actually continued during the trial year which follows upon the completion of the training course. In other words, a diploma is only issued to nursery school teachers who proved themselves to be suited to nursery education during the trial year.

Long periods of practical teaching are prescribed in all the countries and during these, the students' aptitude and suitability for nursery education are evaluated by lecturers and serving nursery school teachers (12, p. 104, 116).

(ii) Minimum admission requirements

In order to gain admission, students must have reached the required level of education and sometimes also a prescribed minimum age. The admission requirement for a course in nursery education in most of the countries involved in this investigation is the secondary school-leaving certificate (more or less comparable to the school-leaving or matriculation certificate in this country). The required minimum age varies from 17 to 19 years of age (12, p. 122). Belgium, however, is an exception to this rule. Belgian students are admitted to a nursery training course at a Lower Normal School on completion of their junior intermediate educational cycle (at approximately 15 years of age) (12, p. 115, 122).

In Sweden, where both male and female applicants are admitted to the nursery training course, candidates must be at least 19 years of age. Apart from secondary school qualifications, they must also have extensive practical experience. They must have undergone training in child welfare, have studied for a term at a pre-school institution and worked for at least two months in a household with pre-school children. Other kinds of experience which are considered valuable are, nursing of the sick, recreational guidance to young people and other types of work with children. Many of the applicants who succeed in gaining admission to the course are also qualified nursery nurses, who, on the strength of their training and experience, find it possible to comply with the demanding requirements (13, p. 10).

(b) Types of institution at which the training of nursery school teachers takes place

In a 1961 survey by Unesco, in which 63 countries were involved, 84 per cent of the countries indicated that they make provision for special training of nursery school teachers. As regards the type of institution in which training takes place -

- (1) 43 per cent of the countries have special training schools or colleges, and
- (2) in 37 per cent of the countries, training takes place at ordinary colleges of education and universities (17, p. 126).

Most of the countries involved in the present investigation, train nursery school teachers at ordinary colleges of education or at universities. In Sweden, however, it would seem that such students are only trained at colleges especially founded for this purpose (13, p. 9, 10).

(c) Types of courses offered

It appeared from a survey involving six European countries, as well as the United States of America and Australia, that the following types of training course are offered:

- (1) A three-year special course in nursery education;
- (2) a three-year combined course in nursery and junior education;
- (3) a three-year course in junior work, followed by one year of specialisation in nursery education;
- (4) a four-year combined course with concurrent training in junior and nursery work; and
- (5) a four-year special course for the training of nursery school principals (17, p. 127, 128).

The following courses are offered in the countries involved in the present investigation:

- (1) Sweden: A purely nursery course lasting for two years (13, p. 9, 11).
- (2) West Germany: A purely nursery course lasting for two years. After three years of practical experience a further one-year training course can be taken to equip the

student as a youth leader (12, p. 118).

- (3) Belgium: A four-year course, of which the first two years are generally formative in nature, with specialisation in either lower or nursery education in the following two years (12, p. 115).
- (4) United States of America: A four-year combined training course for both nursery and primary school teachers (this covers the education of children between the ages of 3 and 11 years) (12, p. 105, 106).
- (5) England: A combined three-year course, covering the education of children from 2 to 11 years of age (12, p. 111).
- (6) Scotland: Training which extends over four years and consists of a three-year primary school teaching course, followed by a one-year specialised course in nursery education (12, p. 113).

4.14.3 The Republic of South Africa and South-West Africa

(a) Selection and training of nursery school teachers

(i) Selection

No evidence could be found that admission is preceded by any form of selection.

4.14.4 A comparison between the combined course and the course dealing purely with nursery work

(a) Introductory

Only two of the countries involved in this investigation offer purely nursery work classes. All the others combine junior work and nursery work in one course lasting for three or four years.

Protagonists of the combined course are of the opinion that it has certain important advantages over the specialised nursery work class, among which are -

- (1) the broader moulding which it offers, and
- (2) the possibility of an easy transition of staff members from a nursery school to a primary school and vice versa, which opens the gate to better utilisation of available learning powers.

Opponents feel, however, that a combined course -

- (1) will have to last far longer in order to do justice to both directions; and
- (2) might tend to water down and even abridge both fields of study because it still has to be fitted into the available time.

As regards content, there are naturally considerable differences between the Junior Work course and the Nursery Work course. Even the combined course, in which the most important elements of both courses should be compended, still differs materially from the purely Nursery Work course. However, one cannot deny that there are also similarities between the courses as regards subjects and subject content.

(b) Major points of similarity

The most significant correspondence lies in the large and meaningful space which is allocated in all the courses mentioned for the acquisition of practical experience.

The two countries which offer a purely Nursery Work course, viz Sweden and West Germany, demand extensive practical experience as a condition for admission. In West Germany, prospective students are required to undergo training at a pre-school nursery institution for a full year prior to admission. A further 16 weeks of practical experience at three types of pre-school institution must be undergone during the training course. In Sweden, half the training period is spent at various kinds of pre-school institutions in order to give students the opportunity of applying their theoretical knowledge in practice (13, p. 10).

The countries which offer combined and partly combined courses also require that students gain practical experience for a few weeks each year. In some countries this applies from the outset and in others from the second year. During the first year the student is usually expected to observe teaching methods and the children's participation. The next year brings gradual participation in the educational programme. Actively responsible behaviour is required in the third year, with the student in full control of the educational situation (12, p. 108, 109, 112, 114).

(c) Major differences

The most important differences between the purely Nursery Work course and the combined course result from the fact that in the Nursery Work course -

- (1) little, or even absolutely no attention is devoted to school subjects because the main concern is the upbringing and care of the pre-school child and definitely not formal instruction;
- (2) there is a noticeable shift in emphasis in the subject of child psychology so that the study of the psychology of the pre-school period receives a great deal more attention;
- (3) a great deal more attention is paid to educational sociology;
- (4) the history of nursery education is accorded special recognition;
- (5) particular emphasis is laid upon skill subjects such as music, art and handicraft; and
- (6) far longer periods of practice teaching are required as a result of the value which is attached to the acquisition of practical experience with pre-school children (17, p. 129).

4.14.5 Part-time training

Various countries, such as the United States of America, make provision for part-time training. In the United States, a person who satisfies the admission requirements can obtain the credits needed for the first two years of the course part-time by attending afternoon, evening or vacation courses. However, one must enrol full-time at a college for the professional part of the course. Aides at nursery schools can, however, be exempted from this requirement and may complete the required credits during weekday evenings, weekends or summer vacations (12, p. 110).

Various countries, such as Scotland, organise in-service training courses for teachers during weekends and summer holidays. Teachers can obtain a special qualification in Grade teaching by attending these courses. After that, a further term's training will lead to a qualification in nursery work (12, p. 114, 115). In West Germany, after a nursery school teacher has undergone three years' experience, she can obtain a higher qualification by pursuing the youth leader's course for one year (12, p. 117, 118).

4.14.6 The issuing of diplomas and certificates

In most countries the certificate or diploma concerned is issued on completion of the course. In the United States of America a provisional degree certificate is issued after successful completion of the four-year combined course. After at least three years of teaching experience and the acquisition of a further 15 suitable credits, the institution which issued the provisional certificate can recommend to the government that a permanent certificate be issued. In West Germany the diploma is only awarded after the person concerned has had a year's practical experience (12, p. 110, 116).

4.14.7 Training of auxiliary personnel

Among the auxiliary personnel who are used to assist in the care and training of pre-school children, are the so-called nursery aides and nursery nurses. Only two of the countries which make use of such auxiliary personnel, viz West Germany and the United Kingdom, offer special training for the task.

In the United States the only requirement is that such aides should be older than 16 years of age and must possess personality traits which render them suited to the care of pre-school children. A few lectures on child care and development are arranged for them but no certificate is issued.

In the United Kingdom, prospective nursery nurses must comply with minimum standards as regards level of education (three years of secondary schooling) and age (16 at the time of admission and at least 18 at the time of examination). Training and examining takes place under the supervision of the National Nursery Examination Board. The course, which lasts for 2 years in the case of 16-year-olds and 1½ years for persons older than 18, embraces theoretical and practical moulding (12, p. 119-121).

In West Germany the entrance requirement for nursery nurses (Kinderpflegerin) who render an auxiliary service in "horte" and infant centres is at least 9 years of schooling (± Std 7 level) and 16 years of age. The training takes three years, of which the theoretical training courses occupy two, while a year is devoted to practical experience. Candidates who complete this training can be trained as infant or nursery nurses or as nurses in children's hospitals (12, p. 122).

4.15 MATTERS WHICH DESERVE FURTHER CONSIDERATION

Among the matters upon which finality and uniformity will have to be reached at inter-departmental level, are the following:

(1) Establishment of nursery schools by education departments

The desirability of the establishment of nursery schools by education departments will have to be considered in cases where there is a need for such a service and where no private bodies come forward to found nursery schools.

(2) Separate nursery schools for handicapped children

- (i) The establishment of separate nursery schools for physically, emotionally and neurologically handicapped children will have to be considered. It is probable and preferable that such nursery schools should fall under the Department of National Education, since schools for such children are already under the jurisdiction of this department.
 - (ii) Consideration will also have to be given to the question whether these nursery schools, by reason of the small number of pre-school children with specific handicaps, should not be incorporated into the existing schools for physically and mentally handicapped children, epileptics, the blind, those with defective eyesight and hearing and the deaf.
- ##### (3) Sites, buildings and sizes of schools
- (i) Early reservation of suitable sites of adequate size;
 - (ii) the laying down of minimum standards for nursery school buildings; and
 - (iii) the determination of the minimum and maximum sizes of nursery schools will have to be arranged interdepartmentally by education departments.

(4) Medical services

Whether or not medical services should be rendered at nursery schools on the same basis as is at present the case in other schools, is another point which must be considered.

(5) Staff matters

The following points regarding staff matters must receive attention:

- (i) Recruiting, selection and training of staff, institutions in which the training will take place, types of training courses and their duration.
- (ii) The desirability of the authorities' paying the salaries of all trained staff and the latter having the same conditions of service as other teaching personnel.
- (iii) The establishment of a favourable staffing scale.

(6) The keeping of records and reports

Attention must be devoted to the nature of the records and reports which should be kept.

(7) Educational programme

- (i) It is imperative that a thoroughly pedagogically accountable educational programme be established along the lines of what has already been laid down by the Minister.

- (ii) The duration of the morning session will have to be determined.
- (iii) The necessity for afternoon care of the children of working mothers will have to be considered.

4.16 CONCLUDING REMARKS

This report, which deals with pre-primary education as a component of the planned National System of Education, is based on the series of research reports concerning Differentiated Education at Primary and Secondary level compiled by the HSRC as well as on reports from overseas missions and data obtained from education departments or literature on the subject.

The Committee is of the opinion that the implementation of the proposed pre-primary education system should take place gradually and that deficiencies which might come to light and problems which might arise will have to be solved by further research.

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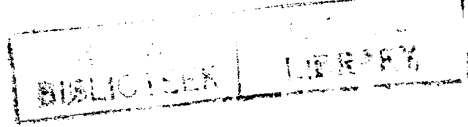
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