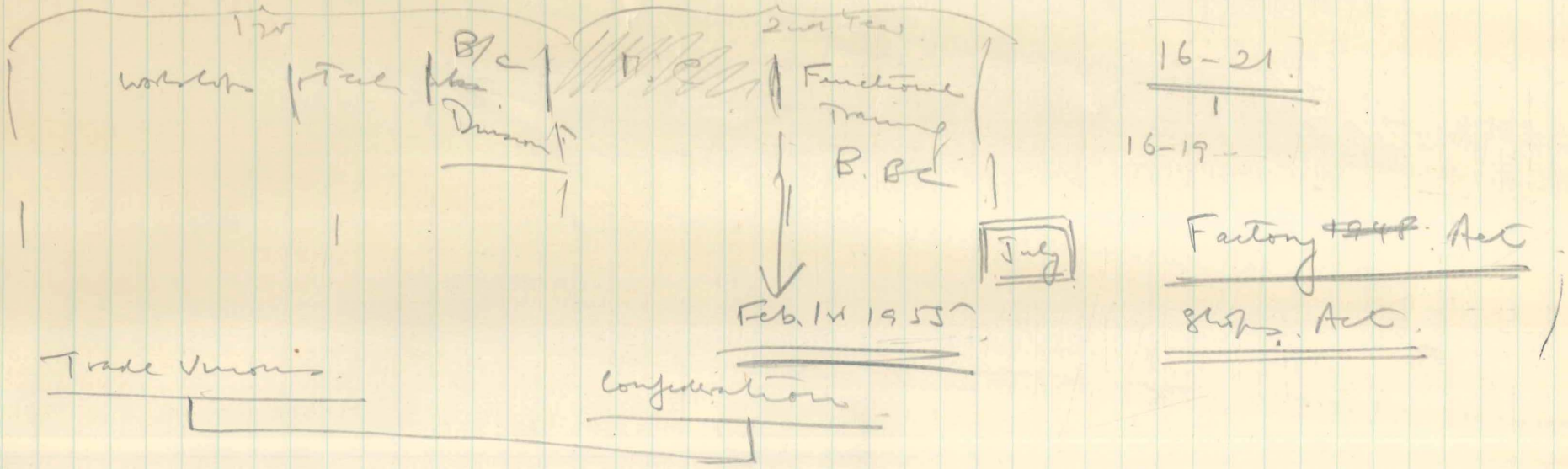
Norveç Eğitimi



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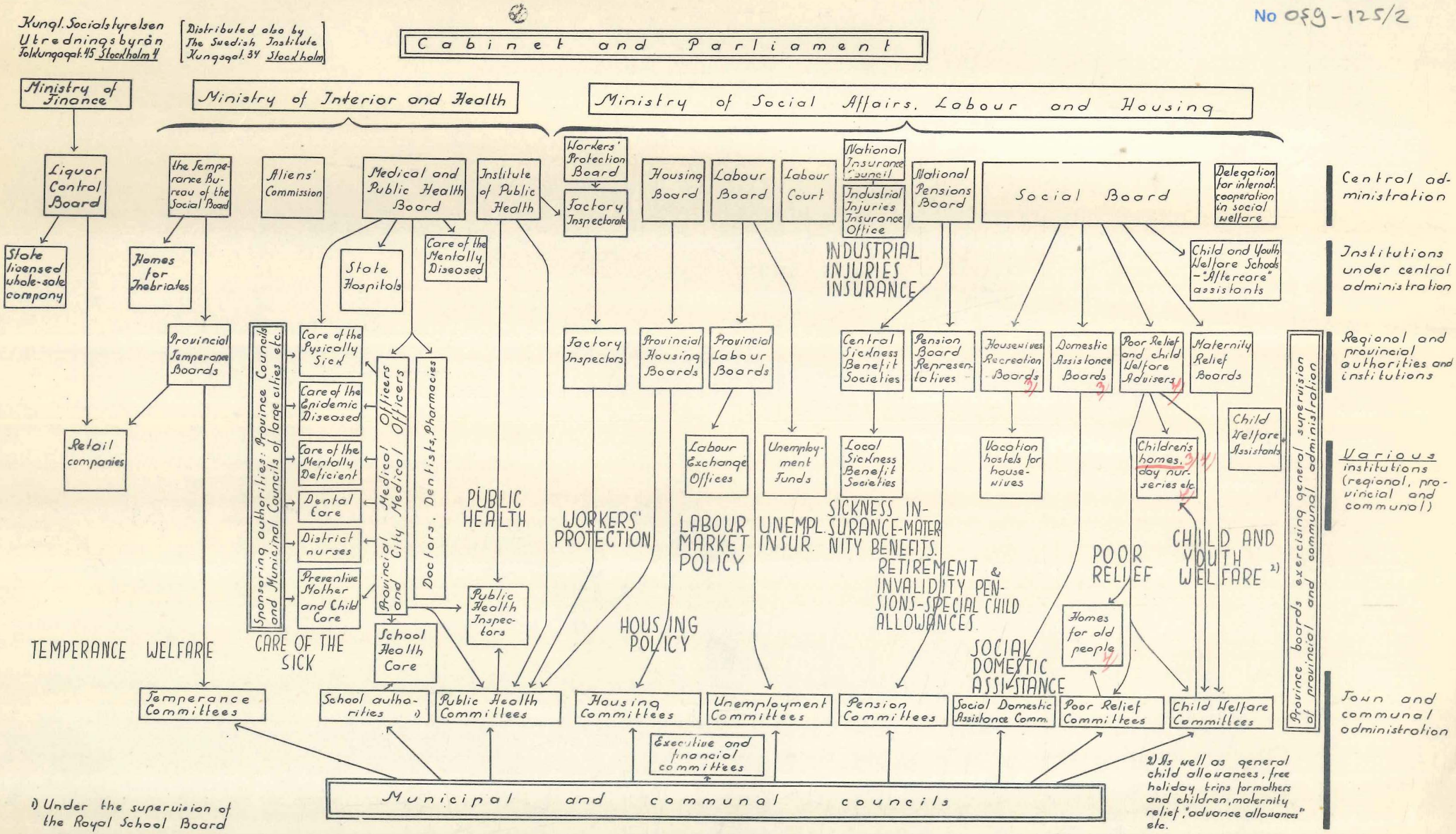

1) Under the supervision of the Royal School Board

2) As well as general child allowances, free holiday trips for mothers and children, maternity relief, "advance allowances" etc.

3) Also subordinate to the Provincial Councils

4) " " " " " Governor's Boards

A Short Piece of Information on

"HUSASSISTENTERNES FAGSKOLE"-

(The Domestic Servants' Training School).

HUSASSISTENTERNES FAGSKOLE (The Domestic Servants' Training School) is an indepentent institution with facilities for vocational training in domestic work. The institution was established in 1906 by the Domestic Servants' Trade Union and became an independent institution in 1926. The committee includes a representative of the government and of the City Administration of Copenhagen.

This school is unique of its kind. After its establishment some similar institutions, but on a considerably smaller scale, have been started in Stockholm, Uppsala and London.

First and foremost the school trains young girls who want to take up domestic work as an occupation. All young girls who want so may become pupils. They receive 6 months' training in all branches of domestic work, including the care of young children. The pupils come from all parts of Denmark, both from town and country, and from all classes of the community; in addition there are often pupils from the Danish colony Greenland and from the other Scandinavian countries.

The young girls live in the school, generally 4 in each room, and pay 120-150 D.Kr. a month, incl. board, lodging and training. This is very cheap for such comprehensive instruction. Particularly in order to make the instruction as comprehensive and cheap as possible, a restaurant, a baker's and provision dealer's shop have been attached to the school. The pupils cook the food and make the goods that are sold here and act themselves as waitresses.

In addition to the regular course there are various evening courses where interested people may get instruction in cooking, preserving and pickling, and table decoration. In the course of the year the Domestic Servants' Training School is attented by a total of about 400 pupils.

Alma Andersen

(The Principal of "Husassistenternes Fagskole")

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A few Facts about

The Housemaids' Professional School.

Miss Andersen has asked me to tell you a little about this school before we have a look-round. I would like to start by telling you a little about the history of the school. One may truly say that it is the result of one woman's idea, energy and foresight. Her name was Marie Christensen, her father a worker, and she destined to be a servant. In the nineties she started work as a housemaid and held out for nine years, but it did not satisfy her. Those were the days when servants were considered very inferior beings, but thanks to people like Marie Christensen things are now quite different. She felt an ardent desire to help the girls of her class, so she founded the Domestic Servants Trade Union in 1896, but she realized that if they were to hope for better social conditions they would have to learn much more than they had hitherto done. Without knowledge and experience it would be no good putting in demands for higher wages and better treatment. Her idea was to run a school for housemaids and cooks, and in 1906 she started in a very modest way in the old part of Copenhagen, in fact almost next door to the university. She rented a couple of flats where classes were given, but the work there did not give enough practice - so she got her brightest idea namely to combine a business with the school. And that is really what is still so unique about it. There is a restaurant, and there are shops and a laundry. Now you might be led to think that the pupils make enormous helpings like in the kitchens of restaurant, but that is not the case. The teaching is carried on like in any other first-class domestic school, each pupil making enough for a fair-sized family. But knowing that the food and the cakes are to be sold makes everything so much more real and serious, and waiting at tables in the restaurant is taken much more earnestly than it is possible in an ordinary domestic school where the pupils take turns in serving each other.

Besides giving practice this combination of business and school also gives a very good income, by means of which the school fees are kept on a very, very low level. The pupils pay for their schooling partly in money, partly by their own work.

The school which was founded in 1906 soon became too small, and Marie Christensen saved up as much as she could, hoping to be able to build a bigger and more up-to-date school. In 1927, after 21 years of saving-up she had as much as 100,000 kr., but seven times as much was needed. The town of Copenhagen, the State, and others were willing to help her, but the authorities put one condition, namely that the school was to become an independent school. Undtil then it had been owned an run by the Domestic Servants' Trade Union, and the 100,000 kr. also belonged to the union- But the authorities would only help if the school did not belong to a union, a company, a private person or to anybody else. It must have been a difficult step for Marie Christensen to take, but she was so great a personality and such an idealist that she consented, so now the school has no connection whatsoever with any union or political party. The City council gave the site for the building, the state gave a loan on very favourable conditions, and in this way the school obtained the present building, which has a small garden at the back for the pupils. Marie Christensen was the head of the school till 1938, and her successor is the present headmistress, Miss Alma Andersen.

The course here are divided into day courses and evening courses, ten in all, and they all start on different dates, so that there are always older and more experienced pupils in the school. Otherwise of course the restaurant and the shops could not be run smoothly.

Most of the girls in the day courses live in the school, which can take about 100 boarders at a time. There are courses for beginners, for more advanced, for

house-wives-to-be, special courses for housemaids and cooks with some previous, professional experience, as well as courses in nursing and looking after babies and kindergarden children. The school has its own creche in the top story, which we shall also see. In Denmark we have a 3-years' training to become a qualified children's nurse, and the one year's course here has obtained the official stamp, so that the girls may, if they wish, finish off with a two years' training in a hospital.

In the day courses the girls learn not only cooking and baking, but also table-laying, serving, cleaning, sewing and laundry-work etc. Besides this they are taught household economics and other theoretical subjects, in short everything necessary to make them efficient cooks, housemaids or housewives. For of course most of the girls who come here hope to get a home of their own.

About 90% of the girls in the day classes come from the country or from towns other than Copenhagen, and they are boarders. In the evening classes the pupils naturally come from Copenhagen itself. These courses are short, 3 months or 6 weeks, with classes two evenings a week, or for instance a four-evening course in jam-making and preserving.

The girls in the day courses must be 16 years old and are seldom above 30, in the evening courses you would find both young and older women. Altogether the school has abt. 400 pupils a year.

The 6-months' and 3-months' day courses end with an exam, and everyone is given a certificate, but there is no employment office, though the school sometimes has 40-50 enquiries a day. When you have seen the school you will perhaps think how very wonderful it would be if all girls got a good domestic training. So it would, but here in Denmark we consider it must be voluntary, and Miss Andersen for one is very much against any forced training.

There are no private rooms for the boarders, but four or five share a room. There are bathrooms, sitting rooms, a lecture room, and a small garden.

Once a week, in the evening, a lecture is held or an entertainment given. One week it may be a most serious lecture, and the next there may be singing or acting by a popular actor or actress.

The staff consists of abt. 30 people. Besides the headmistress, who had by the way been a teacher here for ten years before she became head of the school, there are ten teachers and 11 assistant-teachers (former pupils). There is a book-keeper, a secretary, and in the laundry professional women besides the teacher. The only man in the place is the caretaker, who is also the boiler-man.

The school has a presidency of 7 members. The Board og Trade appoints the president, one of the members represents the Danish Women's Association, one the City Council, three the Domestic Servants' Trade Union, and last, but not least, Miss Andersen is also a member. The only male is the president.

The school that we are now going to see is not a newly-built show-place full of marble, glass, and stainless steel. It is 25 years old, and a place where work is taken seriously, but also a place that shows traces of being lived in by young girls. To me it is full of vitality, and I hope you will feel the same about it.

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4. Frågan kan besvaras med kapitlet om lärarutbildningen i The public educational system in Sweden sid. 11 de fyra första styckena.

There are two categories of teachers within the elementary school, those trained for the junior school and those trained for the elementary school proper. The junior school teachers are almost without exception women. They are trained in the two-year junior elementary school training colleges (småskoleseminarier) set up and maintained by the State. To be admitted to one of these training colleges a pupil must have the Lower Certificate or knowledge of a corresponding standard in most of its subjects. The colleges number ten, three of which were set up provisionally on account of the prevailing shortage of teachers.

Teachers for the elementary schools proper are trained at nineteen State-run elementary school teachers' training colleges (folkskoleseminarier). Six of these take in male pupils only and five female only, while eight are mixed. Nine of these colleges have been set up provisionally.

Pupils with the Lower Certificate or a corresponding standard of knowledge follow a four-year course at the colleges, and pupils holding the Higher Certificate, a two-year course.

The students in the training colleges have at their disposal special elementary schools in which they can practice teaching. These practice schools (övningsskolor) are generally attached to the training colleges, but, to a certain extent, classes in the elementary schools of towns in which training colleges are found are also placed at the students' disposal for practice in teaching.

8. Undervisningen i folkskolan är helt kostnadsfri.

Skolmåltider.

The local education authorities besluta om tillhandahållande av skolmåltider. Statsbidrag utgår till kostnaderna härför. Skolmåltiderna äro helt kostnadsfria för eleverna. Om på grund av t.ex. lokalbrist skolmåltid icke kan tillhandahållas åt samtliga elever i en skola, ges företräde åt elever, som ha särskilt behov härav på grund av t.ex. lång skolväg eller hemmets dåliga ekonomi. För närvarande erhålla omkring 470.000 elever eller omkring 62 % av alla elever i folkskolan fria skolmåltider. (Beträffande skolmåltider se United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation, International Bureau of Education - Publication no 129 Geneva 1951 sid. 100.)

Skolmateriel och böcker äro helt kostnadsfria för eleverna i folkskolan. Kostnaderna härför bestridas av skoldistrikten, som erhålla statsbidrag för ändamålet. De flesta skoldistrikt ha inrättat skolbibliotek, där eleverna kostnadsfritt få låna förströelse- och bredvidläsningslitteratur.

Hälsovård.

Så gott som samtliga skoldistrikt ha ordnat hälsovård för eleverna. Denna hälsovård, som främst skall vara av förebyggande natur och icke innebära sjukvård i egentlig mening, meddelas av antingen särskilt anställda skolläkare och skolsköterskor eller tjänsteläkare och distriktssköterskor på orten. För närvarande erhålla omkring 97 % av samtliga barn i folkskolan sådan hälsovård. (Beträffande hälsovården se bifogade p.m.).

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Eleverna i folkskolorna skola, liksom alla barn under 16 år, erhålla fri tandvård genom ~~den obligatoriska~~ folktandvården. Då folktandvården ännu icke är helt utbyggd, ombesörjes tandvården i en del skoldistrikt av skoldistrikten själva.

13. Några särskilda skatter avsedda att täcka kostnaderna för skolväsendet finnas icke.

School Hygiene Work in Sweden

by

Prof. C.W. Herlitz

Head Doctor for Schools in the Board of Education.
(Skolöverläkare hos Kungl. Skolöverstyrelsen.)

Since 1944, school hygiene work in Sweden has been regulated according to uniform principles. These principles are applied in a somewhat different way for different types of schools, due to the fact that the higher schools are mainly the concern of the state, whereas other schools (elementary schools and higher municipal schools) are run by the local authorities with state subsidies. Elementary schools as well as higher schools come under the supervision of the Board of Education (skolöverstyrelsen).

Central management. The management of school hygiene work rests in the hands of this central school authority of the state, and more specifically, is the concern of the Head Doctor for Schools employed by this authority. One sees, then, that the Head Doctor for Schools is not employed by the highest medical authority in the country, the Medical Board (medicinalstyrelsen). This is due to the fact that it has been considered desirable that the Head Doctor for Schools should be in continual intimate contact with the schools' directors for the purpose of dealing with all the different matters which demand his daily collaboration. However, in the directive issued by His Majesty's Government to the Head Doctor for Schools, the following statement has been made: "In order that the work of the Head Doctor for Schools may not develop as a sphere of activity separate from hygiene work in general, the

Head Doctor for Schools should, in important questions of school hygiene, consult with the Medical Board". The form of this collaboration is arrived at through agreement between the heads of the Board of Education and the Medical Board. The first Head Doctor for the schools of the kingdom was engaged on the 1st of January, 1943. The Head Doctor for Schools is employed by the state, and does full time work.

Among the duties of the Head Doctor for Schools the following may be noted. He shall arrange, guide, and superintend the work of school hygiene in the schools supervised by the Board of Education. He is to promote the development of school hygiene work among youth, and in doing so further the holding of medical examinations of young people in the schools, arranged on uniform lines and at regulary recurring intervals throughout school age, in order to discover what pupils are in need of medical care or other special measures as regards school hygiene. Furthermore, he has to make arrangements for the establishment of open-air schools, and classes or schools for pupils with weak sight or hearing, as well as to further measures concerning the education and teaching of pupils who diverge from the normal in mental respects. He has also to act as advisor as regards the teaching of gymnastics, as well as in connection with arrangements for school baths, school children's meals, and school holiday-camps, and should further the development of dental attention in schools. It is the duty of the Head Doctor för Schools to perform the function of medical advisor on the Board of Education concerning the planning of the pupils' work, and see to it that this is suited to the pupils'

development and age. He shall also devote attention to teaching of a general medico-hygienic kind, among other things instruction in matters of sex, and he has to excercise an advisory medical function in connection with the schools' special measures for choice of profession by the pupils. The Head Doctor for Schools shall also examine the annual reports given in by the school doctors to the Board of Education, and put forward the suggestions called for by these. He has also, in accordance with the regulations of the Board of Education, to visit the schools for hygiene inspection. The Head Doctor for Schools acts as advisor on the Board of Education as regards plans for new school-buildings, or considerable rebuilding or additions. This function of advisor shall also include the giving of instructions concerning the hygiene of school premises and accessories. Furthermore, the Head Doctor for Schools acts as advisor in connection with the general training of teachers where questions of special bearing on medical hygiene are involved, such as the teaching of preventative methods in the care of mental and physical health, the teaching of mentally abnormal or backward pupils, the teaching of pupils with weak sight or hearing, and instruction in matters of sex. What has thus been laid down concerning the general training of teachers, holds good, equally, for teachers' continuation courses in relevant subjects. The Head Doctor for Schools shall further, guide, and organise continuation courses in school hygiene for doctors. On the Board of Education the Head Doctor for Schools introduces the items which belong to his sphere of activity, and he gives an annual report of his work to the Board of Education as well

as to the Medical Board.

An Assistant Head Doctor for Schools, doing half-time work, is employed on the Board of Education at the Head Doctor's side. The Head Doctor for Schools has as it is at present a ground training in children's diseases and the Assistant Head Doctor is a children's psychiatrist.

Costs. In the higher state schools the work of school hygiene is run entirely with state funds, which go to the paying of doctors and nurses and of the necessary instruments and stores. The elementary schools and the higher municipal schools, however, which are run by the local authorities, receive a state subsidy for school hygiene work covering about 50% of the pay of the doctors and a certain portion of the pay of the school nurses. The doctors and the nurses at the elementary schools get the rest of their pay out of municipal funds. The school doctors are paid a certain sum, at present ca 3 - 3,5 Swedish Kronor, per year and pupil.

Range of activity. The state ordered school health service exists throughout the higher schools all over the country, in accordance with the regulation in force. In the elementary schools the uniformly regulated health service, run with state subsidies, exists only where the local authorities have made an application for such subsidies. At present, however, this work covers over 97% of the children in the elementary schools. School hygiene work in both elementary schools and higher schools is regulated by the principles, which are laid down in the statutes in force.

Working principles. Among these principles it is to be noted in the first place that both school nurses and school doctors must be employed in

the schools if the work is to be supported by state subsidy. This with the exception, however, for the time being, that higher schools where the numbers are below 100-150 pupils have generally not been able to obtain nurses at present. The Swedish conception of school hygiene work is that, in any case in bigger schools, it cannot be run on rational lines, without the school doctor having at his disposal a school nurse for visiting the pupils' homes, making tuberculin tests, etc., about which we shall say more later. Furthermore, school hygiene work, run or supported by the state, is directed mainly towards health culture, whereas the demands for medical attention are largely catered for by social institutions outside school. However, certain deviations from this principle have been made. Thus, for example, at schools for the deaf and dumb or blind the schools doctors attend also to the medical care of the pupils. Furthermore, in the way of therapeutic medicine, there is in many places a dental service at the schools, carried on by specially employed school dentists. Now, however, no sharp line can be drawn between preventative care and actual treatment. Therefore it has been fixed by statute that a certain amount of medicinal therapy shall also be provided in the schools. Such therapy shall be forthcoming where it can be run without any very great loss of time for the doctor and the nurse, and where the doctor does not expect long extended treatment to be necessary in a particular case. Of course, the school also gives temporary help in cases of sudden illness or accident. Also as regards mental hygiene work, school doctors and school nurses cannot, for obvious reasons, limit themselves to health culture,

but must here give therapeutic advice also, in collaboration with teachers, school psychologists, and the pupils' parents.

One arrangement put into practice throughout the country is that everywhere where there is a school health service, run or supported by the state, a health-card, fixed on by the Board of Education, is kept for every child; besides, local authorities are free to introduce any sort of additional cards. The health-card is "valid" throughout the country in the sense that state subsidies for school hygiene work cannot be given to schools where these health-cards are not kept. It is stipulated that the health-card, which is begun when the child starts going to school at about 7, shall later accompany the pupil on from school to school and from one type of school to another, until attendance at school ceases, either when the "student-exam" is taken at about 19, or earlier. When the pupil has finally left school, the card is sent, after a certain lapse of time varying in length for different types of schools, to the state's institute of racial biology to be placed in the archives there, available for research.

The health-cards have a space where the parents or guardians' information concerning illnesses gone through before school age is collected. Furthermore, the cards contain specific information about what ought to be looked into at the "general form examinations", what has been observed on the visits to the children's homes by the nurses, the situation as regards gymnastics, special classes etc., as also a record of what vaccinations the pupil has had, and information concerning medical advice in respect of the choice of a profession given at

school, as well as a great number of other things. A special space is reserved on the card for the notes of the nurse.

The school health-cards are kept in the possession of the medical personnel, nurses and doctors. Of course the doctors are obliged to keep both parents and teachers informed of such deviations from normal conditions of health as are of significance.

When the school-year is finished the school doctors must write annual reports filling in forms made up by the central school authorities and the reports are sent in to these authorities every year; in addition a copy goes to the local school authorities as well as to the head regional medical officer concerned. These doctors serve as the Medical Board's inspectors out in the country.

Moreover the medical work of the schools should be carried out in intimate contact with the parents and guardians. When, at the age of seven, children enter school, their health-cards are sent to their homes, to be filled in by their parents with anamnestic data. This contact is for the rest established in different ways. Firstly, parents are called to the school, when needed, for a conference with the school nurse or school doctor, secondly the school nurses visit the homes of those pupils for whom such contact is considered desirable, and thirdly and lastly it happens to a certain extent that parents and guardians come together in parents' societies attached to the schools, where opportunities are given to the school authorities for informing the parents about circumstances relevant to these matters. As regards the nurses' home-visiting, it should be

noted that such visits are paid, to gather information and to give advice for the purposes of health culture. On the other hand neither doctors nor nurses visit homes in order to give medical attention. It happens sometimes that a certain child is absent from school on account of a reported illness of such a kind that the school doctor can have suspicions of harmful consequences ensuing for the child's schoolfellows if the school does not immediately obtain trustworthy information concerning the nature of the illness; in such cases home-visits on the part of the school nurse may be made. Here, of course, one is mainly concerned with infectious diseases, where the school has not in any other way got to know what disease it is a question of.

One of the most important of the school's tasks must be, of course, to try and instil sound habits of living into the children, and the home contacts in the sphere of school hygiene serve primarily this purpose. Another main principle in the carrying on of school hygiene work is that such work should in no way be solely the concern of the medical personnel, but that the teachers should also take part in the activity. In the task of furthering health performed by the schools the doctor is only the medical expert, even if he must indeed be regarded as the leader in the work of school hygiene.

The school doctors conditions of employment.

The school doctors in Sweden are not employed solely in the schools but work so that they have time left over for other duties, connected exclusively with the care of the sick. They thus hold part-time posts. For the time being, and on the basis of the organisation of other social-medical work in the country,

this has been considered the most advantageous way for the schools. That is to say, it seems desirable that the school doctors who, as mentioned above, in addition to their health culture work are responsible for the giving of a certain amount of medical treatment in the schools, should also have direct contact with purely medical tasks in their daily work, by way of a private practice or in some other way. Such an arrangement is likely to be of great advantage to the schools' pupils too. However, this does not apply to the same extent to doctors who are specially employed to take charge of mental-hygiene work. In some places in the country children's psychiatrists are employed, who hardly have much time left for any other activities besides their work in the schools. In the future, children's psychiatrists employed full time ought to be at work within the schools, at any rate in the bigger towns and communities.

Out in the country, according to the regulations in force, it is mainly the regional medical officers, employed by the state, who are to act as school doctors. For the moment this has been considered beneficial because these doctors have other fixed health culture duties in the service of the community, and an intimate knowledge of the social and hygienic conditions of the population, which must be recognized as an advantage in thei work at the schools. It ought to be stressed, however, that the local authorities have the right to employ whatever doctors they wish in the elementary schools, but, as just mentioned, they ought to depend mainly on the medical officers, and this has been done, too, in practically all cases.

This does not apply to the higher schools, as these schools are most often situated in the bigger towns and communities, with several doctors available in each place, the medical officers are not given preference here, and so the competition for school doctor posts is freer than in the country, where most often only one doctor, the regional medical officer, is available in each place where there is a school. The school doctors in the secondary schools, where school hygiene work is run entirely by the state, are appointed by the Board of Education. In the higher municipal schools where school hygiene work is only partly paid for out of state subsidies, the schools themselves appoint their doctors. However, there is a ruling that when more than one application is made for such a doctor's post, the school's board shall ask the Head Doctor for Schools at the Board of Education for a statement on the competence of the applicants.

In some of the biggest towns in the country there are head doctors for schools employed on full time work for the municipal schools there.

Conditions of employment for nurses. As regards the school nurses it is laid down that, in the elementary schools in the country, the district nurses employed to assist the regional medical officers shall also act as school nurses without receiving any special remuneration for this. In addition, the local authorities can ask for state aid for the employment of another, special school nurse, for whose salary they can then get a state subsidy, on the condition that the Board of Education has approved the organisation of the work. The school nurses in the elementary schools in the towns, where as

a rule there are no district nurses, are appointed by the town authorities themselves.

The nurses in the state secondary schools are appointed by the Board of Education, whereas the nurses in the higher municipal schools are appointed by the local authorities.

It is to be noted that all school nurses, including those in the elementary schools where the local authorities have been given state aid for school hygiene work, must have a certain minimum competence; they must have a certificate from one of the state recognized nurses training schools.

For the most part, school nurses in Sweden are part time employees, but in the elementary schools in the towns and certain municipal schools or state secondary schools there are a number of school nurses employed who do full time work. For the holders of such full time posts the standard of competence required is higher. Besides their elementary training, these nurses must also have an additional training which gives them special knowledge in the way of medical treatment for children, child psychology, and social medicine etc. It is desirable that the nurses be employed on full time work to a much greater extent than has been possible hitherto on account of the shortage of nurses. It can be added, also, that a school nurse in state supported school health service is not allowed to have more than 1500 children to attend to. In practice it has proved suitable for Swedish conditions that a nurse employed on full time work has a total of about 1000 children to attend to within the schools where she works.

Internal work. All the schools in the country come under the rule that,

at certain intervals, so called "general form examinations" should be made, that is, examinations which are comprehensive of all the pupils in a form. Such general form examinations are made at the beginning of the school-year, about once every other year during the time the child spends at school, and in any case in the first class and the leaving class in both elementary and higher schools. In certain school districts with big schools, the general form examinations are held more frequently, e.g. once a year.

Without going into the details of these general form examinations, one or two circumstances will be touched upon. Thus, at every general form examination the children shall go through a complete tuberculin test in those cases where the child's tuberculin reaction is not known previously, and if necessary, the pupil's lungs are X-rayed. It must be noted, then, that for the time being not all the pupils are cumpulsorily X-rayed, but only those where the doctor finds a special reason for doing so. However, it is arranged so that, with recourse to local government funds, in a number of bigger towns and communities all children with a positive reaction to the tuberculin tests are X-rayed at regular intervals. In addition it is laid down that it is the duty of the doctors - and this is fixed in the statutes - to advise anti-tuberculosis vaccination where a child is found to have a negative reaction to the tuberculin test, irrespective of what stage he has reached at school. It can be mentioned, by the way, that of the 7-year olds, who at present enter the lowest class in the primary schools in Sweden, about 4% show a positive reaction to the tuberculin test without first

having been Calmette vaccinated.

Another thing which can deserve mention is that at the general form examinations all the pupils shall be examined for the albumen and sugar content of the urine. On the other hand, a compulsory haemoglobin test is not made except in cases where the doctor finds special cause for it.

Furthermore it is to be noted that there has been introduced into Swedish schools the system that preliminary medical advice on choice of profession shall be given by provision of the schools. This is done as a rule at the general form examinations in the leaving-classes. Thus, where the doctors find an illness of a kind that can be presupposed to have an influence on the future choice of profession, medical advice on such choice of profession shall be given. Some of the principles which have guided us in the organizing of medical advice on the choice of profession will be mentioned here. First it should be observed that the doctor is not allowed to give a pupil a list of professions to which his state of health does not suit him. Instead, the doctor informs the parents in writing of his opinion that the illness from which the person in question suffers, and of which he then gives a diagnosis, can be presupposed to prevent him from taking up such professions as are bound up with special demands, e.g. heavy manual labour, work in dusty air etc. At the same time as the parents are informed of this, a communication is sent to the special labour exchange for young people, to the effect that the pupil has been given preliminary advice on his choice of profession. This amounts to a call upon the labour exchange to contact the

parents and perhaps the school doctor, and only after consultation with these to give definite guidance in the choice of a profession.

Another main principle in our organization of the schools' medical guidance in the choice of a profession is, then, that the doctor does not directly communicate the diagnosis of an illness to anyone other than the pupil's parents or guardians.

Of course, the school doctors and school nurses visit the schools for other purposes than the general form examinations. During the rest of the school-year are examined the so-called "control-children", i.e. children who are ill, weak, or liable to fall ill, and also other children who are sent to such an examination by doctor, nurse, parents or guardians. In the higher schools the doctor is available once a week for seeing and examining such children. The same applies to the elementary schools in the bigger towns and communities, where the schools are fairly big and where they have nurses employed full-time. Out in the country, on the other hand, where the district nurses act as school nurses, and the regional medical officers, as a rule, as school doctors, the doctors have no regular hours of attendance, but visit the schools for control examinations when nurse, teachers, or parents or guardians ask for it, or they themselves find it suitable. The doctors receive no special pay for their control visits over and above the annual sum they receive per child and year. In the country these special journeys made by the doctors to the elementary schools are paid for exclusively out of state means.

Concerning the care of the pupils from the mental point of view, the following may be said. The children who need this on

account of retarded development of the intelligence are gathered into special forms (relief classes). In the country such teaching in relief classes has in many places not yet been arranged, but must be done for the most part within the framework of the ordinary form for the time being. From the point of view of school hygiene the pupils in the relief classes are regarded as "control children", and are the object of the special attention of school doctors and school nurses.

Children who diverge mentally from the normal, but who do not show insufficient development of the intelligence, are also considered as "control children" and are becoming to an ever increasing extent the objects not only of the care of the teachers in the ordinary school forms or in special observation forms, but also of keener attention on the part of the medical personnel. It is fixed by statute that if pupils show deviations from a normal mental condition, it is the duty of the teachers to contact the school doctors in each separate case. These doctors can then, depending on the nature of the case and their own qualifications, either take care of the cases themselves after consultation with parents and teachers, or refer the child to special children's psychiatrists or so-called "consulting-stations", where specially trained doctors and teachers collaborate. In Sweden we have recently, in principle, made the decision to set up a number of such consulting centres spread all over the country, but as yet such centres have only been organized to a small extent.

It is to be noted also that school doctors without special training in children's diseases or child psychiatry, must often

be considered to possess qualifications for assisting in quite a satisfactory way in the work against mental disturbances. In the first place, they often know the families' previous histories well, and the social, psychological and hygienic conditions in which the children live, and secondly they have, through their general approach, possibilities of completing the picture of the children which the parents and teachers can create for themselves. One might also make a reminder of the fact that many behaviour disturbances during the years of growt have their origin in ailments of a purely somatic kind, upon which doctors without any special training in psychiatry or children's psychology are usually in a better position to judge. In Sweden we are at present considering the setting up of an institute of school psychologists covering the whole country, and the importance of this problem, which has already been quite satisfactorily solved in severel places in the country, seems to be becoming rapidly more and more appreciated. It is evident that in Sweden, as elsewhere, teachers, parents and school doctors need the collaboration of specially trained school psychologists.

There is in Sweden, especially in the higher schools, a well developed organization of gymnastics teachers. As it is considered that it is included among the duties of the gymnastics teachers to instil into the children sound living habits in general, and as the gymnastics teachers might be considered as specially suited for this work, they too have tasks to perform in the sphere of school-hygiene work. For this reason they work in as intimate contact as circumstances permit

with teachers and the medical personnel of the school.

It is self-evident that school doctors, school nurses and teachers must pay attention to hygiene in the school premises and suggest the amendments that are considered necessary.

And now some words about the school hygiene duties of the teachers. It is clear that without the collaboration of the teachers, rational school hygiene work can in no way be carried out. In Sweden they have got important tasks in this connection, and some of them will be mentioned here.

In the course of ordinary teaching and particularly through the teaching of biology and hygiene, the teachers continually impart to the pupils the knowledge of desirable living habits. In suitable connections they are taught, for instance, about cleanliness, bathing, clothing, open air life, food and dietetics, sleeping habits etc. In the schools the teachers also give instruction in matters of sex, in ever increasing proportions, to children of different ages beginning in the first form at the primary school. It has been found wise to let the teachers be in charge of this instruction, which they impart with the necessary assistance of the medical personnel. The cutlines of sexual teaching have been fixed by His Majesty's Government.

An especially important task of the teachers and which they most usually perform in a very satisfactory way, is to keep under particular observation the children who have been classed as "control children" by the school doctors. The teachers follow their general state of health and call in doctors and nurses when there is cause for it. They ought also to be

carefully informed of the changes in the children's state of health discovered by nurses and doctors. It is self-evident that doctors and nurses - particularly in country districts - who cannot as often as would be desirable ascertain for themselves the "control children's" state of health, are greatly helped by the observations of the teachers.

In some places, particularly in the country, one must to a certain extent entrust to teachers who are willing to do it the carrying out of the necessary weighing and measuring of the children, in cases where the time of the district nurses (school nurses) does not allow them to perform the task themselves. All children are weighed and measured at the general form examinations, but as a rule, not more frequently than that; whereas of course "control children" are measured and weighed at much shorter intervals.

It has also been found suitable that teachers, (if willing after consultation with and after getting information from the doctors, carry out preliminary tests of the colour sense of the pupils of certain age groups at school. It has been considered defensible to do so, on the condition of course that the childre who at such a preliminary colour sense test are suspected to be defective, are all sent to the school doctor for a conclusive examination. Many teachers, especially in biology and physics, also find it desirable from their own teaching point of view to be allowed to make this preliminary examination of colour sense. Generally speaking these preliminary colour-sense examinations are made by the school nurses.

We have mentioned previously the duty of the teachers to

consult with doctors and nurses concerning mentally abnormal and intellectually backward children.

It is obvious that it is also the duty of the teachers to send to school doctor and nurse those children whom the teachers themselves have found to be weak and whom they suspect to be ill.

The teachers shall also consult with the doctors about the hygiene of the school premises. This concerns such things as their being kept clean, lighting, heating, ventilation, lavatory sanitation etc. Also the hygiene of school furniture and materials ought to be superintended jointly by the doctors and teachers.

Finally it can be mentioned that the teachers are subject to certain regulations by way of control of their own health, particularly where tuberculosis is concerned. In Sweden, however, this matter has not yet been arranged in a desirable way - namely, that each teacher be subjected to an X-ray of the lungs before being employed in a school and afterwards at fixed intervals throughout the whole period of his service.

This was thus a survey of the more important duties of Swedish teachers in the sphere of school hygiene work, duties which presuppose an intimate cooperation with medical personnel and the home.

Finally a short survey will be given of the <u>duties of the school nurses</u>. They shall prepare the attendances at the doctor's, and carry out certain examinations of the children who are later to go through general form examinations. Thus, they make urine tests, tuberculin tests, weigh and measure the children and check up on the children's general hygiene. They

assist at the attendances at the doctor's and are obliged to be present at these. This applies, at any rate, to all general form examinations. In inevitably happens that at a doctor's visit to some smaller school in the country to examine one single or some few "control children" the nurse is absent, but otherwise what has just been said applies. Furthermore, the nurse follows as closely as possibly the state of health of the "control children", and keeps the doctor informed of how they get on. She assists in the supervision of hygiene in the school premises, and she has special supervising duties in connection with hygiene at the school children's meals. It might be mentioned here that it has been decided in Sweden that all school children who want it shall get a free hot meal in the middle of the day, paid for largely with state subsidies. The nurse has certain further duties when it comes to choosing, together with the teachers, the children to be sent to holiday-camps. She assists the school doctor in keeping a watchful eye on hygiene in connection with the school baths, and she keeps in close contact with the gymnastics teachers. She also runs propaganda on hygienic everyday habits for the children's parents or guardians. She looks after the health-cards and sees to it that they are kept in the correct way, and finally, at the request of the school doctor or on her own initiative and, when found suitable, on the request of the school's teachers, she visits the homes of the children to give health culture advice and to get information of different kinds, perhaps concerning the child's environment, its physical state of health, or certain problems of upbringing. Thus she is not allowed to

visit the homes to give medical attention. As has been shown, the school nurses have very important duties in the service of school hygiene.

School hygiene work is of the utmost importance and must be regarded as one of the school's basic duties. It is also a good connecting link between the school and the homes of the pupils. This fact has been appreciated in Sweden and health culture work in the schools has in late years been made considerably more efficient there, as far as available resources have permitted.

It seems to be of great importance that the doctors and nurses in schools in different countries should try and come into closer contact with one another, so that they may, through the exchange of experiences, achieve better and better results in their work for the health of youth at school.

MINISTRY FOR
FOREIGN AFFAIRS

THE SWEDISH SCHOOL REFORM.

In accordance with the results of experiments to be carried out measures shall be taken to introduce, within a period to be later determined, a nine-year compulsory comprehensive school, designed to replace the elementary school, the continuation school, the people's secondary school, the municipal intermediate school, and the middle school, and also, to some extent, the municipal girls' school and the practical intermediate school.

The comprehensive school shall be divided into three stages, each of three years. In the lowest stage, teaching shall as a rule be carried out by infant-school teachers, trained to teach in classes 1-4; in the middle stage, by intermediate-school teachers, trained to teach in classes 3-6; and in the highest stage, classes 7-9, by subject-teachers.

The teaching of English shall begin in the fifth class of the comprehensive school, the teaching of German in the seventh class and the teaching of French in the ninth class. German and French will be compulsory subjects only for pupils who intend to pursue their studies in the gymnasium. English will be the principal language in each stream of the gymnasium.

Preliminary vocational education shall be organized in class 9, and practical vocational training can thereupon be carried out, according to circumstances, in trade schools, in specially organized vocational departments within the comprehensive school, in industry, or in other suitable places where practice can be obtained. Where circumstances require, the preliminary vocational education may be replaced by a general practical training.

For pupils in the ninth class who participate neither in preliminary vocational education nor in general practical training, theoretical instruction shall be arranged, whether or not this is related to further education to be carried on in the gymnasium.

Experiments shall be carried out concerning suitable forms of work for the comprehensive school, concerning differentiation of the curriculum into streams in view of differences of bent among

the pupils, and concerning the acceptance of pupils into the comprehensive school on the basis of a school-maturity examination.

Experiments shall, further, be conducted with forms of practical middle schools and girls' secondary schools linked with the highest class but one of the comprehensive school.

From a time to be later decided, a general stream can be organized at the higher state secondary schools. In connection with this, there shall be undertaken a revision of the system of differentiation in the highest stage of the gymnasium, aiming at the establishment of a more fixed curriculum within each stream.

From a time to be later decided, one or more gymnasia for adults shall be experimentally established.

Experiments shall be made with special forms of gymnasium linked to the comprehensive school.

The system of annual fees at the state secondary schools, and at equivalent municipal places of secondary education, shall be abolished, in a manner to be determined later.

The necessary financial steps shall be taken to give every pupil access to an education that is adapted to his or her personal qualifications and to the needs of the community.

Stockholm, July 20, 1950.

22.10.52.

THE SWEDISH INSTITUTE
STOCKHOLM 3

Information Service

Gunnar Hirdman:

A D U L T E D U C A T I O N

in Sweden

The great "popular movements" of Scandinavia are said to be without counterparts im number, influence and function elsewhere in the world. It is, in fact, hard to picture how Scandinavian democracy could work without the interplay of these nationwide people's organizations founded to promote some particular cause - like the temperance movement - or defend some particular interest - like the labour movement. The majority of Scandinavian citizens are affiliated with one or more of them. And working as they do to develop, organize and express the various facets of public opinion, these movements have quite logically taken the initiative and primary responsibility for adult education. Thus while adult education in other countries has often been a kind of philanthropic project, promoted <u>for</u> the people, in Scandinavia it has been developed <u>by</u> the people as well - by the people and through the people's organizations.

It was the temperance movement which took the lead in Sweden. The International Order of Good Templars organized the first Swedish study groups at the University of Lund in 1902 under the leadership of Oscar Olsson, then an undergraduate at Lund, later international president of the Order of Good Templars, and a Social Democratic member of the Swedish Parliament. The labour movement had already made sporadic efforts to promote educational work for adults. At the beginning of the century these efforts captured the interest of a lecturer at the Brunnsvik People's High School,

Rickard Sandler, who later became one of the nation's foremost political leaders and served in the government as both Prime Minister and Minister of Foreign Affairs. Sandler's work matured in 1912 with the foundation of the Worker's Educational Association, known as ABF in Swedish. The association was directed from Brunnsvik during its first decade, and even after the head office had been moved to Stockholm, Brunnsvik remained a center for worker's education; ABF has trained study-circle leaders there every summer since 1923.

Other organizations soon followed the example set by the IOGT and the labour movement. The National Order of Templars and the Blue Ribbon Society, two other temperance societies, founded adult educational associations of their own, and they were followed by the farmer's organizations. The Young Farmer's League (JUF) launched an educational program which puts special emphasis on the organization's political neutrality. The farmers' political federations have formed an educational society called SLS, which corresponds roughly to the Workers' Educational Association. The unions of white-collar employees have a separate educational program, TBV, and during recent years the Swedish Conservative Party has started an educational organization called SFM. The various religious societies, independent in themselves, have joined forces and formed the Swedish Christian Education Association, to ensure their internal co-operation in the furtherance of adult education.

The system of popular education has thus developed so that almost every citizen can find educational opportunities in some organization with which he has a natural connection. The suggestion has been made at times that all of these educational associations should become affiliated and have a single program, but the proposal has always been rejected; as long as different economic, social and political groups want to handle educational activities in their own ways, a true democracy cannot force a unification. The state subsidized associations do co-operate with each other through a joint educational federation, a loosely-organized clearinghouse that arranges joint conferences and study courses, publishes a periodical called Folklig Kultur (Popular Culture), and helps finance and direct joint musical activities. All of

them receive financial support from the national government and sometimes from local government agencies as well.

Unlike other Scandinavian countries Sweden has three distinct components to its educational program: libraries, lectures and study circles.

Libraries. In addition to its municipal library a Swedish community often has at its disposal several public libraries owned and operated by the educational associations listed above. There were 1,551 municipal libraries in the country in 1948, owning almost six million books and making more than 12 million loans during the year. The national government contributed 1,573,469 kronor toward their upkeep.

The associations' libraries, in many cases originating through the establishment of study circles at some place or other, outnumber the municipal ones - there were 5,136 of them in 1948 - but their total stock of 2,301,838 books and their annual total of about 2500,000 loans are evidence of the fact that they are generally quite small. A proposal is now expected, however, to place the libraries under the management of the municipalities, the latter to receive a state grant for this work. The existing libraries would then gradually be discontinued. IOGT is the leading organization in library work, with something over 1,500 institutions, and is followed by ABF with about 1,300; SLS, with 706, and NTO, with 587. TBV and SFM have no libraries of their own.

Public Lectures fall into three different categories. The first includes the individual "popular science" lectures sponsored by old, established associations founded for this special purpose and not connected with the regular adult-education organizations, plus single lectures sponsored by the latter. It was once predicted that the radio would make such talks superfluous, but the prediction has proved erroneous; government support for this work has, in fact, recently been increased. A constant controversy is waged over which elements is of prime importance in these lectures, entertainment or instruction. The single lectures often give preference to the former, but they are nevertheless of great value in rousing interest and in complementing other lines of study.

The second type is the lecture series, usually three or

four talks delivered over two successive evenings - Saturday and Sunday evenings as a rule. Each lecture course has its own speaker. The national associations help to arrange the courses but the local chapters pick the subject and the speaker. Such courses are held in connection with study circles; the local group which requests a lecture series must show that it is conducting or planning study-circle work on the same subject.

The statistics on these two types of lecture work show that the country's 697 local, independent societies staged a total of 8,410 lectures in 1947/48, with an average attendance of 98. The WEA and other popular movements ran 584 series in 1948/49, with a total attendance of 48,412.

The third type - the so-called popular education course - is divided into a general instruction course with at least 30 tuition periods, and a professional course with at least 10 and at most 20 tuition periods, which are held by the particular provincial adult education association of the "People's High Schools". The first named course must last for not less than 3 weeks with at least 6 tuition periods per week. The aim of both types of course is primarily to give remote districts a chance to share in the educational opportunities offered by the People's High Schools. Altogether 291 such courses were held in 1947/48.

The national and local governments give financial assistance to all of these different lecture programs; the state gives about 440,000 kronor a year toward the single lectures and lecture series, and about 125,000 a year for the popular-education courses. However, the sponsoring organizations and the people who attend must pay part of the costs.

Study Circles are groups from five to thirty men and women who work together at discussing, reading about, and studying some chosen subject. They operate in many different ways. Some circles work under the guidance of an instructor, some by themselves. Some map their own programs, some follow plans supplied by their educational associations. Some merely read and discuss, others do research, and others study regular school courses in such subjects as arithmetic and bookkeeping under a teacher's supervision. There are study circles that work on correspondence school courses and others that regular-

ly follow a study program broadcast by the Swedish radio. The subjects that occupy these circles are many and varied, ranging just within ABF, for instance, from trade unionism to English.

Altogether there were 337,070 individuals enrolled in a total of 27,204 study circles during 1948-49. The following table gives a breakdown by size and sponsors.

Sponsor	No. of circles	Total enrollment
WEA	11.625	143,143
The Education Association of IOGT	2.059	24.601
The Education Association of Swedish Farmers	3.683	32.050
Young Farmers' League	780	8.628
The Christian Education Association	3.942	63.701
Other educational associations .	3,767	43.734
University extension	1.348	21.213
Total	27.204	337.070

Another 45.342 students were enrolled in 3.325 discussion groups, an activity particularly favored by the cooperative societies. The Cooperative Movement and Wholesale Society has 2,000 study circles with 20,000 members.

The instruction given by the various correspondence institutes must not be neglected in an account of Swedish adult education. Of the three biggest correspondence institutes, two are private while the third, the "Letter School", was founded by the cooperative movement. It is nowadays regarded as the common concern of the popular movements in Sweden and comprises 6,065 courses with 74,000 students now at work. These institutes offer every imaginable kind of education up to, but not including, the university level. The first two operate on a more commercial basis and concentrate on standard school-subjects, while the latter works in intimate cooperation with the popular movements and emphasizes social and practical subjects. Other organizations have started correspondence schools of their own. Some of the trade unions, for instance, have courses teaching technical subjects, and the Swedish Farmers' Union

offers agricultural courses.

About 300,000 students register for correspondence school courses each year.

The courses arranged bb the Swedish Broadcasting Corporation are based on special Listeners' Letters, which are sold to subscribers and serve as a guide to lessons over the radio. 70,000 such letters were sold for a beginner's course in English that began in the fall of 1945 and lasted for a year and a half; 20,000 subscribers followed a similar course in Russian given in 1945-46.

The choice of subjects for both lectures and study circles naturally varies considerably among the different associations. There is a marked difference between the subjects which interest the younger generation of farmers and those which attract the young workers, just as the religious educational societies tend to favor other fields of study than the secular groups do. Almost all of the associations, to be sure, devote considerable time to subjects that train students in citizenship - problems of local government, for instance, predominate in the curricula of all the associations. But otherwise, the programs diverge; the study of Swedish trade unionism, political problems and organizational techniques occupy the same place of prominence in ABF study rosters as religious history, Bible studies and missionary problems do in the curriculum of a religious association. Agricultural associations, white-collar groups and temperance societies each have special fields of interest that are reflected in their educational activities.

The various groups do, however, have a second feature in common: the prominent position occupied by elementary subjects, a prominence that is surprising in view of the fact that the level of general education in Sweden is recognized as a high one. Such elementary subjects together with courses of a basic, academic nature have, in fact, played a much larger role in adult education than the leaders of the movement would wish: they would much prefer to spend more time on courses that help to develop the student's interest, imagination and taste - courses that can advance the student's personal talents and interests - and less time on those that simply remedy a lack of grade-school fundamentals. One of

current problems occupying Swedish adult education involves changing this emphasis. Much is hoped for from school-reform proposals; a modernized school system, for instance, can reasonably be expected to equip students with a knowledge of Swedish and mathematics sufficient to free the energies of adult education for more advanced and more specialized instruction. Leaders of the movement do not underestimate the value of a solid academic foundation, but all of them want to see the world of ideas given greater attention in adult educational activity.

Sweden's adult education programs generally lack the close contact with the universities that similar work enjoys in England, although the People's High Schools do provide one kind of link with the academic world which is absent in England.

At the moment there are about 70 state-supported People's High Schools in Sweden besides a few of a more private character. Some of these schools - as, for instance, those at Brunnsvik, Jakobsberg, Lillsved, Vendelsberg, Sigtuna and Sjövik - work in close conjunction with the popular movements, but most of them have been established to serve a certain district or county. The majority of schools give one winter course for men or for men and women together, and a summer course for women only. A full course consists of two winter terms.

The subjects taught vary according to the type of school. The government requires, as a condition for granting financial aid, that certain subjects are made compulsory. Courses required during the first term include, for example, Swedish language and literature, Swedish history and sociology, mathematics, geography, singing, and gymnastics. Other subjects are chosen by the school itself. Some schools, particularly those connected with the labor and temperance movements, devote much time to political and sociological subjects and even general subjects are studied against a sociological background. Popular subjects at all people's high schools are languages, philosophy, psychology, the history of human culture and economics, and regional studies.

The pupils at the People's High Schools are chiefly young men and women working in industry and agriculture. Their

average age varies from between 18 to 25 and in most schools is about 20. The majority of them have had no previous instruction except that given in the primary schools and in voluntary study circles and lecture courses. In recent years the state has made it possible for persons without sufficient means to attend these schools by offering a large number of scholarships.

The schools are crammed to the limit, and in the autumn of 1948 about 3,000 applicants had to be turned down because of lack of accomodation. The number of admitted students to the winter course of 1948-49 was about 6,300, to which may be added, if one wants a picture over the whole school year 1948, about 2,200 pupils for the spring and summer courses.

Recently the students at the Swedish universities have taken up a kind of university extension work called "Kursverksamhet". The four associations for "kursverksamhet" in Sweden form together with a few other adult education organizations the so-called "People's university". These programs provide still further educational opportunities for the citizens of the university towns, but their greatest contribution, perhaps, is their experimentation with new teaching methods. They also have an extra measure of value in the opportunity they give undergraduates to join in adult education work and thus gain some experience with it, both as teachers and as students, before leaving the university.

In July, 1947, government subsidies for adult education work were considerably increased and now cover 50 per cent of t the administrative costs. Lump-sum grants make it possible for the associations to employ more fulltime advisors and instructors, and thus in turn train more study-circle leaders and expand the lecture programs. Perhaps the most important feature of the new system of government aid is the fact that study circles, which previously received no financial aid, are now eligible for grants that will pay about halv their cost.

Adult education programs have great potentialities as a path to closer cooperation and better understanding among the Scandinavian nations, and prewar contacts, broken by the German invasion of Denmark and Norway, have been reestablished

since the return of peace. They offer a promising field for cooperation, for the differences in the educational programs of the Scandinavian countries are few and insignificant. In all of them adult education has the same purpose: to encourage social, moral and intellectual responsibility among members of the popular movements, and to educate men and women for a higher standard of national and world citizenship.

Stockholm, May 1950

THE SWEDISH INSTITUTE

STOCKHOLM 3

Information Service

Vocational Guidance.

by Cedric Larson

One of the most important decisions that a young person can ever make is the choise of a career. This is especially true in those countries of the free world, such as the United States and Sweden, where any individual may choose his own occupation, and where the only ceiling on his progress is his own lack of energy, which may be limited by ill health, or some fault in planning. Vocational Guidance seeks to help a youngster work out his own plan for a career by understanding his aptitudes, his likes and dislikes, his physical fitness for certain occupations and other conditions which may influence his future. It has developed into quite a science in recent years.

The basic deifference in the vocational guidance system of the two countries is that in Sweden it is centralizid and largely under the control of the Stae, through two of the "department" which make up the Cabinet. They are the Ministries of Education and of Labor. In the United States vocational guidance is largely decentralized in character, and administered at local levels generally through the school system, particularly in high schools and colleges, or through training systems set up by employers.

Three professional organizations have influenced the development of guidance work in the United States - the National Vocational Guidance Association, the National Education Association and the American Vocational Association. The NVGA now reaches inte virtually every school through its national or local agencies, and it has had a potent voice in raising professional standards of vocational advisers.

The public school system, which annually enrolls nearly 35 million students, is the largest single vocational guidance agency in the United States. Nearly every state has some type of training for teachers to equip them for guidance activities. There is in both countries a dearth of trained workers. However, 37 states in 1950 reported that their principal state t e a c h e r training institutions were providing some pre-service training for teachers who would be called upon to do guidance work. Many states now require at least one professional guidance course in the certification requirements for all teachers. Twenty-seven of the 48 states reported well-established "inservice training" for guidance

workers, also that 317 separate in-service training meetings or conferences reached 3.927 individuals d u r i n g 1950.

Active professional membership of NVGA in the spring of 1951 was reported at 5.456, a gain of 5.5 per cent. That membership is comprised chiefly of persons devoting full time to vocational guidance activities in all fields. New York State has over 800 of the national membership. Another feature of the American system is the limited role of the Federal Government. Education is considered essentially a state function. Federal prerogatives extend only to leadership and coordination. While large sums of Federal funds are allocated to state and local vocational guidance programs, the Office of Education, now in the Federal Security Agency, requires only that state activities conform to the laws on vocational education.

In the U.S. Office of Education the Occupational Information and Guidance Service, headed by Dr. Harry A. Jager, is manned by a few experts and is the Federal nucleus of system assisting state education departments and kindred activities. It assures that certain mimimum sta are observed. The U.S. Employment Service of the Labor Department works in three directions. It has conducted remarkable studies in job analysis, culminating in the D i c t i o n a r y o f O c c u p a- t i o n a l T i t l e s (D.O.T.) in two volumes, listing, codifying and defining 40.000 occupations - recently revised - which is an indispensable handbook for every vocational counsellor. It has made equally important studies of worker analysis, and has established counselling activities as regular procedures in its offices. Some of its activities have had the assistance of private grants.

The U.S. Employment Service has offered job counselling as part of its regular program since 1933, although halted during the war. During 1945 - 1947 the Service gave counsel to 1.880.425 applicants, of whom 1.300.000 were ex-service men. Job counselling service is given in each of the 1.800 offices. Local managements is left to the states. It is estimated that this service reaches a hundred thousa persons a month, and a good share of them receive some vocational counselling.

The Veteran Administration set up to deal with the rehabilitation of the ex-service men, has an Advisement and Guidance Service responsi- ble for developing its counselling program. This Service works with the Training Facilities and Education and Traning Sections of the same agency to provide the supervision, counselling, education and training and vocational adjustment of ex-service men. Millions of veterans have had the benefits of the so-called "G.I. Education Bill" at a cost

of several million dollars of tax money. Under a special law every disabled veteran - there are about 1.750.000 veterans with service--connected disabilities - requiring vocation rehabilitation must take advantage of the counselling facilities provided by the agency. Other veterans may avail themselves of the facilities if they wish. At the peak of this counselling program in August 1947 more than a million veterans had availed themselves of the counselling services at some 700 n a t i o n a l l y distributed centers.

In the United States the vocational guidance counsellor meets with two main problems: guidance of the adult who consults him in an emergency and the school pupil at whatever level. In the former case the counsellor has to reconstruct his client's history as best he can, analyze his present status, and help him to arrive at a solution of his problems, with a down-to-earth view. That situation is common, for example, in the case of veterans, vocationally displaced persons and the physically handicapped. With school pupils or high school and college students, the counsellor usually has access to the comulative records kept throughout the school career.

The importance attached by industry to the techniques of vocational guidance is shown in the elaborate and expensive provisions for tests, interviewing and job and worker analysis in personnel offices of most large industrial organizations. It is universally recognized that the happiness and satisfaction of the worker on the job are important elements tending to increased producation. The personnel office in a typical industrial plant makes wide use of the data available at the schools and state employment office from which it draws its labor supply, to obtain accurate information so applicants receive jobs most suited to their abilities and personalities.

It now is almost a custom in American businees for members of the staff of personnel departments to be members of professional organizations of vocational guidance, such as NVGA, and there is a free exchange of guidance workers in schools, employment agencies and similar groups and the personnel offices of industry and commerce. In spite of those common interests, however, an important distinction exists between the interests of the vocational guidance services and the personnel departments in industry. The main interest of the personnel office is the success of the industrial concern. The object of the vocational counselling office is to preserve for the individual the rights of choice, adjustment and progress. The interests of the two groups are quite reconcilable, but the distinction remains important in our free society which fosters freedom and initiative.

In Sweden vocational guidance is centered largely in the Government. Sweden has progressed far along the so-called "middle-way", and has not had its social order disturbed by the disrupting influence of two major wars in one generation. Responsible to the Government Departments, although vested with considerable independent powers, are a number of agencies, boards and similar establishments. One of the most important is the Royal Labor Board, Kungl. Arbetsmarknadsstyrelsen, and it is the Vocational Guidance Bureau, Yrkesvägledningsbyrån.

One of the main functions of the Royal Labor Board is that of labor recruitment and placement. In that sense it functions like the U.S. Employment Service, and has offices throughout Sweden. It was believed most feasible to attach vocationel guidance structurally to the employment services, because they were provided with speical juvenile divisions. That viewpoint also was justified by other considerations. The parallel organization of vocation guidance and placement, it was held, in a direct and natural manner would permit the employment services to learn more about the most needed areas for study and training, and keep in step with occupational developments generally. Further, those two services together would ficilitate the use of vocational guidance in employment planning should that be necessary. Most important, the public employment services were given a powerful organization structure which could blanket the country effectively at all levels in a fully integrated system.

In each of the 25 provinces of Sweden t h e employment services have been grouped under a single body - the Provincial Employment Board - with the Royal Labor Board as the central institution. There is a main office in each province, with full-time branch and part-time local offices and agencies under its supervision. The number of field officers of the employment services of all types in the country is about 269, i n c l u d i n g 25 main offices, 178 branches and 66 local offices, with about 1.100 agents.

The proposal that vocationel guidance should be placed within the general system in the schools, as in the United Stated, was rejected also because those who dropped their education after grammar school at the age of 14 to 16 usually were not developed enough for their aptitudes to be judged with certainty.

In Sweden school attendance is compulsory between the ages of seven and fourteen. In some cities the age limit is higher. The basic grammar school, Folkskolan, in Sweden as in many European

countries acts as a sort of screen for secondary schools, technical schools and universities. About 700.000 children are of elementary age in Sweden, and while educational work in the grade schools is on a high plane- the literacy rate to all intents and purposes being 100 per cent - the number of students going on to the secondary and technical schools, Realskolan, Gymnasium and Högskolor, is a much more selected group, relatively speaking, than in the United States.

For that reason the Vocational Guidance Bureau in Sweden has been especially interested since the war in extending downward inte the grades as far as possible the vocational guidance process. Elementary s c h o o l teachers are instructed to stress the coming need to choose an occupation. Even in the middle grammar grades, when students must write an essay they are given a subject such as "My Future". It is the duty and responsibility of the teacher to give the class "p r e p a r a t o r y guidance" throughout the curriculum. A discussion on some special problems of choice of vocation may take place during a class period.

Vocational guidance officers of the employment service give talks or lectures for the upper grades. Personal takls or interviews are arranged for students in the last two upper grades. The higher elementary grades in Sweden often have male teachers, and frequently they go on field trips to industrial plants and factories, spending the whole day there. The students also read and discuss attractive pamphlets published by the Vocational Guidance Bureau and slanted to the comprehension of juvenile readers.

It is not difficult to stress preparatory guidance at the elementary level on a national scale in Sweden, because all teachers are paid by the Government, and educational matters are under the authority of the Ministry of Education, with some local control. Hence instructions to stress preparatory guidance are observed.

Vocational Guidance in the secondary schools is more deliberate. The pupils are older and usually members of the upper strata, being generally 16 or 17 years old in the "middle schools", and 18 or 19, sometimes 20, in the upper secondary schools or j u n i o r colleges. The Vocational Guidance Bureau has published a wide variety of pamphlets and literature suited to needs and interests of the repidly maturing adolescent. These are made available in quanty, and the pupils and parents alike are expected to study them. In the upper secondary grades, all pupils must fill out a detailed questionnaire concerning the chose of an occupation. There are three levels of

questionnaires. When these are filled out, they are sent on to the advisers. Periodic talks are given to the classes on current employment trends and opportunities, and each student later is individually interviewed. A fair number know exactly what they are aiming at occupationally, and when it seems to accord with the individual's abilities, he is encouraged. If it is an obvious mal-selection, succeeding interviews try to steer the student into more practicable fields.

In Sweden guidance in the secondary level is of prime importance, because the next higher school which the student may attend is determined largely by his or her vocational choice at the secondary level. The idea stressed throughout these formative years is that guidance should be pupil-centered as much as possible and to let their inclinations govern their choices wherever possible. The use of aptitude, intelligence and personality tests, while available to the secondary student is not as widespread in Sweden as in the United States.

There now is being completed an Occupational Index, Yrkeskartotek, which will embrace some 600 occupational analyses for Sweden. It gives the type of work, number of esatblishments and workers in the different branches, employers' a n d workers' organizations, physical and psychological requirements, training, chances of promotion, economic conditions, the future of the trade, and all extant publications available about the trade. Material for the Index constantly is undergoing study and revision. It is acquired by interviews and meetings, study of trade publications and observation and analysis at working establishments. It is distributed not only to the employment and vocational guidance offices throughout the nation, but also to schools, libraries and other public institutions.

The Vocational Guidance Bureau also has had great success preparing annually in pamphlet form a wide varity of publications, which contain occupational information of all types on the various trades and professions. These pamphlets, designed for the young, are attractive products of the graphic arts, and profusely illustrated. They are provided free of charge to youths and parents alike.

Because the choice of trade and training is for many people an economic problem, summaries of scholarships, fellowships, loans and other allowances from national or local authorities, or other sources, are distributed. Prospectuses from about 250 specialized vocational training institutions are issued to local offices. Any youth of either sex of better than average ability, with drive, purpose and character, always can manage to get the desired schooling, because of readily available loan funds form G o v e r n m e n t and private sources. Those loans are repaid,

and the looses are negligible.

In Sweden as in Britain, the Government enjoys a radio monopoly, and the Vocational Guidance B u r e a u has definitely scheduled "radio hours" throughout the year, in which interesting educational talks are given, some of which pertain to vocational guidance. One very popular feature has been a "Radio Letter-Box" for questions relating to all types of vocational guidance matters, which anyone may send in, and which are answered via the microphone.

Throughout Sweden about 500 full and part-time officials now are engaged exclusively in juvenile vocational guidance and placement work. There also is a field organization with a staff of about 100 which has been built up for the special treatment of disabled and handicapped persons.

The duty of a typical local vocational guidance office in Sweden might be summarized as follows: 1. To make a young person conscious at an early age of the importance of choosing an occupation and of undertaking vocational training; 2. Explain what occupations and forms of training are available and the requirements and prospects in each case; 3. To help the youngster to determine clearly his own aptitudes, interests and needs occupationally; 4. Where a choise is obviously bad, to counsel against it and set forth alternatives; 5. After an occupational decision has been made, to help in a more precise formulation of plans and lay out a suitable course of study in cooperation with the teacher; 6. To aid the young person in a material sense by finding him a suitable on-the-job training opening, or establishing contact for him with a trade or professional school, or secure financial support in some form; 7. To maintain a satisfactory followup with the subject and supervise his progress until assured it is satisfactory.

About a hundred thousand youths a year receive varying degrees of fairly personal occupational guidance and counselling, and close to 70.000 of them are channeled inte technical jobs in industry, business or the professions or semi-skilled trades. That it is done with a minimum of "occupational floundering" and with maximum attention the the wishes of the students themselves is a remarkable feature of the Swedish system.

Even the girls who marry and become home-makers are given careful guidance and counselling, because the general labor shortage since the war encourges mothers of two or three children to take jobs. The Government, incidentally, provides high-type-day nurseries for children of working mothers at a very low fee.

An index of occupational mobility, shifting or worker dissatisfaction is the so-called "annual quite-rate" or "separation rate". Sweden apparently has the lowest rate, indicating the apparent success of counselling and guidance.

The Swedish of course do not claim that Utopia has been reached in vocational guidance, Here are some of the future developments they hope to incorporate in their system: 1. Better technical training for vocational guidance personnel, like that in the United States; 2- Create an employment research and forecast institute within the Vocational Guidance Bureau; 3. Increase the use of psychological and aptitude test with children generally; 4. Raise entrance requirements in many occupations so that more children will attend and complete secondary schools; 5. Integrate vocational guidance procedures unifomrly throughout elemenatry and high school for all students; 6 . Special attention and help for gifted children; 7. Gradually entrust more of the vocational guidance work to the educational system itself, provided there be constant collaboration with the Vocational Guidance Bureau and employment system; and 8. Continous research in vocational guidance methods and techniques.

From "The American Swedish Monthly", July 1951.

S.V.C.K.
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Review of the Care of Cripples in Sweden.

Sweden is in want of a united legislation concerning the care of cripples in different respects. The existing legislation is divided into a number of various acts.

This lack of unanimity is however of little real importance to the cripples as it is generally considered that this group has had its interests well taken care of. This may partly be ascribed to the fact that the institutions in charge of this care have from the start consciously aimed at the realisation of the principle of the complete care. They have thus here considered it their task not only to afford orthopaedic care, including the furnishing of necessary ligatures and artificial limbs, etc., but also to provide tuition in a profession and take other measures which facilitate the cripple's entry into the labour market.

Of decisive importance for the development is the considerable economic support given this activity by the community, a circumstance which displays the understanding of the authorities and confidence placed by them in the direction of the various institutions.

The main responsibility for the care of cripples in Sweden has for a long time hence rested with the four institutions for the care of cripples situated in Stockholm, Gothenburg, Hälsingborg and Härnösand, which institutions are the medical, social and pedagogic centres for this care in their respective districts. In addition may be mentioned the Eugenia Home in Stockholm whose clientele mainly consists of cripples and whose foremost task is school tuition. Orthopaedic care can also be received at certain clinics attached to various hospitals (St. Göran's Hospital and the South Hospital (Södersjukhuset) in Stockholm, and the hospitals in Malmö, Lund, Örebro and Linköping) and it is reckoned that this form of orthopaedic care will be further developed in the future. For the care of patients suffering

from tuberculosis of the bone and joints there are special hospitals: the coast sanatoria in Apelviken and Vejbystrand and the Solhem hospital in Borås. There is further a small hospital called "Guldbröllopsminnet" situated in Nynäshamn which is attached to the clinic of the St. Göran's Hospital.

There are several summer homes for convalescence and recreation of which those run by the National Organisation of Cripples - the cripples' own organisation - and situated in Vejbystrand and Delsbo are here worthy of mention.

./. The table 1 displays the present number of cripples who are afforded care, tuition and recreation.

The institutions for the care of cripples are thus able to offer the cripples on the one hand orthopaedic care in their outpatient departments and clinics with their adjoining treatment departments and orthopaedic workshops, and on the other hand social rehabilitation through welfare offices, trade schools and, as is the case in the Stockholm and Hälsingborg institutions, through offering persons with a high degree of invalidity a residence in the so-called work homes.

The patients who visit the orthopaedic out-patient department or who are accomodated in the clinic receive advice from the welfare officer in social matters. This advice to the cripple clientele mostly concerns questions in relation to their future employment.

Where it is considered advisable a cripple is entered at a trade school attached to one of the institutions - <u>all</u> of the trade branches belonging to the institution are here open to the cripple regardless of the place where he or she

./. is domiciled. (Table 2).

At three of the cripple institutions (Stockholm, Hälsingborg and Härnösand) and at the Eugenia Home special schools with adjoining pupils' hostels have been set up for cripples in the elementary school age, at which schools they are also able to receive such treatment which might be necessary. Latterly a special higher grade elementary school has been established which is designed to open the way to high school.

There are three welfare and work homes for adult cripples who are unable to maintain themselves in the open labour market and who in some cases may be in need of certain care on

account of their invalidity. The Stockholm institution for the care of cripples thus has a work home situated at Hedemora (Norrbackagården) which accommodates both female and male cripples, the Hälsingborg institution has a home of the same type (Österhemmet). The Eugenia Home has a home for both female and male pensioners called Nya Hemmet.

State influence and State subsidies.

Half the number of members of the board of directors of the cripples institutions and the coast sanatoria (including the Solhem hospital, Borås) are chosen by the Government who also appoint the chairman.

The reason for this attachment to the State authorities is the constantly growing economic support afforded by the State. The State subsidies are at present issued both in the form af regular subsidies per each patient and day and in the form of deficit grants which in practice mainly cover the remaining expenses of the activity. State subsidies are further issued covering two-thirds of the total expenditure on orthopaedic ligatures and artificial limbs prescribed by these institutions (including the hospital clinics) and travel grants are also issued to patients and pupils as well as to their attendants.

The total State subsidies issued to the care of cripples amounted to approximately 9 million Cr. in 1950.

Central bodies of importance to the care of cripples.

With regard to administration the institutions for the care of cripples rank below the Medical Board. Among the tasks thus falling upon the Medical Board are the scrutiny and approval of the budget of the institutions and the inspection of their activities, in particular with regard to medical care.

The institutions for the care of cripples also maintain close contact with the Pensions Board. The Pensions Board decides about and provides trade tuition at the institutions for the care of cripples. The trade tuition activity of the Pensions Board is, moreover, of great importance to cripples who receive their tuition outside the institutions.

The Education Board supervises the tuition at the school hostels of the institutions.

The Labour Market Board and the labour exchanges are also of importance to the cripple labour power. Special officers of the Labour Market Board are attached locally to the county labour committees as well as centrally to the chancery of the Boards, the task of these officers being to look after the interests on the labour market of labour power difficult to place.

Matters concerning the care of cripples in the whole country and investigations in relation hereto are handled by the Central Committee ~~of the Institutions~~ for the Care of Cripples in Sweden (SVCK) which was founded in 1911. SVCK is the representative body of the institutions for the care of cripples, the Eugenia Home and the National Organisation of Cripples (DVR).

SVCK also carries on enlightenment activity concerning the care of cripples, it arranges courses for officials in the cripple welfare organisation and issues scholarships to those officials for study tours, etc. Part of the Central Committee's funds is placed at the disposal of the institutions for distribution to individual cripples.

Worthy of mention is also the formation of an organisation, The National Organisation of Cripples (DVR), founded in 1923, now counting approximately 6.000 members divided into about 50 local branches. One of the foremost tasks of the organisation is to foster good representatives for the invalid cause and trustworthy citizens of the community. With this aim in view the organisation has taken the initiative to individual and collective studies and to the arranging of conferences relating to topical social matters.

Opinions on the future activity of the care of cripples.

Even though it may be stated that the measures taken for the solution of the cripple problem in Sweden are of a relatively high standard, this does not necessarily imply that these measures are satisfactory in every respect. Cercles concerned with the care of cripples are well aware of this fact and, as they have done hitherto, they are trying to improve and develop these measures.

One might, however, express the opinion that while it

is impossible at present to afford orthopaedic care to all who are in need thereof, other groups of cripple welfare: trade tuition, school hostel and work home activities seem largely to have reached the necessary expansion. Here it is only important to improve the quality.

These opinions have also been voiced in a report issued during the autumn of 1948 by a State committee, the Expert Committee of the Orthopaedic and Cripple Welfare, appointed to investigate these matters.

This committee suggests that the need for orthopaedic care be met by a successive inauguration of 20 new orthopaedic clinics to accomodate altogether approximately 1.700 persons. Orthopaedic care should - similar to other physical medical care - be arranged by the County Councils who to this end should receive State subsidies similar to those which will be issued to the ordinary physical medical care. Each county (with the exception of Gotland) should hereby get its own orthopaedic clinic.

The intention of the Expert Committee was that the clinics of the institutions for the care of cripples should remain under the supervision of their present heads but they should mainly be at the disposal of the county in which they are situated. The County Councils should hereby refund the expenses per patient and day to the cripple institution concerned. The Expert Committee do not recommend any change in the prēsent management of the institutions other than that they consider the County Councils should be given greater influence, for which reason they suggest a representative of the County Council of the county in which a cripple institution is situated be appointed to the Board of the institution.

With regard to the welfare officer activity a certain expansion is recommended.

So far as pupil vacancies at the trade schools of the cripple institutions permit, pupils other than cripples should be admitted. In such circumstances persons suffering from other disablement should be given preference but it ought not to be impossible for a pupil free from illness or disablement to be permitted entry.

The Trade Education Board is recommended to be given supervisory authority over the trade schools attached to the institutions as also decisive power with regard to establishing the competence of the teachers at these trade schools. It is further suggested that the Trade Education Board be given a certain amount of influence in the appointment of headmasters at these schools.

The Expert Committee do not consider a general expansion of the school hostel and work home activity necessary; they opine, however, that the demands for school tuition and the care of a special group, i.e. those suffering from a high degree of cerebral palsy, are at present difficult to satisfy. The Expert Committee base their views in this connection on investigations made by the Central Committee ~~of the Swedish Institutions~~ for the Care of Cripples, which investigations show the want on the one hand of a special school hostel with 65 vacancies for pupils suffering from high degree of cerebral palsy, and on the other of vacancies in work homes for adults suffering from the same defect who are consequently faced with great problems for their maintenance.

As far as the financing of the care of cripples is concerned, the Expert Committee consider that the regular State subsidies should be discontinued and that the State instead should stand for the total expense of the running and building costs of the various institutions (excepting medical treatment, see above). Further, State subsidies for orthopaedic ligatures and artificial limbs should be raised from two-thirds to four-fifths of the total expenditure.

Stockholm, October 1951.

Schedule 1

	Orthopaedic care		Accomodation at trade schools		Accomodation at school hostels	Accomodation at work homes	Accomodation at convalescent and recreation homes
	Ordinary beds	Temporary beds	Pupils living in 4)	Pupils living elsewhere 5)			
The Institution for the Care of Cripples, Stockholm	171	50 [1]	140	35	95	31	-
" " " " Gothenburg	97	-	135	20	-	-	-
" " " " Hälsingborg	80	-	120	-	50	20	-
" " " " Härnösand	103	10	93	5	43	-	-
Eugenia Home, Stockholm	35	-	-	-	90	33	-
The Orthopaedic Clinic at S:t Göran's Hospital, Stockholm	138 [2]	-	-	-	-	-	-
The Orthopaedic Clinic at Södersjukhuset, Stockholm	32	-	-	-	-	-	-
The Orthopaedic Clinic, Lund	156	-	-	-	-	-	-
" " " , Malmö	131 [3]	-	-	-	-	-	-
" " " Örebro	33	-	-	-	-	-	-
" " " Linköping	48	-	-	-	-	-	-
The Seaside Sanatorium Vejbystrand	259	-	-	-	-	-	-
" " " Apelviksstrand	371	-	-	-	-	-	-
Solhem's Hospital, Borås	90	10	-	-	-	-	-
Guldbröllopsminnet, Nynäshamn	23	-	-	-	-	-	-
The Convalescent Home Sommarsol, Vejbystrand	-	-	-	-	-	-	100
The Recreation Home Dellenbord, Delsbo	-	-	-	-	-	-	30
Total	1.767	70	488	60	278	84	130

1) In the nursing home in Vejbystrand.
2) Thereof 62 beds for bone and joint TB
3) Beds in the surgical clinic
4) Internal pupil lives in the pupils hostel.
5) External pupil lives outside the pupils hostel.

Schedule 2.

Profession	Period of tuition	The institution for the care of cripples in			
		Stock-holm	Gothem-burg	Häl-singborg	Härnö-sand
Mechanic	4 years	x	x	-	-
Wireless mechanic	4 "	-	x	-	-
Car lacquering	4 "	x	-	x	-
Furniture carpentry (incl. polishing & turning)	4 "	x	x	x	x
Basket chair making & braiding of chair seats	4 "	-	-	x	-
Typographer (type-setter & printer)	4 "	-	x	-	-
Book-binding	4 "	-	x	x	-
Tailoring	4 "	x	x	x	x
Photography	3 "	-	x	-	-
Shoemaking	2-3 "	x	x	x	x
Upholstering	4 "	x	x	x	x
Painting	4 "	x	x	x	x
Brush-making	1-1½ "	-	-	x	-
Dressmaking (for adults & children) Fine needlework, Ready-made clothing	1½-3 "	x	x	x	x
Housemaid	1-2 "	x	-	-	x
Milliner	2 "	-	-	x	-
Various types & modes of work for badly crippled persons (marking, needlework, stitching of quilts, making of lampshades, machine embroidery, metal work, etc.)	various periods of tuition	x	-	x	-
Making of knitted goods	2 years	-	-	x	-

THE SWEDISH INSTITUTE
STOCKHOLM

Information Service

Legislation Concerning Young Delinquents in Sweden.

Young persons who commit criminal actions can be subjected to either juridical measures,(law court)or to measures taken by the Social Welfare institutions (Child and Youth Welfare). There are no special law courts for young criminals. When dealing with cases concerning young persons, the regular court consists of an experienced jurist appointed by the government, and of some lay judges elected by the municipal councils. Every community has its own Youth and Child Welfare committee. The board of such a committee is composed of at least five persons including a physician, a priest, and a teacher. Both sexes must be represented in the committee.

The investigations concerning a case are handled by the police. No case can be dealt with by the law court without the decision of a prosecutor appointed by the government. The prosecutor may grant a remission of the trial if the Child and Youth Welfare board can take satisfactory measures on behalf of the young delinquent. If a case has been reported for trial, the judge may demand a special preliminary investigation concerning the conduct, and personal conditions of the accused, as well as a preliminary medical examination. Later on during the trial, the court can also ordain a thorough medical examination of the accused by a psychiatrist, if necessary.

The police investigates eventually also cases which are taken up by the Child and Youth Welfare committees, but generally most of the facts are collected by the latter's own social welfare workers, psychiatrists and physicians. The Child and Youth Welfare board has a steadily growing number of clinics, for psychiatric examination and advisory treatment at its disposal, for the purpose.

Simple imprisonment or imprisonment at labour:

The first alternative is milder and means that the entire period of confinement will be spend in an "open" institution. The second alternative on the other hand implies a regular prison to start with, but the young criminals are later on removed to "open" institutions where they remain till the end of the penal period.

Imprisonment in a youth prison:

For young persons between the ages of 18 and 21, there are special institutions called youth prisons. The length of the period of confinement in such an institution is not definite but has its maximum and minimum limits. It is the task of these institutions to provide professional training for the young criminals as well as accustom them to regular work.

Suspension of sentence and probation:

The conditional sentence can be connected with prescriptions concerning the occupation of the delinquent, his lodgings, relations and the way he spends his income. The court can also demand that the de-

linquent be put under supervision or that a youth welfare committee should take care of him.

All penal establishments are managed by the state, and are under the control of the administration of the prison board, which also decides to what establishment the delinquent in question is going to be sent to. Every inmate who leaves prison after a punishment of more than six months and every young delinquent will for a certain time, regardless of the length of sentence he served, be free on "parole"; though his occupations are being checked by"protective consultants" of the youth welfare board.

The Child and Youth Welfare Board can, for its own part, take the following measures:

Warn the child and his parents.

Contact institutions like recreation centers and play schools and ask them to act as complementaries to the childs education.

Change the surrounding of the child by taking him to a foster home for example. The Child and Youth Welfare Committees can also take measures concerning the home of the child, provide for new lodging, help his mother etc.... Such clinics are sections of regular hospitals.

The proceedures of the law courts are strictly formal. The Welfare Board funotions after a less formal pattern and can alter its decisions whenever suitable. One can lodge an appeal against the decision of a law court by reporting the case to two higher authorities namely, the court of the first, and the court of the highest instance. Even the decision taken by the Welfare Board can be appealed against by submitting the case to the county authorities, and if still needed, to the highest administrative court.

Young persons who have reached the age of fifteen are already liable to the penalties of the law. Children who commit criminal actions before the age of fifteen are subjected to the decisions of the Child and Youth Welfare Board only. Both the juridical and social authorities have the right to interfere, though they usually agree beforehand which of the two is to handle the case. The present trend indicates that the number of cases taken of by the Social Welfare Boards are on the increase while those handled by the courts are on the decrease.

The court, if necessary, can take the following measures against the accused:

Fines:

The magnitude of the fine a court exacts from a person found guilty of an offence, depends on the persons daily earnings as well as of the nature of the offence. This, in Swedish law is referred to as "the system of day fines" according to which a person is condemned to pay an amount of money corresponding to his or her income for a certain

number of days.

Probation.

Confinement in prison.

The Child and Youth Welfare Board disposes of several institutions:

Homes for very young children.

Homes for psychopathic and neurotic children.

Establishments for children suffering from mental disability.

Special schools of the Youth- and Child Welfare Board: these schools are psycho-medical centers where young persons who are socially ill-adapted or show criminal tendencies receive educational training treatment. The age limit for these centers is 21.

Exceptionally gifted children have schools of their own as well as those less gifted or psychologically afflicted ones.

All these establishments are administered by the state and controlled by the Social Welfare Boards all over the country. Every young person who leaves any of these schools will, for some time, remain under the care and supervision of the so-called post care welfare workers attached to the schools.

Stockholm, May 1951.

SVENSKA INSTITUTET
FÖR KULTURELLT UTBYTE MED UTLANDET
STOCKHOLM

Die Behandlung jugendlicher Verbrecher.

Neue Methoden der Behandlung von jugendlichen Verbrechern sind gegenwärtig der Gegenstand eingehender psychologischer Forschungen. Die Experimente auf dem weiten Gebiet der menschlichen Seele führen zu erstaunlichen Ergebnissen und werden vom Staate gefördert. Kürzlich besuchte ein Delegat von Unesco einige der Wohlfahrtsanstalten, die diesen Zwecken dienen, und stellte fest dass die Behandlung der jugendlicher Verbrecher in Schweden den Beginn einer neuen Epoche in Bezug auf diese noch ungelösten Probleme darstellt.

Ich erhielt den ersten Einblick in diese für junge Verbrecher neugeschaffene Welt, als ich, in September dieses Jahres, einer der vielen Heime besuchte, das jugendliche Diebe, Einbrecher und Schmuggler beherbergt.

Auf dem Privatwege zur Anstalt, die von Wald und Wiesen umgeben ist, hörte ich das gedämpfte Geräusch von Äxten und Hammern. Je weiter ich ging, desto mehr nahm das Geräusch zu und als ich auf der Lichtung anlangte war es so laut, dass ich verwundert Ausschau hielt, um seinen Ursprung zu entdecken. Der Anblick der sich mir bot, war so merkwürdig, dass ich die Axt- und Hammerschläge vergass: zwanzig Schritte vor mir, auf dem Gras, lag ein grosser, gelber Autobus von der Art, die für Rundturen in der Stadt und für Ausflüge verwendet wird. Der Autobus lag auf der einen Seite und glich der Leiche eines Ermordeten oder einem übel zugerichteten Skelett; die Fenster waren zerschmettert, die Türe herausgerissen und der Führersitz in mehrere Teile zersägt. Und aus dem Inneren des Autobusses kamen die lauten Schläge. Als ich nähertrat, wurde es still. Aus einem Loch, das früher ein Fenster gewesen war, guckte der blonde Kopf eines Knaben heraus und verschwand gleich wieder. Stille.

"Halloh! Können Sie mir sagen, ob das der Weg zum X-Heim ist?"

Der Knabe kroch durch das gähnende Loch das früher die Tür gewesen war, und erwiderte höflich: "Guten Morgen! Dort oben liegt das Haus! "Er war etwa 15 Jahre alt, gut gewachsen, sauber gekleidet und die blauen Augen in dem kindlichen Gesicht sahen mich offen und freundlich an. "Soll ich Sie begleiten?" fragte er. "Ja,

danke - aber Sie sind vielleicht beschäftigt? "Er schüttelte den Kopf. "Ich bin fertig. Zwei Dutzend Axtschläge - und kein einziger Sitz ist übrig. Tüchtig, wie? "Er sprach in sachlichem Ton und lächelte zufrieden.

Ich liess ihn vorangehen. Auf dem schmalen Waldpfad kommen wir an einem Holzhaus vorbei. Zwei Jungen waren gerade dabei Glasscheiben in die Fensterrahmen zu fügen. Sie waren so sehr in die Arbeit vertieft, dass sie uns kaum bemerkten. Mein Beleiter erklärte: "Das ist das Gärtnerhaus. Heute abend kommt er vom Urlaub zurück. Bis dahin muss alles in Ordnung sein, Sie verstehen -?" Er zwinkerte mir verständnisvoll zu und ich zwinkerte verständnisvoll zurück, ohne das mindeste zu begreifen.

Ablenkungsmethoden.

Das zweistöckige Haus stand breit und licht gegen den bunten Hintergrund des herbstlichen Obstgartens. Einige Jungens sammelten die abgefallenen Äpfel im Grase, andere sassen hoch oben in den Bäumen, pflückten die Früchte und assen. Ein hochgewachsener Mann in blauen Overall kam mir entgegen. Er war der Leiter des Wohlfahrtsheimes, ungefähr 35 Jahre alt, mit kraftvollem Antlitz und klugen, humorvollen Augen.

"Schenken Sie den Jungen nicht zu viel Aufmerksamkeit," sagte er. "Sie sollen nicht den Eindruck erhalten, dass sie irgendwie interessant sind!" Er führte mich in eine geräumige, behagliche Halle. "Sie sind anscheinend verwundert", lächelte er. Ich berichtete meine Erlebnisse mit dem Autobus und den geheimnisvollen Fensterscheiben.

"Der Autobus? Das ist ein Ablenkungswerkzeug. Ein alter unnützer Autobus, den wir angefordert haben. Er gehört den Jungens. Sie können daran ihre böse Laune auslassen. Wir haben hartgesottene junge Schützlinge, die nach und nach durch Erfahrung gelernt haben, dass Wutausbrüche gewöhnlich unangenehme Folgen haben - für sie selber und andere. Sie können ihre Zerstörungstriebe loswerden indem sie den alten Autobus zerhacken und zerschlagen. Wenn unbeherrschbare Kräfte, Zorn, Empörung und Wut in ihnen toben, und nach gewaltsamer Auslösung verlangen, dann stürzen sie hinunter zum Autobus und lassen ihren Leidenschaften freien Lauf. Sie ver-

stehen wohl, dass wir hier gute Abnehmer für ausrangierte Verkehrsmittel sind - wir hatten auch alte Strassenwagen hier und vor kurzem eine alte Flugmaschine. Nicht alle Knaben brauchen diese Art der Ablenkung. Meist sind es die neuen Ankömmlinge, die noch nicht genügend gelernt haben sich auf eine fesselnde Beschäftigung zu konzentrieren. Der Junge mit dem Sie sprachen hat höchstens einmal im Monat seinen "Autobus-Anfall" - die Zeitspanne zwischen den Anfällen wird immer länger. Noch vor einem halben Jahr war er von Zerstörungswut besessen. Heute interessiert er sich weit mehr für Mathematik und Holzschnitzerei."

"Aus welcher socialen Umgebung kommt er?"

"Er ist der Sohn einer bürgerlichen Familie. Der Vater verliess seine Frau als der Knabe noch klein war und so wurde das Kind der einzige Gegenstand übergrosser Liebe seitens der Mutter. Es gab auch eine jüngere Schwester, aber der Knabe war der "Mann in der Familie." Die Mutter arbeitete um die Kinder zu versorgen und der Knabe liebte sie über alles. Dann, nach acht Jahren, kehrte der Vater zurück und die Eltern lebten wieder zusammen. Der Junge konnte das nicht ertragen. Für ihn war der Vater ein Fremder, der der Mutter grosses Unrecht zugefügt hatte. Die Empörung des Jungen äusserte sich in Wutausbrüchen, er blieb tagelang fort, er ging nicht zur Schule, er begann zu stehlen, weil er weder Nahrung noch Kleidung dem Manne verdanken wollte, den er nicht als Vater anerkannte. Ein typischer Fall von psychischer Schädigung durch die Umgebung, wie wir es nennen. Jetzt steht es schon besser mit ihm. Seine Einstellung zum Leben ist nicht länger durch Familienprobleme begrenzt. Er stiehlt nicht mehr und sein Hunger nach ausschliesslich auf ihn selbst gerichteter Liebe hat durch die soziale Atmosphäre menschlicher Kameradschaft eine mehr grosszügige Ablenkung gefunden. Immerhin hat er noch Rückfälle....."

<u>Musik als Heilmittel</u>.

"Ich traf zwei Jungens auf dem Wege - 16-17 Jahre alt. Sie machten einen sehr konstruktiven Eindruck. Sie waren eifrig damit beschäftigt Fensterscheiben zu kitten?"

"Oh - das sind die Grammophon-Narren! Sie begingen vor einigen Tagen Einbruch in das Haus des Gärtners, der abwesend war. Zerbrachen die Fensterscheiben, kletterten hinein und feierten die Heldentat mit einer Flasche Branntwein, die sie aus dem Küchenschrank stahlen. Ich erklärte ihnen später, wieviel Geld es uns kosten würde, den Schaden gutzumachen und dass wir daher nicht die

Schallplatten kaufen können, die wir ihnen versprochen hatten. Beide Jungens sind musikalisch begabt und erhalten Musikunterricht. Sie überlegten eine Weile und teilten mir dann mit, dass sie selber den Schaden gutmachen und die Fenster einsetzen würden, bevor der Gärtner zurückkommt. Das Glas kauften sie - gegen ratenweise Abzahlung von ihrem Taschengeld. Selbstverständlich bekommen sie dann die Schallplatten."

"Wie ist ihre soziale Abstammung?"

"Der eine stammt aus einer kinderreichen Familie. Der Vater ist ein unverbesserlicher Trunkenbold. Der andre ist das einzige Kind einer neurotischen Mutter, von der er die asoziale Einstellung hat. Beide Jungens lebten wie Vagabunden, raubten, bettelten und simulierten und amüsierten sich grossartig dabei. Während des ersten Jahres ihres Aufenthaltes in unseren Heim, liefen sie zweimal auf und davon. Aber sie kamen von selber zurück, denn die Leute im ganzen Distrikt hier waren gewarnt und liessen sich nicht zum besten halten. Seit die Jungens Musikunterricht bekommen und Schallplatten zur Belohnung für ihre Fortschritte, wollen sie uns nicht mehr verlassen. Die Liebe zur Musik wird sie heilen."

"Sie strafen niemals?"

"Die grösste Strafe besteht in Isolierung, d.h. dass ein Junge von 15 Jahren 3 Tage allein in seinem Zimmer, oder einem anderen Raum des Hauses bleiben muss. Bei älteren Jungens, kann die Strafe bis zu 6 Tagen ausgedehnt werden. Kinder unter 15 Jahren dürfen keinesfalls isoliert werden. Wir betonen, dass unsere Anstalten keine Gefängnisse sind, sondern offene Schulheime und wir wollen unbedingt, dass die Knaben in ständigem Kontakt mit dem Leben in der Nachbarschaft stehen. Sie müssen auch regelmässig ihre Angehörigen besuchen, falls diese nicht schädlich auf die Entwicklung einwirken können. Wenn die eigenen Angehörigen nicht in Frage kommen, versuchen wir sogenannte Week-end-Familien zu finden. Das sind Familien die unsere Schützlinge für Sonntag und Feiertage, sozusagen adoptieren. Sie werden wie Mitglieder der Familie behandelt."

"Wir selber sind auch eine permanente Week-end-Familie," sagte eine weibliche Stimme aus dem Hintergrund. Es war die junge Frau des Leiters. "Kommen Sie -" Ich folgte ihr zu einer Villa hinter dem Hauptgebäude. Im Wohnzimmer, vor der offenen Feuerstelle, sassen zwei kleine Mädchen und zwei kleine Knaben.

Alle vier waren in ihr Spiel vertieft. Die Knaben - Schützlinge der Anstalt - bauten ein Puppenhaus für die kleinen Töchter des Anstaltsleiters und diskutierten eifrig über die "Architektur".

"Die Jungens sind sehr freundlich zu unseren kleinen Töchtern. Ich nenne sie unsere 'Gouvernanten'," erklärte die junge Frau. "Ich überlasse den Jungen die Verantwortung für das Benehmen der kleinen Mädchen und das macht sie stolz." Sie lächelte über mein Erstaunen. "Ich habe volles Vertrauen," fügte sie hinzu, "je mehr Vertrauen ich ihnen schenke, desto mehr bemühen sie sich es zu verdienen."

Man lernt Vertrauen.

Ich sah Schulzimmer für normalen Schulunterricht (die Anzahl der Schüler im Schulzimmer beträgt 12-15 höchstens), Werkstätten für verschiedene Handwerke, Hobby-Werkstätten; Speisesäle für jüngere und ältere Schüler, die selber die Wände mit Fresken bemalen; helle, kleine Schlafzimmer (mit je 3-4 Betten), eine Halle für Theateraufführungen, Spielplätze; ein See mit Ruder- und Segelboten; Gartenland und Gewächshäuser. Überall traf ich Jugendliche im Alter von 12-20 Jahren in voller Tätigkeit.

"Hier gibt 's überall viel zu tun," sagte der Anstaltsleiter. "Unsere Schule ist für hartgesottenes Volk und wir müssen jeden seiner Individualität entsprechend beschäftigen. Das Hauptproblem besteht darin die Begabungen des einzelnen herauszufinden, die verborgenen Neigungen und Interessen zu entdecken."

"Sind Sie und Ihre Assistenten geschulte Psychologen?"

Er lächelte. "Geschult, ja. Aber wir lernen tatsächlich jeden Tag durch Erfahrung. Wir machen Experimente. Nicht nur unser Personal sondern Kollegen aus allen Teilen des Landes halten häufig gemeinsame Sitzungen ab, um Erfahrungen auszutauschen. Wir streiten und diskutieren heftig und versuchen neue Methoden. Unsere Arbeit ist unsere Leidenschaft - tatsächlich wäre diese Arbeit unerträglich, wenn wir sie nicht liebten."

"Und wenn wir nicht die Jungens liebten," sagte seine Frau. "Sie lernen uns zu vertrauen. Sie müssen sich bei uns sicher und geschützt fühlen. Unsere Aufgabe ist es ja, ihnen das Vertrauen zu sich selber und zu uns wiederzugeben....."

In Übereinstimmung mit den Gesetze der "Kinder- und Jugendfürsorge" müssen die Ämter der Jugendfürsorge die notwendigen Massnahmen treffen bezüglich aller Minderjährigen bis zum Alter von 21 Jahren, die ein "ungeregeltes, faules oder zügelloses Leben

führen, oder andere Laster an den Tag legen." Das Gesetz empfiehlt den Ämtern zuerst vorsichtig vorzugehen, zu warnen, zu überwachen, oder eine Änderung der Umgebung vorzunehmen, zu raten und passende Beschäftigungen zu ordnen." Wenn diese Massnahmen sich als nutzlos erweisen, oder schwere Vergehen begangen werden, müssen die jugendlichen Verbrecher in entsprechende Anstalten gebracht werden, mit besonderer Berücksichtigung der geistigen und psychologischen Umstände. Diese Anstalten können verschiedenartigen Charakter haben - z.B. solche für psychopathische und neurotische Fälle, für geistig Zurückgebliebene, oder strengere Anstalten in denen die älteren Jungens arbeiten müssen. Kinder und Jugendliche, die normal entwickelt sind, aber sich dauernd schlecht aufführen, werden in verschiedene, sorgfältig ausgewählte Anstalten geschickt. Jedoch sind alle Anstalten "offen", in Kontakt mit der Aussenwelt, damit jeder Schüler das Gefühl behält ein Mitglied der Gesellschaft zu sein.

Seit 1937 hat der Staat, in Übereinstimmung mit einem Parlamentsbeschluss, die Unterziehung übernommen, aber die Städte Stockholm und Gothenburg finanzieren einige Anstalten aus eigenen Mitteln.

Die Fälle, die in Anstalten untergebracht werden, sind in verschiedene Kategorien aufgeteilt: Minderjährige, die fremdes Eigentum beschädigen, Minderjährige die gewalttätig sind, sexuelle Missetäter, schwererziehbare "Problemkinder", Minderjährige mit krimineller erblicher Belastung oder aus antisozialen und kriminellen Familien, physisch zurückgebliebene Jugendliche, oder solche, die an nervösen Störungen leiden. Für alle diese Kategorien gibt es verschiedene Anstalten, aber manchmal ist es schwierig zwischen diesen Gruppen eine Grenze zu ziehen. Die staatliche soziale Fürsorge bestimmt, dass in allen Anstalten Kinderpsychologen tätig sein sollen und dass das Personal in Erziehungstherapie ausgebildet ist.

Die Schüler werden im Hinblick auf Geschlecht, Alter, intellektuelle Entwicklung und psychologische Eigenarten in den verschiedenen Anstalten untergebracht. Die Jüngeren werden in Heime, die Älteren in Berufsanstalten und die unverheirateten minderjährigen Mütter, vor oder nach der Geburt des Kindes, in Erziehungsheime geschickt, wo sie in Hausarbeit, Kinderpflege, oder in verschiedenen Berufen ausgebildet werden.

<u>Kein zu langer Aufenthalt</u>.

Es gibt zwei Typen von Fürsorgeanstalten für Knaben - die "Ein-Haus-Schule" für 30 Jungens, und die "Doppel-Haus-Schule" für

60 Jungens. Die erste besteht aus zwei Unterrichtsabteilungen, die eine für normale und die andere für zurückgebliebene Schüler, - mit einer höheren und einer niedrigeren Klasse in jeder Abteilung. Kürzlich wurde ein Plan gutgeheissen, demzufolge die "Ein-Haus" - Type ersetzt werden soll durch Anstalten, die aus 5 kleinen Villen bestehen, von denen jede 7 Knaben beherbergt. Diese Anstalten sind für sehr sensitive Kinder bestimmt, die in kleinen Gruppen behandelt werden sollen. Einige Anstalten für normal begabte Jugendliche haben für ihre Schützlinge den gewöhnlichen Schulbesuch in Distriktschulen eingerichtet.

Der Aufenthalt in den Fürsorgeanstalten oder "Schutzheimen" soll nicht die Dauer von zwei Jahren überschreiten. In den technischen Unterrichtsanstalten beträgt die übliche Aufenthaltsdauer 10 Monate und da die berufliche Ausbildung somit begrenzt ist, hat die Arbeit hauptsächlich einen therapeutischen Wert.

Der Oberinspektör aller Fürsorgeanstalten und Schutzheime in Schweden, Thorsten Eriksson, ist nicht nur ein ausserordentlich kluger Mann, sondern auch vollkommen vorurteilslos. Während vieler erfahrungsreicher Jahre hat er - obwohl er noch recht jung ist - nicht nur mit jungen Mördern zu tun gehabt, ihr Vertrauen gewonnen und sie in normale, nützliche Mitbürger verwandelt, sondern auch erfolgreiche Kämpfe mit der Polizei geführt; die Polizei hat nur das Recht die ernsteren Kriminalfälle zu "untersuchen" darf aber nicht die üblichen Polizeimethoden gegen Jugendliche anwenden. Thorsten Eriksson wacht über seine Schützlinge wie eine Löwin über ihre Jungen.

"Geständnisse?" sagte er. "Warum soll man zu Geständnissen zwingen? Wenn sie gestehen wollen, weil es eine Erleichterung für sie ist, dann mögen sie es tun, aber in vielen Fällen hat es eine schädliche Wirkung. Das hängt von den individuellen Umständen ab. Wir wissen auch ohne Geständnis, ob sie das Verbrechen begangen haben, oder nicht. Um Verzeihung bitten? Nein - es demütigt nur und beweist nichts. Eines Tages werden sie verstehen, dass sie durch Taten beweisen können wie sie sich geändert haben.....
Vor einiger Zeit hatte ich viel mit einem jungen Mörder zu tun, der aus Raserei und Angst getötet hatte. Ich sprach während einiger Wochen täglich mit ihm und jedesmal etwa eine Stunde lang. Niemals erwähnte ich das Verbrechen. Er erzählte mir alles aus seinem Leben aber über die Tat wurde nie gesprochen. Eine so tiefe, furchtbare Wunde darf nicht berührt werden, wenn sie heilen soll.

Er hatte Vertrauen zu mir. Es war ein schweigendes Einverständnis und er folgte meinen Ratschlägen. Ich bin sicher, dass er ein wertvoller Mensch werden wird."

"Wird er vergessen können? Werden Sie ihm helfen, zu vergessen?"

"Nichts kann vergessen werden. Das Problem ist: wie wird er sich selbst und anderen beweisen können, dass er das Recht hat ein Mitglied der Gemeinschaft zu sein? Wenn er aus gutem Stoff ist, wird er ausserordentliche Anstrengungen machen. Wenn er von mittelmässiger Qualität ist, wird er versuchen sich anzupassen. Wenn er wirklich verdorben ist, wird er ein Verbrecher werden. Wir werden jahrelang seine Entwicklung im Auge behalten - lange nachdem er die Schule verlassen hat. Wir haben ein sogenanntes Kettensystem - das bedeutet aber nicht, dass wir unsere Delinquenten in Ketten legen! Wir lassen sie für eine Zeitspanne in die Welt hinaus, nehmen sie wieder zurück, schicken sie fort, u.s.w. - fünfmal zuweilen und öfters. Wir stellen Fortschritte und Rückfälle fest. Das Resultat unserer Experimente ist bisher: 80% Erfolge, 10% Teilerfolge, 10% Misserfolge".

Er zeigte mir 4 Bilder an der Wand. Das erste stellte eine wilde Landschaft dar, in brutalen Farben. "Das wurde von einem Achtzehnjährigen gemalt, zu Beginn seines Aufenthaltes in einer unserer Anstalten."

"Das Genie einer kranken Seele," sagte ich.

"Sehen Sie das nächste Bild-" Eine sonnige Landschaft in übertrieben heissen Farben.

"Etwas mehr Gleichgewicht - das war 6 Monate später."

Das dritte Bild zeigte ein grauenhaftes, seltsames Dschungel, schlangenartige Zweige und Augen, die aus dem Dunkel des Laubes starrten. "Ein Rückfall," sagte Thorsten Eriksson.

Das vierte Bild wies ein Idyll: Haus und Garten und einen milden blauen See. "Normal!"

"Aber kein Genie mehr!" sagte ich.

"Wir wollen lieber normale, sozialgesinnte Menschen haben als neurotische Talente. Dieser Junge hatte die Leidenschaft eines Genies, ohne genial zu sein. Ein wirkliches Genie wird nicht durch eine soziale Einstellung zum Leben vernichtet-".

"Sie Kämpfen wie die Kirche um jede Seele kämpft. Ihr Glaube ist wie eine Religion. Wie verhalten sich die Methoden in Ihren Anstalten zur Religion im allgemeinen?"

"Keinerlei Zwang. Gottesdienst für die Gläubigen - die Ungläubigen müssen nicht teilnehmen. Das gleiche gilt für unser Personal. Wir sind alle eine einzige, grosse Familie - Ärzte, Lehrer, Assistenten, Stenotypisten sind mit Herz und Seele dabei. Unsere Ärzte und Lehrer verbringen oft schlaflose Nächte und viele Tage der Verzweiflung, oder Angst, wenn es neue Versuche gilt. Wir leben oft in atemloser Spannung, wie Forscher, die neue und gefährliche Gebiete bereisen. Viele frühere Schützlinge sind Lehrer geworden und gehören zu unseren besten."

April, 1951.

THE SWEDISH INSTITUTE
Stockholm 3

Information Service

Legislation Concerning Young Delinquents in Sweden.

Young persons who commit criminal actions can be subjected to either juridical measures,(law court)or to measures taken by the Social Welfare institutions (Child and Youth Welfare). There are no special law courts for young criminals. When dealing with cases concerning young persons, the regular court consists of an experienced jurist appointed by the government, and of some lay judges elected by the municipal councils. Every community has its own Youth and Child Welfare committee. The board of such a committee is composed of at least five persons including a physician, a priest, and a teacher. Both sexes must be represented in the committee.

The investigations concerning a case are handled by the police. No case can be dealt with by the law court without the decision of a prosecutor appointed by the government. The prosecutor may grant a remission of the trial if the Child and Youth Welfare board can take satisfactory measures on behalf of the young delinquent. If a case has been reported for trial, the judge may demand a special preliminary investigation concerning the conduct, and personal conditions of the accused, as well as a preliminary medical examination. Later on during the trial, the court can also ordain a thorough medical examination of the accused by a psychiatrist, if necessary.

The police investigates eventually also cases which are taken up by the Child and Youth Welfare committees, but generally most of the facts are collected by the latter's own social welfare workers, psychiatrists and physicians. The Child and Youth Welfare board has a steadily growing number of clinics, for psychiatric examination and advisory treatment at its disposal, for the purpose.

Simple imprisonment or imprisonment at labour:

The first alternative is milder and means that the entire period of confinement will be spend in an "open" institution. The second alternative on the other hand implies a regular prison to start with, but the young criminals are later on removed to "open" institutions where they remain till the end of the penal period.

Imprisonment in a youth prison:

For young persons between the ages of 18 and 21, there are special institutions called youth prisons. The length of the period of confinement in such an institution is not definite but has its maximum and minimum limits. It is the task of these institutions to provide professional training for the young criminals as well as accustom them to regular work.

Suspension of sentence and probation:

The conditional sentence can be connected with prescriptions concerning the occupation of the delinquent, his lodgings, relations and the way he spends his income. The court can also demand that the de-

linquent be put under supervision or that a youth welfare committee should take care of him.

All penal establishments are managed by the state, and are under the control of the administration of the prison board, which also decides to what establishment the delinquent in question is going to be sent to. Every inmate who leaves prison after a punishment of more than six months and every young delinquent will for a certain time, regardless of the length of sentence he served, be free on "parole"; though his occupations are being checked by"protective consultants" of the youth welfare board.

The Child and Youth Welfare Board can, for its own part, take the following measures:

Warn the child and his parents.

Contact institutions like recreation centers and play schools and ask them to act as complementaries to the childs education.

Change the surrounding of the child by taking him to a foster home for example. The Child and Youth Welfare Committees can also take measures concerning the home of the child, provide for new lodging, help his mother etc.... Such clinics are sections of regular hospitals.

The proceedures of the law courts are strictly formal. The Welfare Board functions after a less formal pattern and can alter its decisions whenever suitable. One can lodge an appeal against the decision of a law court by reporting the case to two higher authorities namely, the court of the first, and the court of the highest instance. Even the decision taken by the Welfare Board can be appealed against by submitting the case to the county authorities, and if still needed, to the highest administrative court.

Young persons who have reached the age of fifteen are already liable to the penalties of the law: Children who commit criminal actions before the age of fifteen are subjected to the decisions of the Child and Youth Welfare Board only. Both the juridical and social authorities have the right to interfere, though they usually agree beforehand which of the two is to handle the case. The present trend indicates that the number of cases taken of by the Social Welfare Boards are on the increase while those handled by the courts are on the decrease.

The court, if necessary, can take the following measures against the accused:

Fines:

The magnitude of the fine a court exacts from a person found guilty of an offence, depends on the persons daily earnings as well as of the nature of the offence. This, in Swedish law is referred to as "the system of day fines" according to which a person is condemned to pay an amount of money corresponding to his or her income for a certain

number of days.

Probation.

Confinement in prison.

The Child and Youth Welfare Board disposes of several institutions:

Homes for very young children.

Homes for psychopathic and neurotic children.

Establishments for children suffering from mental disability.

Special schools of the Youth- and Child Welfare Board: these schools are psycho-medical centers where young persons who are socially ill-adapted or show criminal tendencies receive educational training treatment. The age limit for these centers is 21.

Exceptionally gifted children have schools of their own as well as those less gifted or psychologically afflicted ones.

All these establishments are administered by the state and controlled by the Social Welfare Boards all over the country. Every young person who leaves any of these schools will, for some time, remain under the care and supervision of the so-called post care welfare workers attached to the schools.

Stockholm, May 1951.

Our Special Schools for Handicapped Children.

Lecture delivered in the Norwegian Association for Social Work on October 4. 1950 by the Director for the Special Schools, Miss Marie Pedersen.

1. Who is handicapped ?

Before passing on to the task of the special schools, we must look a little deeper into the types og children for whom these schools are meant. The pupils of the special schools are the handicapped children.

Who is handicapped ? We want to give the answer in the words of the special pedagogue professor H. Hanselmann at the University of Zürich. He gives the following definition:

Handicapped is the child who, when trying to utilise the impressions from outside comes short of its object because the organ to be used is defective.

Any higher development has to go through three main stages: When the impressions from outside have been received, they are being worked on, and then follows as the third stage the reaction on the impressions.

The impressions from outside are received through the senses. Then the brain and the organs controlled by the brain work on the impressions received. Lastly we get the results of the process in the reaction given through the motor-mechanism as a whole.

A child has its entire power of development when senses, brain with the organs it controls and the motor mechanism are in order and can function without any hinderance. But if there is any defect in construction or mode of function, the consequence must be an impediment in the development.

The first group of handicapped children accordingly comprises those whose senses are not at all normally developed, that is to say the deaf children and those hard of hearing, the totally blind children and those with partial sight, and the deaf-blind. These cathegories have difficulties in the very first process, that of receiving the impressions from outside.

The special schools are trying to help these children for instance through apparatus and other facilities strengthening existing

remnants of the defective sense, and through systems and methods replacing what is missing.

In the next group we have children with normal senses, who can see as well as hear, but who cannot work the received impressions in a satisfactory manner because the brain and its organs are incapable of functioning satisfactorily. These are the backward and the subnormal children of all grades, from the lowgraded subnormal cared for in hospitals to the backward children belonging in the special classes of the elementary school.

One method used to help all these children is to reduce the claims in conformity with their yielding power. Special methods of instruction making it easier for them to understand what is being taught and acquire the knowledge we want to give them are also being applied.

Some children with different other brain defects, in the first line aphasias in the wider sense of the word, can also be classed with this second group. Here we have for instance the hearing mutes, the psychic deaf and others. We also include the word-blind, that is children with reading difficulties. It is possible to give help also to such children, but very little is being done for them so far.

The third group comprises the children who receive the impressions from outside through normal senses and are sufficiently intelligent and capable of working the impressions in a satisfactory manner, but who nevertheless are unable to realise satisfactory results. Their (response) to the impressions is unnormal, in spite of their sound senses and good brains. They react in a wrong manner.

Here we find neurotics and children tending to become psychopates, the various types of difficult children who have some character defect, perhaps especially in the field of emotional nature. In this group belong the epileptics and children unable to react in the right way through motor disturbances.

No hard-and-fast lines can be drawn between the different groups and grades, they overlap. And we also find children who belong in two or even three of these groups, being for instance partially blind as well as of dull intellect, or perhaps blind, hard-of-hearing and at the same time of difficult disposition.

Professor Hanselmann also includes a fourth group of problem children, those badly influenced by their environment. These are often being wrongly classed as children difficult because of constitutional

defects of character, but do not belong in the same group. The children badly influenced by their environment are often the victims of a disturbance of development rather than of a repression in development. Their organs have from the beginning been quite normal, but their development has been led in a wrong course, owing to unfortunate environment. Thus difficulties have been created for them. These children may have gone astray because of their parents or those replacing the parents or others partly responsible for their character training not having been up to the mark as educators, and having influenced them in a unfortunate manner.

Pure types of the three first groups are, as already mentioned, rarely found, and especially may bad influence from environment, as mentioned under group 4., complicate the case.

2. The Establishment of Special Schools.

The first special school for handicapped children in Norway was established in the year 1825, Trondheim public school for the deaf. The next Norwegian special school was also founded for the deaf, F.G. Balchen's school in Oslo, started in 1848 and taken over by the State in 1891. Then we had the first special school for the blind in 1861, also in Oslo, taken over by the State in 1896. And lastly in 1878 the first special school for children of dull intellect, Torshov school for subnormal children in Oslo, founded by the teachers for deaf, J.A. Lippestad and H. Hansen, and taken over by the State in 1892. In 1882 Jacob Sæthre founded Eikelund School near Bergen, taken over by the State in 1901. During the next few years several schools were started for the deaf, blind and subnormal, and in 1919 we got the first special school treating speech difficulties - Granhaug public school for children and youth with speech defects.

It is noticeable that in Norway as well special schools for other groups of handicapped children have been founded by deaf-teachers. Torshov school for subnormal children was as mentioned started by two deaf-teachers, H. Hansen and J.A. Lippestad, and Granhaug public school for speech defective was founded and during many years led by the deaf-teacher Hans Eng.

The various branches of the special instruction have many common tasks, as seen clearly in other countries too. Europe's first professor in special pedagogics, H. Hanselmann at the University of Zürich, also began as a deaf-teacher. Later he founded the well known reform school

for difficult boys, Albisbrunn near Zürich, and since the year 1924 he has been the leader of the training of special teachers for the deaf as well as the blind, subnormal, speech defective and character defective children at the Seminar for Special Pedagogics in Zürich.

In this connection we should also mention that the man who in Germany bears the honourable name "Der Vater der Hilfsschulen" (viz. "Father of the Special Schools"), Heinrich Stötzner, also started as a deaf-teacher before in 1864 he founded the first special class for backward children at the elementary school in Leipzig.

3. The development of the Special Schools in Norway.

As early as in 1881 an act on compulsory education for the deaf, blind and backward children was passed in Parliament, thus making Norway for some time one of the leading countries in this field. This act was used to make the State little by little take over those special schools already working which the private owners were unable to keep going any longer.

In 1897 a director for "the schools for the abnormals", as they were then called, was appointed, in conformity with the law mentioned. This director was an official in the Ministry of Church and Education.

The law of 1881 was in 1915 revised and given an appendix § 8 about institutions for lowgraded subnormal children.

This law of 4. June 1915 is still applicable to the deaf, blind and subnormal children fit for education in the special schools. But § 8 about lowgraded subnormal children has been suppressed after the Parliament on July 28. 1949 passing a temporary law on homes for mentally deficient. According to this law the State will carry all expenses in connection with the care of patients in all recognized homes for subnormal. This gives us far wider possibilities of helping the unhappy subnormals needing permanent care, and their families and homes are saved from a heavy burden. Backed up by this law a wide activity has set in to get more hospitals and homes of various kinds established for the subnormals.

Through a Royal Approval of December 9th 1949 the Directorate of "the abnormal schools", as they were called after 1897, was given the name the Directorate of the Special Schools. For a long period it had then been called the Directorate of the schools for the deaf, blind and subnormal.

At several elementary schools so-called "help classes" have been established in compliance with the law concerning the elementary schools, viz. § 7 in the law for the rural schools and § 6 in the law for the town schools. Some of our bigger towns have had such classes since the eighteeneighties. They were earlier called "special classes" and are meant for children with an I.Q. generally speaking between 70 and 85-90. These are children who because of backwardness are not able to follow the instruction of the ordinary classes in the elementary school, but who are not of such dull intellect that they need the help of the special schools for the subnormal. In the latter schools the I.Q. will range from about 50 to 70 - 75.

All our special schools for children who owing to handicap in development cannot follow the teaching of the elementary school or its special classes, must be regarded as the outpost of the elementary school. These social-pedagogic schools are meant to give the children another chance to be educated and trained as independant members of society, before they, everything failing, are transferred to constant care under the "Public Care of Feebleminded Persons" in the Ministry of Social Affairs.

I have told already that more special schools were founded little by little, once the first schools of that kind had been started. I shall mention in short how many of them we have now.

For the deaf we have in all 8 special schools, all of them being residential schools: There are 3 children's schools with an eight years' course (Skådalen public school for the deaf, Holmestrand public school for the deaf and Trondheim public school for the deaf). One continuation school with a one year's course, (Alm private school, supported by the State), 2 professional schools with a two years' course, (Bergen public school for the deaf and Stavanger school for the deaf, the former for boys, the latter for girls). Lastly we have one small home for deaf children of dull intellect, where the pupils try to go in for manual work, (Home for the deaf in Andebu, private enterprise with State support).

All in all we have accomodation for 330 deaf pupils, 80 of these in the schools for youth. Up to a few years ago this met the needs, but now many names must be put down on the expectation list. The reason for this may partly be the increase in births, but parents and school boards are also more careful to report in time on deaf children. Besides, information is now given on more of the pupils who are very hard of hearing,

and need the help given by the deaf-schools. We are therefore looking for a house for still another public school for deaf children, and we have just now a one year's course going for special training of more deaf-teachers, this course being the ninth of this kind. The participants of this course are usual teachers with a teachers' certificate in beforehand.

For the blind the State is at present running 3 schools, one children's school, (Dalen public school for the blind near Trondheim), and 2 professional schools, (Huseby public school for the blind, and Oslo public school for the blind, the former for men, the latter for women). The childrens school has a seven years' course and has up to now been able to accomodate all applying blind children fit for education. Before the war there were nearly 80 pupils, but in later years the number has decreased a little, probably owing to the medical measures against blindness in children.

At the professional schools for the blind there are on the contrary a long list of expectation. Beside pupils coming from the children's school for the blind also adults are admitted who have had their eyesight damaged through accidents etc. The professional schools are being built out further and are calculated to meet the needs when the new buildings at Huseby have been finished. According to the plan the professional school for blind men as well as one for blind women will be located there. And also a new one year's course for blind youth.

Both professional schools for the blind have a four years' course, and together these two schools can take 70 pupils. And we can as mentioned already accommodate 80 pupils in the children's school.

Special Schools for subnormal.

At present we have 6 children's schools and 3 professional schools, all of them being residential schools. Besides we have one external school. The children's schools are the following: Torshov public school, Eikelund public school, Röstad public school, Hunn public school, Solheim public school, Lunde public school, all with a boarding house. The externate school is Kalmargaten school in Bergen, a municipal school with State support. The professional schools are: Kjelle public school, Austjord public school and Ekne public school, all of them being residential schools.

At Ekne school we count on having another 80 children when the new building for the children's department is finished, after New Year 1951. In all we should then be able to accommodate 820 pupils.

Two of these schools have been founded by the State after the liberation, and three older private schools not able to carry on have been taken over by the State. The expectation lists are still very long, and parents as well as school boards are asking for more pupils to be accepted, and we therefore hope for continued extension.

For people with speech difficulties Granhaug public school can only accommodate 25 pupils. In order to help some more people on the long list courses for stammerers are since last year being held at Fossheim in Valdres for 30 pupils, as a temporary arrangement. Many of the pupils at Granhaug go through a rather short course, so that new pupils can be admitted very often. But the need is great, and it is hoped that the new Granhaug can soon be built at the property bought last year by the State for this purpose near Oslo. In the course of the last 3 years Granhaug has trained speech teachers, who are meant to help children with speech difficulties in their own elementary schools. The fourth one year's course of this kind is just now being held at Granhaug.

This is the present condition of affairs in the four kinds of schools administered by the Directorate of the Special Schools. Everywhere there are very long expectation lists in spite of not less than 8 new special schools having been founded for the deaf, the subnormal and the speech defective during the last years, accommodating 340 pupils in all. These are the three new schools: The public schools for subnormal Solheim, Kjelle and Ekne, the public schools for the deaf in Bergen and Stavanger, Alm private school for deaf and children hard-of-hearing, Andebu private school for deaf and subnormal, and lastly the Fosshcim course for stammerers (public course).

Besides there are three older private schools taken over by the State after the liberation, which would otherwise have had to close down (Hunn, Austjord and Lunde, all for the subnormal).

4. The future plans for the whole country.

Soon after the liberation in 1945 the Directorate started to make plans for the different kinds of the special schools. First of all we wanted to get a clear view of the situation, so as to know where exactly the activity ought to be set in immediately to develop the schools

further. These plans have been made in cooperation with specialists from each of the different groups of schools, and a short survey is submitted to Parliament in the yearly budget proposition from the Ministry of Church and Education.

This work had been prepared during the five years of war, when it had been impossible to do much more for the special schools than keeping the instruction going somehow or other, at the same time trying to encourage the staff working at the schools under so hard conditions. The planning for the future was for all of us a good stimulus to pull through, hoping for better times to come.

Norwegian experience was the foundation of these new plans. New Norwegian researches on the schools for subnormal were in hand, statistics concerning the results of the school attendance of the pupils who had finished school in the years 1920 - 1940. These statistics are to be found in the book "The Subnormal in School and Society", issued 1946. Norwegian experts have also carried on extensive studies and observations of similar institutions in other countries.

All these plans for the whole country have been built on the claims of an adequate differentiation, in order that each group of children can get the help most suitable for their cathegory.

The first great differentiation was the transferring to the Ministry of Social Affairs and to social-medical administration of the care for all children so strongly handicapped in natural talents or in development of character as to be unfit for special schools, and likely to need permanent care. This dividing up was effected in 1945. Thereby the various kinds of homes for mentally deficient were taken over by the Ministry of Social Affairs through "The Public Care for the Feebleminded Persons" in the Directorate of Health. All the schools, however, still belong in the Ministry of Church and Education and are led by the Director of the Special Schools. The assumption is that each child if possible should be tested in a special school before being transferred to the care of the feebleminded. There must be close cooperation between the special schools and "The Care of the Feebleminded Persons", admitting transfer from one side to the other in a flexible way.

The fact that children needing permanent care have been transferred to medical-psychiatric superintendance, does not mean that the special schools think themselves able to exist without assistance of medical-psychiatric kind. This kind of help within the special schools

must on the contrary be largely increased, and I am going to say a little more on this problem when speaking on the testing of our new pupils.

It has been very interesting to see how new ideas can often be developed in many places at the same time, seemingly quite independently of each other. When we for instance look at the new system adopted in this country with a dividing in two of the field of help to backward persons, we find that Sweden had at the same time reached a similar arrangement in their schools for the feebleminded. The Swedish law for the subnormal of June 30. 1944, in effect from January 1st 1945, established a division in two in this work. Sweden had had no earlier law on the education of mentally deficient persons, and the different kinds of homes as well as schools for these persons had been administered by the Medical Board. The law of 1944 transferred to the Schools Board all schools, while the homes for the lowgraded subnormals remained under the Medical Board.

Our special schools want to help the handicapped children to become independant members of society as far as possible socially as well as economically. To gain this end the differentiation has been carried further in our plans for the whole country for each kind of school.

Before the second Great War we had only children's schools for the deaf and the subnormal. Only the schools for the blind had professional schools of their own following elementary school. But in the course of the last years the State has established professional schools for deaf and subnormal as well.

For all kinds of special schools the plan for the whole country comprises

preparatory schools
children's schools
continuation schools
professional schools.

Beside the preparatory schools for children below school age observation clinics are foreseen for examination and observation. Here the permanent help of psychiatrist, psychologist and social worker will be needed. We must, as mentioned already, get these specialists into the special schools as a part of the school staff. The classification of the children is indeed not everything. In cooperation with the teachers the specialists are to plan and build out a special pedagogic environment with possibilities of growth for the handicapped children.

Below the children's schools we shall also want departments for special cases. We have already a small boarding school for feebleminded children badly influenced by their environment, and also a department for subnormal deaf children.

The continuation school with a one year's course is meant to be a year of ripening for the young, before they pass on to real professional training. The deaf have already got their professional school at Alm, and one for the blind is planned in connection with the new buildings at Huseby.

Lastly there are the professional schools, with a 4 years' course for blind, a 2 hears' course for deaf and a 2 years' course for subnormal boys. For the subnormal girls a 3 years' course is foreseen in the plans, but a school of the latter type remains to be founded.

5. The tasks of the Special Schools.

We have now outlined the frame of the special schools for the different groups of handicapped children. We have also given a short survey of the development of the work in its progression in this country.

We have tried to achieve an outward form which will make it possible for our schools to fill their special task in the very best way.

The real task of the special schools, however, lies in the inner work, in what the teachers and the rest of the staff in the schools can do for each single child, handicapped in the way already described.

We also mentioned at the beginning that our pupils must get the opportunity to learn all they need as far as ordinary school knowledge is concerned, and that we try to gain this end through special teaching aids and adapted methods, replacing defect senses or paying regard to the handicap of the child, be this blindness, deafness or mental deficiency.

Further we want through our special schools for youth to try to make the pupils capable of earning their own living as far as possible, training them in a suitable profession.

All this is necessary but not enough. Beside an appropriate teaching and training to develop gifts and power, the task also comprises a character training of the pupils. These are the mental hygienic claims, to such a huge degree common for all our schools for handicapped children.

In later years the special pedagogues have more and more come to realise to what high degree such a handicap, be it blindness, deafness or backwardness, may stamp the whole personality of the child and damage the personality if the child is not given help in time.

This is easily understood. The handicap makes it difficult for the child, as we well know, to acquire knowledge. This tends to create suspicion and other unfortunate qualities and develop in the child a feeling of inferiority and insufficiency which may assume many different forms, and prevent a harmonious development of the emotional nature and life of will of the child.

Our first and greatest task is therefore to help each single handicapped child to build up its personality through furthering its mental development and the formation of character.

This work ought to be started as early as possible. Therfore we have in the new main plans for the special schools included preparatory schools for the blind, the deaf, the feebleminded and the speech defective infants. Here special teachers with special training from Kindergarten should take charge of the character training of the children and their adaption to prevent them from getting badly influenced by their environment in addition to their original handicap. It is not easy to treat a small deaf or blind child in the right way, - a fact which every mother and father with such experience can certify. Unfortunately our State schools for handicapped children have not yet got any of the preparatory special schools hoped for.

In the schools we try to take charge of the training of character, and teachers and other staff work together.

In the class room the child with a handicap of senses or abilities learn to get into contact with other people and with the environment through special ways of instruction. They acquire knowledge and skill, and discover more and more of the world into which they have been born, and where they owing to their defects do not feel at home. They learn to read and to write and so on, and win victories where they used to have defeats. This is a good cure egainst the feeling of inferiority.

They have to fight against difficulties, but owing to good help, guidance and encouragement there is progress, certainly very slow, but still progress. The progress gives joy and encouragement to new exertions. Through this process the will of the child is strengthened.

Just those children who have to fight a handicap and accept its existance, can thereby reach a strong and fine development of personality. But then they must learn to fight with an "in spite of all" attitude, an expression used very much in Switzerland. The idea of the Swiss pedagogues was that the pupil should have fully to accept his weakness and not give

in because of his handicap. He should have to find the possibilities at his disposal. And again and again fresh courage and tough persistency can burst bounds seemingly existing, so that much more is achieved than was expected.

The forming of the character of our pupils takes place in the class room simultaneous with the teaching, through the teaching and by the teaching. But the training of character of the pupils is just as much a task for the rest of the staff in the boarding school. They look after food, clothes, cleanliness, bedrooms and living rooms. But this staff mean much more to the children. At the same time they must personally take charge of every single child in the group entrusted to them. At various parts of the day there is a possibility of contact. - when the children are in bed at night, when they dress in the morning, when they come together for the meals, when they come in to change wet shoes, or when they want help for some reason or other. And the possibility is there above all when the child, overwhelmed by its small sorrows, - often big enough for the child, - needs comfort and encouragement. Then it is important to have enough time and understanding. In such moments the relationship of trust is being built between the child and the grown-up person, in such moments the handicapped child can get that feeling of security which can strengthen it for the struggle of life.

Education is a mutual relationship, says prof. Hanselmann, it always concerns two persons, the child and the educator. They stand in a relationship of reciprocal action to each other. Therefore the spirit and atmosphere of the school must be such as to create trust between the children and the adults.

For this reason high demands are made on our staff of the boarding schools. They must be capable in their work, as cooking, looking after clothes and cleanliness. Besides they must also emotionally mean something to the children, they must make them feel at home, speak with them and give the whole group a good time together.

The conditions must be arranged so as to make it possible for the staff to fulfill their tasks. Their salaries must also be high enough to make the jobs sufficiently attractive to be applied for by people with the right qualities and with satisfactory qualifications. The amount of work should not be so great for the staff that lack of time keeps them from taking charge of the children in a satisfactory manner. And the housing conditions in the boarding schools must also be adapted to the claims of education.

We are aware of all this, and try little by little to improve conditions. By newbuilding and new fitting up we try to get ut to date arrangements. The bedrooms for instance are being devided up so that there are not any longer so many children in each room. Especially when the children reach the age of puberty they may have a strong craving now and then to be alone.

The Swiss experts were also to a high degree aware of these facts. And they showed great ingenuity to meet the demands of the child. The new boarding schools had bedrooms for three pupils. In some older institutions where this could not be arranged, the rooms were divided into cubicles for four pupils, giving each bed a corner to stand in. The feeling of sleeping in a dormitory was in this way partly eliminated. In other places the children were given the possibility to find an undisturbed corner during the day through a series smaller living rooms where the children were allowed to sit with their things in peace.

In Switzerland like here with us the special pedagogues were mostly interested in getting boarding schools arranged after the family system. Each group of children, - from 7 to 18 in number, then had a section of their own with a series of smaller bedrooms, a sitting-room of their own, a wardrobe and a washroom. These groups had all a foster-mother of their own who had her living-room in that section. The family system has nearly become a slogan in Switzerland after being proposed by professor Hanselmann many years ago, in 1924. But it is in spite of all only an outward remedy which means little if the family spirit is lacking. And this spirit depends on the staff.

The training of the staff for our special schools, be it teachers or other people needed in the boarding house of the school, is of the very greatest importance if good help is to be given to our handicapped children. We need the training courses of longer duration, preparing the staff for the work itself, as well as the shorter and repeated courses giving deeper insight into the work and new stimulus.

Educating the child does like the teaching and training of character aim at its future. The child is expected to be made able to earn its own living, and made capable of living in a community.

The special schools are meant to form an environment where the handicapped children in an appropriate way will try to develop the feeble forces.

But we do not only think of the future. In the special schools as well we also think of now and here. Childhood is also a part of life, where every day has a value of its own, seen apart from every consideration to utility. We therefore want the time spent by our pupils in our schools to be a time for them to look back upon with a happy beart.

I began this lecture with some words by a Swiss expert. I want to conclude quoting another pedagogue from the same country, the director of the Seminar for Special Pedagogic in Zürich, dr. P. Moor. He says,

"Each human being has for its life a determination of its own and an eternal aim. Our pupils should not only be made capable of working, they have also a right to get something out of their life."

And I want to add: They have a right to get something out of their childhood.

Schulunterricht und Berufsausbildung für verkrüppelte Kinder und Jugendliche in Schweden

In dem folgenden Bericht werden die schwedischen Massnahmen für verkrüppelte Kinder und Jugendliche behandelt.

Kinder, die von beispielsweise Lähmungen (spastische Lähmung, Kinderlähmung) Gelenkskrankheiten, angeborenen Missbildungen betroffen sind, erhalten ihre medizinische Pflege teils in chirurgischen oder medizinischen Kliniken, teils in orthopädischen Spezialkliniken. Die orthopädischen Kliniken befinden sich im Eugeniaheim, in den Krüppelanstalten, in den Küstensanatorien sowie in einigen Krankenhäusern.

Tabelle über verfügbare Plätze für Patienten:

	regelmässige	provisorische
Die Krüppelanstalt in Stockholm	171	50
" " " Gothenburg	97	-
" " " Hälsingborg	80	-
" " " Härnösand	103	10
Das Eugeniaheim, Stockholm	35	-
" Krankenhaus in Lund	156	-
" " " Malmö	104	25
S:t Görans Krankenhaus in Stockholm	138	-
Das Söder Krankenhaus, Stockholm	32	-
Das Krankenhaus in Örebro	26	-
Das Krankenhaus in Linköping	50	-

	regelmässige	provisorische
Styrsö Küstensanatorium	100	-
Vejbystrands Küstensanatorium	259	-
Das Küstensanatorium Apelviken	371	-
Solhems Krankenhaus, Borås	90	10
Nynäshamns Küstensanatorium	23	-
Zusammen	1.835	95

Von diesen Kliniken ist das Eugeniaheim nur für Kinder und Jugendliche bestimmt. Nynäshamns Küstensanatorium ist ebenso wie die übrigen Küstensanatorien für eine Klientel mit Knochen- und Gelenkstuberkulose bestimmt, aber zum Unterschied von diesen nur für Kinder. Bei den anderen orthopädischen Institutionen gibt es innerhalb der Kliniken eigene Kinderabteilungen. Für den Schulunterricht der Kinder ist an den entsprechenden Orten durch haupt- oder nebenberuflich angestellte Lehrer gesorgt.

Ein vom Sozialminister eingesetztes Komitee, Sachverständigenkomitee für Orthopädie und Krüppelpflege, dessen Aufgabe es war, die Organisation und den Umfang der ganzen Orthopädie und Krüppelpflege zu ermitteln, hat im Laufe des Jahres 1948 unter anderem Vorschläge über die orthopädische Pflege unterbreitet. Diese Vorschläge zielen auf eine wesentliche Vermehrung der zugänglichen Pflegeplätze und umfasst nicht nur Plätze für Kinder und Jugendliche. Sollten diese Vorschläge verwirklicht werden, so würde jeder Regierungsbezirk (zusammen 24) mit Ausnahme von Gotland innerhalb seines eigenen

Gebietes eine orthopädische Klinik besitzen. Man ist dabei von der Annahme ausgegangen, dass eine orthopädische Klinik mindestens 50 Pflegeplätze haben soll. Dieser Vorschlag des Komitees hätte zur Folge, dass die Klientel der Küstensanatorien nach und nach in die dezentralisierten orthopädischen Krankenhauskliniken sowie in die Kliniken der Krüppelanstalten überführt würde. In gewissem Ausmasse könnten auch die Küstensanatorien für allgemeine orthopädische Fälle in Anspruch genommen werden. Man rechnet jedoch damit, dass diese Vorschläge erst in einem oder einigen Jahrzehnten durchgeführt werden können. Die Gesamtanzahl der verfügbaren Pflegeplätze würde sich dann auf ungefähr 2500 gegenüber der gegenwärtigen Anzahl von ca 1800 belaufen.

Für verkrüppelte Kinder, die wegen ihrer Invalidität grosse Schwierigkeiten haben eine allgemeine Volksschule zu besuchen, gibt es besondere Schulheime. Das Eugeniaheim besitzt das grösste und älteste von diesen. Daselbst befindet sich eine vollständige Kleinkinder- und Volksschule mit an die 100 Schülern, die auf 5 Lehrerabteilungen verteilt sind. Das Eugeniaheim besitzt ebenfalls den einzigen Kindergarten für verkrüppelte Kinder in Schweden. Ausserdem gibt es Schulheime bei den Krüppelanstalten in Stockholm, Hälsingborg und Härnösand.

Bei den Krüppelanstalten in Stockholm und Hälsingborg liegen die Schulheime weit von der Hauptanstalt entfernt. An der Krüppelanstalt in Stockholm ist die 7. Klasse sowie die höhere Abteilung der Volksschule (8. - 10. Klasse) in der

Hauptanstalt selbst untergebracht. In der höheren Abteilung der Volksschule wird Korrespondenzunterricht in Verbindung mit mündlichem Unterricht unter der Leitung eines von der Krüppelanstalt angestellten Lehrers erteilt. Diese Abteilung ist erst im Schuljahre 1948/49 mit 3 Klassen vollständig ausgebaut und führt zum Realexamen.

Die Anzahl der in diesen Schulheimen verfügbaren Plätze beträgt:

im Eugeniaheim	90
in den Schulheimen bei der Krüppelanstalt in Stockholm:	
Klassen 1 - 6	45
Klasse 7 und die höhere Abteilung der Volksschule	50
im Schulheim bei der Krüppelanstalt in Hälsingborg	50
in Schulheim bei der Krüppelanstalt in Härnösand	43
Zusammen	278

Die Zusammensetzung der Schülerschaft in den Schulheimen der Krüppelanstalten geht aus folgender Tabelle hervor. Dieselbe zeigt die Verteilung der Ursachen der Invalidität für sämtliche Schüler im Jahre 1946:

	Schüler der Schulheime in den Krüppelanstalten in			
	Stock-holm	Hälsing-borg	Härnö-sand	Zusam-men
Angeborene Defekte und Missbildungen	3	5	8	16
Tuberkulose, englische Krankheit, Gelenksrheu-matismus u.s.w.	4	14	7	25
Kinderlähmung	46	39	26	111
Spastische Lähmungen ..	1	2	5	8
Defekte infolge von Un-fällen u.s.w.	4	2	5	11
Zusammen	58	62	51	171

Aus der Tabelle geht hervor, dass die spastischen Fälle einen sehr geringen Teil ausmachen. Eine besondere Unstersuchung hat erwiesen, dass von cirka 1.300 Schülern, die in den Schulheimen der Krüppelanstalten Unterricht erhalten haben, 95 (7.3%) Spastiker waren.

Die Schülerschaft des Eugeniaheimes unterscheidet sich in dieser Beziehung von derjenigen der übrigen Krüppelanstalten. Es gibt nämlich in diesem Heim eine bedeutende Anzahl spastischer Kinder sowie auch eine Anzahl Kinder mit nicht-orthopädischen Defekten. Eine Übersicht der Invaliditätsursachen der Kinder, die im Laufe der Jahre 1940 bis 1946 Abgangs- oder Übergangszeugnisse in der 6. und 7. Klasse im Eugeniaheim erhielten, ergibt folgende Verteilung:

Spastische Lähmungen	28
Progressive Muskellähmung	5

Knochensprödigkeit	3
Missbildungen der Glieder	2
Kinderlähmung	19
Rückenmarksbruch	7
Rheumatische Erkrankungen	1
Rückgratsverkrümmung	3
Bluterkrankheit	1
Wolfsrachen	1
Zwerghaftigkeit	3
Schwere Herzfehler	1
Hüfttuberkulose	1
Zusammen	75

Das Schulproblem der spastischen Kinder war Gegenstand einer besonderen Untersuchung des Zentralkomitees der schwedischen Krüppelfürsorge (Svenska Vanförevårdens Centralkommitté, S.V.C.K.). Aus dieser Untersuchung geht hervor, dass sich in Schweden beim Jahreswechsel 1944/45 439 spastische Kinder in schulpflichtigem Alter befanden. Von diesen Kindern schienen 209 (122 Knaben und 87 Mädchen) nach Meinung der Mitglieder des Untersuchungsausschusses bedürftig zu sein, zwecks Schulunterrichtes in besonderen Anstalten untergebracht zu werden.

Der Untersuchungsausschuss betonte ausserdem, dass erfahrungsgemäss von den spastischen Kindern, welche einen besonderen Schulunterricht benötigten, ungefähr 1/4 wegen motorischer Unruhe störend auf ihre Kameraden wirken und deswegen einzeln unterrichtet werden müssten.

Infolgedessen kam der Ausschuss zu dem Resultat, dass für 65 hochgradig spastische Kinder ein besonderes Schulheim eingerichtet werden müsste, und dass die leicht spastischen Kinder, die einen besonderen Schulunterricht brauchten, denselben in den bereits bestehenden Schulheimen erhalten könnten. Man hat auch diskutiert den Bedarf einer Meldungspflicht von allen Schulbezirken über das Vorkommen verkrüppelter Kinder, die Ausbildung in Spezialschulen nötig haben.

Um das wirtschaftliche Problem der verkrüppelten Jugendlichen zu lösen, wird grosses Gewicht darauf gelegt, sie durch geeignete Ausbildung zu berufstauglichen Menschen zu machen. Seitens der Krüppelfürsorge ist man zur vollen Klarheit darüber gelangt, dass die wirtschaftlichen Probleme der Krüppel nicht durch eine mitleidige Haltung der Arbeitgeber gelöst werden können. Wir glauben auch nicht, dass eine solche Lösung durch Zwangsmassnahmen herbeigeführt werden kann, durch die man die Krüppel den Unternehmern aufzwingt. Jedenfalls sind wir jetzt nicht geneigt, den Weg zu verlassen, den wir bisher verfolgt haben, nämlich, die vorhandenen Hindernisse durch eine gediegene Berufsausbildung zu kompensieren. Dies ist von grosser Bedeutung in Anbetracht des Umstandes, dass diese Gruppen stets in besonderem Masse den Konjunkturschvankungen auf dem Arbeitsmarkt ausgesetzt sind. Eine gründliche Berufsausbildung ist die beste Versicherung gegen Arbeitslosigkeit für Krüppel und für alle Arbeitsbehinderten.

Hierbei ist die Berufsberatung von grossem Gewicht. Diese erfolgt teils durch die Berufsberatung der Arbeitsver-

mittlung, teils durch die Kuratorenkontore der Krüppelanstalten oder durch diese beiden Institutionen gemeinsam. In diesen Fragen kann der Kurator der Krüppelanstalt sich mit den Aerzten und Fachlehrern der Anstalt beraten und gegebenenfalls auch mit der Berufsberatung der Arbeitsvermittlung. In Stockholm und Gothenburg wurden während der letzten Jahre auch die psychologischen Experten herangezogen, die an den psychotechnischen Instituten der betreffenden Hochschulen zur Verfügung stehen.

Für die jugendlichen Krüppel erfolgt die Ausbildung in gewöhnlichen Berufsschulen, in Betrieben sowie in den eigenen Fachschulen der Krüppelanstalten. Für eine Ausbildung ausserhalb einer Anstalt wird oft für diese Schüler ein finanzieller Beitrag vom Reichspensionsamt gewährt, welches für derartige Zwecke über besondere Mittel verfügt.

In diesem Zusammenhang soll zunächst die Wirksamkeit in den Fachschulen der Krüppelanstalten behandelt werden. In diesen Schulen wird ein Fachunterricht für die folgenden Berufe erteilt:

Mechanik
Automobillackierung
Möbeltischlerei, Polieren und Drechseln
Radioreparatur
Erzeugung von Korbmöbeln und Einflechten von Stuhlsitzen
Typographie (Setzerei und Druckerei)
Buchbinderei
Schneiderei

Photographie

Schuhmacherei

Tapeziererei

Malerei

Bürstenbinderei

Nähen (Kleider-, Kinderkleider-, Wäschenähen sowie Konfektions- und Ateliernähen)

Hausarbeit

Modisterei

Trikotstrickerei

Weberei

Arbeiten verschiedener Art für hochgradig verkrüppelte.

Der Unterricht an diesen Fachschulen ist im Grossen und Ganzen nach den selben pädagogischen Grundsätzen aufgebaut, die auch an den übrigen schwedischen Fachschulen zur Anwendung gelangen. Die Lehrerschaft an den Fachschulen der Krüppelanstalten hat jedoch teils infolge ihrer Erfahrung, teils auch infolge einer gewissen Spezialausbildung besonders günstige Voraussetzungen, mit dem betreffenden Schülermaterial ein gutes berufliches Resultat zu erreichen. Der Umstand, dass ständig orthopädische und bandagetechnische Experten zur Verfügung stehen, ermöglicht auch eine jeweilige Anpassung der Prothesen und Prothesenteile an die jeweilige Arbeit. Beiläufig kann hier erwähnt werden, dass die Schüler, die durch die Fachschulen der Krüppelanstalten hindurchgegangen sind, gemäss vorgenommenen Untersuchungen in 70 - 75% der Fälle sich vollständig versorgen können. Im Interesse

einer vollwertigen Berufsausbildung sowie auch um in dieser Wirksamkeit eine Athmosphäre von Isolierung zu vermeiden, ist es nicht erwünscht in diesen Schulen nur schwer invaliden Schülern Unterricht zu erteilen. Der Invaliditätsgrad der Schüler ist auch schwankend.

Die Mehrzahl der Schüler an den Fachschulen der Krüppelanstalten haben ihr Elternhaus nicht an dem Ort, an dem die Anstalt liegt. Dieser Umstand sowie in gewissen Fällen die hochgradige Invalidität der Schüler hat die Einrichtung besonderer Schülerheime im Anschluss an die Fachschulen notwendig gemacht. Die zur Verfügung stehenden Plätze in den Schülerheimen werden im Folgenden angegeben und gewähren auch ein beiläufiges Bild vom Umfang der Fachausbildung an den betreffenden Anstalten.

Die Krüppelanstalt in	Stockholm	140	(55	weibl.	85	männl.)
" " "	Gothenburg	135	(47	"	88	")
" " "	Hälsingborg	120	(43	"	77	")
" " "	Härnösand	93	(40	"	53	")

Sachverständige für Orthopädie und Krüppelpflege haben in ihren Vorschlägen über die Fachausbildung an den Krüppelanstalten angeregt, dass eine engere Anknüpfung an die Fachausbildung im Allgemeinen erreicht werden solle, und vorgeschlagen, dass die Fachschulen der Krüppelanstalten auch für andere Schüler als Krüppel offenstehen sollten, (in erster Linie für andere Arbeitsbehinderte).

Zum Schluss noch einige Worte über die Tätigkeit der Krüppelanstalten. Diese Institutionen, welche von privaten

Vereinen mit bedeutenden staatlichen Beiträgen betrieben werden, haben sich gegen Ende des vorigen Jahrhunderts entwickelt auf Grund von Anregungen, die aus Deutschland auf dem Wege über Dänemark zu uns gelangt sind. Die grundlegende Idee dabei war und ist noch immer, für die gesamte medizinische, soziale und pädagogische Pflege der Klientele zu sorgen.

Die praktische Ausgestaltung dieses Prinzipes der totalen Fürsorge hat zweifellos in mancher Beziehung nicht dem Ideal entsprochen. Man dürfte aber doch nicht fehlgehen mit der Behauptung, dass keine Gruppe der nicht voll Arbeitsfähigen in Schweden Gegenstand einer so allseitigen und erfolgreichen Fürsorge gewesen ist wie die Krüppel. Wenn daher in einem Gutachten eines vom Sozialminister eingesetzten Ausschusses bezüglich der Probleme der Arbeitsbehinderten mit Recht gesagt wird, dass "ein grosser Mangel des herrschenden Fürsorgesystemes für die Arbeitsbehinderten in dem offenbaren Fehlen einer Koordinierung von Krankenpflege und Arbeitsfürsorge besteht", so trifft diese Kritik die Krüppelfürsorge in verhältnismässig geringem Masse. Nach Meinung der Sachverständigen für Orthopädie und Krüppelpflege ist die Idee der totalen Fürsorge immer noch tragkräftig. Die Entwicklung der orthopädischen Pflege darf jedoch nicht dadurch gehemmt werden. Die übrige Tätigkeit der Krüppelanstalten muss auch eng verknüpft werden mit anderen gleichartigen Massnahmen für die Arbeitsbehinderten, die ausserhalb der Krüppelanstalten getroffen werden.

Stockholm im September 1950.

Karl Montan

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FÖR KULTURELLT UTBYTE MED UTLANDET
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Föreningen Svenska Tonsättare
The Swedish Composers' Society

Föreningen Sveriges Filmproducenter
Casas Productoras de Peliculas de Suecia

Hemmens Forskningsinstitut
Home Research Institute
L'Institut de Recherches d'Organisation Ménagère Scientifique
Das Institut für Haushaltsforschung

Hyresgästernas Sparkasse- och Byggnadsförening, HSB
The Tenants' Saving and Building Society
La Société de Locataires pour la Construction et l'Epargne

Industriens Utredningsinstitut
The Industrial Institute for Economic and Social Research

Jordbrukets Upplysningsnämnd
The Swedish Agricultural Information Office

Kooperativa Förbundet
The Swedish Cooperative Union and Wholesale Society
L'Union Coopérative de Suède
Der Verband und die Grosseinkaufsgesellschaft schwedischer Konsumgenossenschaften.
La Federación de Cooperativas

Landsorganisationen i Sverige
The Confederation of Swedish Trade Unions
La Confédération Générale du Travail de Suède
Der schwedische Gewerkschaftsbund

Lunds Universitet
Die Universität Lund

Medicinalstyrelsen
The Royal Medical Board
La Direction Générale de la Santé Publique
Das Gesundheitsamt

Nordiska Museet
The Northern Museum

Norrtulls Sjukhus
Norrtulls Krankenhaus

Pensionsstyrelsen
The Royal Pensions Board
La Direction Générale du Service des Pensions
Das Pensionsamt

Radiotjänst
The Swedish Broadcasting Organization

Riksförbundet för Sexuell Upplysning
The National League for Sex Education

Rädda Barnen

Save the Children

Sigtunastiftelsen

The Sigtuna Foundation

Socialstyrelsen

The Royal Social Board

Statens Hantverksinstitut

The Swedish Government Institute for Handicrafts
L'Institut National de l'Artisanat
Das Schwedische Staatliche Handwerksinstitut
Istituto Profesionale della Stato Svedese

Stockholms Handelskammare

The Stockholm Chamber of Commerce

Stockholms Högskola

The University of Stockholm

Stockholms Stads Fastighetskontor

The Housing Department of the City of Stockholm
Le Département d'Habitation de la Ville of Stockholm
Die Abteilung für Wohnstättebau der Stadt Stockholm

Svensk-Amerikanska Nyhetsbyrån

The American-Swedish News Exchange

Svenska Arbetsgivareföreningen

The Swedish Employers' Confederation
L'Union Patronale Suédoise
Der schwedische Zentralarbeitgeberverband

Svenska Arkitekters Riksförbund

The National Association of Swedish Arhitects

Svenska Hemslöjdsföreningarnas Riksförbund

The Swedish Handicraft Industries Association

Svenska Industritjänstemannaförbundet

The Swedish Union of Clerical and Technical Employees
Le Syndicat Suédois des Employés d'Industrie
Die schwedische Industrieangestellten-Gewerkschaft

Svenska Institutet

The Swedish Institute for Cultural Relations
L'Institut Suédois pour les Relations Culturelles
Das Schwedische Institut für Kulturbeziehungen
El Instituto Sueco

Svenska Landskommunernas Förbund

The National Union of Swedish Rural Communes

Svenska Lantmännens Riksförbund

The National Union of Swedish Farmers
Confédération générale des syndicats agricoles en Suéde
Reichsverband der schwedischen landwirtschaftlichen Ein- und Verkaufsvereinigungen

Svenska Nationalföreningen mot Tuberkulos

Swedish National Association against Tuberculosis

Svenska Jordbrukskreditkassan

La Fédération des Sociétés Suédoises de Crédit Agricole

Svenska Mejeriernas Riksförening
The Swedish Dairies Association
L'Association Nationale des Laiteries Suédoises
Die Reichsvereinugung Schwedischer Molkereien

Svenska Museimannaföreningen
The Swedish Museums Association

Svenska Röda Korset
The Swedish Red Cross
La Croix-Rouge Suédoise

Svenska Slöjföreningen
The Swedish Society of Arts and Crafts

Svenska Turistföreningen
The Swedish Touring Club
Le Touring Club de Suède
La Asociación de Turismo de Suecia

Svenska Turisttrafikförbundet
The Swedish Tourist Traffic Association
L'Office National Suédois du Tourisme
La Officina Nacional Sueca de Turismo

Svenska unescorådet
The National Commission for Unesco

Svenska Vanföreanstalternas Central-Kommitté
The Central Committee of the Institutions for the Care of Cripple in Sweden.
Das Zentralkomitee der schwedischen Krüppelanstalten

Sveriges Allmänna Biblioteksförening
The Swedish Library Association

Sveriges Allmänna Exportförening
The General Export Association of Sweden
L'Association Générale des Exportateurs Suèdeis
Asociación General de Exportadores de Suecia

Sveriges Förenade Studentkårer
The Swedish National Union of Students

Sveriges Grossistförbund
The Federation of Swedish Wholesale Merchants and Importers
La Fédération des Négociants en Gros et Importateurs Suédois
Der Verband Schwedischer Grossisten und Importeure

Sveriges Köpmannaförbund
The Swedish Retail Federation

Sveriges Lantbruksförbund
The Federation of Swedish Farmers' Associations
La Confédération Générale des Coopératives Agricoles Suédoises
Der Zentralverband Schwedischer Landwirtschaftsgenossenschaften

Sveriges Riksidrottsförbund
The Swedish Sports Federation
La Fédération Suédoise des Sports

Sveriges Speceri- och Livsmedelhandlareförbund
The Swedish Association of Retail Grocers
La Fédération Suédoise des Epicier et des Commercants de la Branche Alimentaire

Tekniska Högskolan
The Royal Institute of Technology

Tjänstemännens Centralorganisation

The Swedish Central Organization of
Salaried Employees

L'Organisation Centrale des Employés
Die Zentralorganisation der Angestelltenverbände

Utrikesdepartementet

The Royal Ministry for Foreign Affairs

Le Ministère des Affaires Etrangères

Ministerio de Relaciones Exteriores

Utrikespolitiska Institutet

The Institute of International Affairs

L'Institut de Politique Etrangère

Vattenfallsstyrelsen

The State Power Board

La Direction de l'Energie Electrique
de l'Etat

Die Generaldirektion der Staatlichen
Kraftwerke

La Direccion de Energia Eléctrica de
Estado

Yrkeskvinnors Samarbetsförbund

The Swedish Federation of Business
and Professional Women

Publishers:

Forum

Nordiska Musikförlaget

Plan

THE SWEDISH INSTITUTE
Stockholm

Information Service

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE IN SWEDEN

Historical Review

Until the passing of the Employment Act of 1934, little progress was made in Sweden with the organisation of vocational guidance. Some attempts at organisation had been made previously, it is true; in 1918 a regulation respecting continuation schools required that teachers, co-operating with the employment services, should arrange for school-children to have appropriate guidance in their choice of an occupation and help in securing employment; in 1928 the Riksdag granted rather modest subsidies to employment offices for the purpose of providing better services for young persons in need of employment and advice; and in 1929 the Social Affairs Board and the Board of Education issued a joint circular which called for co-operation between the schools and employment services in matters of vocational guidance and made a number of valuable suggestions. Owing to lack of interest, however, and the passive attitude adopted by the national authorities, there was little practical result from these beginnings.

The 1934 employment Exchanges Act.

The Employment Exchanges Act of 1934, however, opened up altogether new possibilities of development, both for employment services as a whole and for the special branches which were to deal with the vocational guidance and placing of young persons. Among other improvements, the local authorities could now count on a more generous subsidy.

The difficulties of the period of unemployment and depression of the late'twenties and early 'thirties had at least one good effect - the value of a more constructive and positive employment policy was appreciated. As regards young persons, the harm done by the neglect of vocational training was realised, and from several quarters measures were called for to establich a more rationalised training system; naturally there was occasion to reflect also on the importance of vocational guidance. During the 'thirties there steadily developed a demand for more efficiently.

organised vocational guidance, which found expression not only in schools and employment services, but also in trade union circles and among women's and youth organisations. The Riksdag discussed the problem in 1938 and decided to establish a committee on"the most appropriate method of centralising information for the purpose of juvenile vocational guidance"; but the proposal made by this committee in 1939 was never discussed by the Riksdag; the second World war was imminent, and even neutral Sweden had other matters to consider.

The Employment Market Commission.

However, the Employment Market Commission, an emergency authority which assumed control of the public employment service in 1940 when the service was provisionally nationalised, realised the importance of organising as soon as possible a rational juvenile service including vocational guidance. The Commission therefore appointed in 1941 a psychologist experienced in vocational guidance work.[1)]

As an emergency body, required to deal in various ways with the crisis in the employment market caused by the war and the necessary defence arrangements, the Commission had fairly extensive powers and resources. It was thus possible to start comprehensive organisational work, intended not only to render employment services more effective as a whole, but also to lay the foundation for rational organised juvenile vocational guidance on a national scale. This organisational work, which continued throughout the war years, may be said to have been concluded on 1 January 1948, when the employment services were natioanlised on a definitive basis and the Commission (now the Royal Labour Board) became a permanent Government institution. As regards placement and vocational guidance for young persons (and certain other special tasks), however, the placement scheme is still of a provisional character.

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1) The author of the present article.

The Immediate Background

The fundamental purpose was to ensure that vocational guidance services should not only give background information and help young persons to be clear about their own aptitudes and interests, but should also give more direct and practical help in the placing and training of young persons, having regard to the plans made on the basis of their aptitudes and of the guidance given.

The experience gained from the mass unemployment of young persons of the late 'twenties and early 'thirties remained only too fresh in Swedish minds, and there was full realisation of the unregulated position of training in many occupations; of the limited training possibilities for young persons in some districts; of the extent to which local employment is dependent on single trades or market fluctuations, of the sharp competition which must be expected for entry into certain trades or courses of study; of the difficulties encountered by some classes of young persons (the disabled, the maladjusted, the economically or socially unfortunate, etc.) in finding themselves appropriate training or employment; of the frequent temptation to remain too long in jobs which offer good pay but few chances of training or promotion; and of the fact that, despite advice regarding aptitudes and choice of occupation, careers are in many cases determined by pure chance unless the vocational guidance services have an opportunity to intervene in a direct and practical way.

It was considered most appropriate to attach vocational guidance structurally to the employment services, since these were gradully to be provided with special juvenile department . This view was justified for other reasons also; the joint organisation of vocational guidance and placement, it was thought, would in a simple and natural manner enable the employment services to obtain the necessary broader understanding of the various possibilities of study and training and to keep up to date their knowledge of developments in the various occupations; secondly it would facilitate the use of vocational guidance as a means of employment market planning if that should prove necessary; and thirdly the public employment services had now been given a much more powerful organisational structure and far wider possibilities for development into an integrated system covering the whole country at all levels.

In each of the 25 provinces in which the country is divided,

the employment services had been grouped under a single body (the Provincial Employment Board), with the Royal Labour Board as the central institution; there were fairly wide possibilities of inter-provincial collaboration. There is a main office in each province, with full-time branch offices and part-time local offices and agencies under its authority. The number of employment offices of various sorts in the country is 257, including 25 main offices, 178 branch offices and 66 local offices; the number of agents is about 1 100.

The Present System

The central organ of the national guidance system[1] is the Royal Labour Board, wich has a special Vocational Guidance Division.

Work of the Central Organisation.

The functions centrally performed may be summerised as follows:

(a) the planning and direction of field work regarding both organisational questions and methods of work;

(b) consultation with other central bodies dealing with the education and training of young persons;

(c) supervision by means of tours or inspections, reports, etc,;

(d) the instruction and training of field workers by means of courses, conferences, written instructions and other means;

(e) the provision of appropriate material to the local bodies and the preparation of new material, to ensure that local bodies keep abreast of developments; the organisation of various special enquiries relating to vocational guidance (forecasts of the employment situation, summeries of current tendencies regarding choice of a trade, etc.);

(f) consultation with teachers, doctors, youth leaders, social welfare officials, etc., so as to increase their understanding of the objects and methods of vocational guidance and to enable them to give effective help;

(g) assistance to the local vocational guidance bodies by

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1) In Sweden almost all vocational guidance of a methodical character is nationally organised. The women's association (The Fredrika Bremer Association) has established a number of advisory offices for girls who need information on choice of trade and training questions; its activity , however, is of relatively modest scope.

placing special experts at their disposal when necessary (this applies particularly to guidance in the upper secondary schools) and by arranging for direct replies, by post or through radio programmes, to enquiries on matters relating to choice of vocation and training received from young persons in outlying districts.

The duties of the central organisation include work on behalf of persons partially unfit for employment, organised by a special division for matters concerning disable persons and aliens. About 25 officials are employed in this section, which plans and supervises field activities for the disabled; this work is still in course of development; but has already achieved considerable importance.

About 30 officials are at present employed in the Vocational Guidance Division of the Royal Labour Board. Some perform various administrative duties; others act as consultants on special subjects or as inspectors; the third group is mainly engaged on various kinds of research and compilation work.

The second of these groups includes the officials who advise on school questions; there is one for elementary and three for secondary schools. These officials are required to maintain permanent contact both with the central school authorities and with the various teachers' organisations., to follow developments in school and educational matters and to take part in teachers' conferences, continuation courses and the work of teacher's training colleges[1)].

The Division also includes experts on medical and psychological questions related to vocational guidance. Psychological knowledge is used in determining methods of work, training field personnel, organising co-operation with psychological institutions charged with the testing of aptitudes, etc., and in the analysis and classification of trades, types of employment and the possibilities of training according to the personal qualifications required in each case. This last function requires medical knowledge too, and this is also required in the orga-

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1) At an earlier stage there were two advisory committees attached to the central vocational guidance authority, which included representatives of elementary school teachers and secondary school teachers' organisations respectively. Their future is not yet decided; they will probably be replaced by one committee, with some change in composition.

nisation of co-operation with the doctors who take part in vocational guidance work.

A fairly large proportion of the personnel of the Division is engaged on research, compilation and drafting of various kinds, to provide the local bodies with the necessary information and material for their work.

Occupational index. One operation now proceeding is the preparation of an occupational index which when complete will comporise some 600 pages of description of the various trades, giving information in each case on the type of work, number of establishments and workers in the different branches, employers' and workers' organisations, physical and psychological requirements, training, chances of promotion, economic conditions, the future of the trade, and publications available. The material for this index is obtained by a study of publications, by interviews and meetings, and by observation and analysis at workplaces. About 2/3 of the index is now ready and its completion is likely to take another year. In fact, of course, this work is never finished, since the information on various points (statistics, training, economic conditions, prospects, etc.) must be constantly altered and supplemented. At present the index is distributed to the employment offices but in the future it is expected that it will be possible to send it also to schools, libraries and other public institutions.

As a supplement to the occupational index, up-to-date news are distributed on conditions in various trades, the employment situation, schools and courses, conditions of entry into various forms of training, etc.

Pamphlets. A review of vocational schools is annually in pamphlet form; this contains information on the objectives, time-tables, conditions of entry and fees of the various training establishments in the country. Another pamphlet, prepared for distribution among upper secondary schools and revised annually, contains information on the various types of training, open to pupils who have matriculated. A third pamphlet, on the subject of choosing a trade, deals with the

choice of an occupation from the standpoint of aptitudes and interest and is intended mainly for pupils of elementary and continuation schools. All these pamphlets, which are made to look as attractive as possible , are provided free of charge, as are also other publications prepared for young persons and their parents. In view of the fact that choice of a trade and training is for most people an economic problem, the central authority has prepared summeries of the various possibilities relating to loans and allowances made by national and local authorities and other organisations.

A special "distribution centre" collects prespectuses from about 310 vocational training institutions throughout the country and distributes them to the local offices.

Radio letter box. A "radio letter box" for questions related to choice of vocation has been established in co-operation with the broadcasting service. In this way it is possible to supply information and advice to young persons living in outlying areas, to whom other vocational guidance facilities are not accessible. In 1949, the Division answered about 800 letters received through this service, some in writting and others in a weekly radio talk.

By means of this device, the central office is in a position to collaborate more directly in the work of vocational guidance. There has been special occasion for this in connection with the organisation of vocational guidance in upper secondary schools. For this work, the central office has not at its disposal a sufficient number of properly qualified "field" officials. The problem is solved by the central office consultant for secondary schools, with a number of assistant consultants also appointed by the central office, acting also as travelling vocational guidance officers for upper secondary schools.

Work of the Local Bodies.

The duties allotted to the local bodies are as follows:

(1) to make the young person aware, at an early stage, of the importance of choosing an occupation and of undertaking vocational training;

(2) to explain what occupations and forms of training are available and what the requirements and prospects are in each case;

(3) to help the young person to determine clearly his own aptitudes, interests and needs and in general his position as regards choice of an occupation;
(4) in cases where this choice appears definitely unreasonable because of material factors, to advise against it and to put forward alternative possibilities (in other circumstances also such intervention may be justified, but only exceptionally may the young person be influenced in any special direction when he makes his choice);
(5) after the decision has been made, to help in a more precise formulation of plans, to call attention to the most suitable course of study and to give other practical advice and information;
(6) in most cases, sooner or later, to aid the young person in a more material sense by finding him a suitable opening, to establish contact for him with a trade school, secure financial support in some form, and act on his behalf when required;
(7) in appropriate cases, to maintain subsequent contact with the young person and supervise his progress until it is clear that this is satisfactory.

There is a special department for vocational guidance and juvenile placement at the main employment office in each province. This department is required not only to engage in vocational guidance and placement in the town where it is established, but also to act as an organising centre for all vocational guidance work done by the employment service in the province. At the larger branch offices special departments for the vocational guidance and placing of juveniles have also been established but these are directed by the provincial centre. At many other branch offices a parttime " contact man" has been appointed; some suitable person in the locality (usually a teacher) acts as an agent for the juvenile placement services and in this capacity helps the placement staff to deal with young persons seeking employment and advice, to organise collaboration with the schools, and to help in school vocational guidance work. The time so spent by these persons amounts usually to no more than a few hours a week but increases considerably towards the end of the school year. Throughout the country 110 full-time and about 150 part-time officials are now engaged on juvenile placement and vocational guidance work.

In addition, there is a field organisation with a staff of about 75, which has ben built up for the special treatment of disabled persons In the case of juveniles whose physical or psychological handicaps are such as to involve difficulties in placement and occupational adjust-

ment, the juvenile employment services and their vocational guidance officers are responsible. In the case of older persons with such handicaps, it was considered necessary to establish a special branch inside the employment services, which would help the other officials as regards placement and - in collaboration with the appropriate public authorities, vocational training establishments and social welfare institutions - would arrange for the necessary corrective training and preparation for employment. Naturally occasion also arises for vocationl guidance and, in suitable cases, for collaboration with the staff of the juvenile employment service[1].

How the system works

The system operates partly in schools, partly in the armed forces (during compulsory service), partly by means of interviews at the employment offices, and partly through meetings of parents or members of various assocations.

Elementary Schools.

Interest in vocational training at elementary and continuation schools has been increasing steadily. In several districts a memorandum on the provision of vocational guidance, and more particularly on the teacher's part in it, has been prepared jointly by the elementary schools inspector and the director of the provincial employment office for distribution to teachers. Work in this field has also been discussed at conferences and teacher's meetings.

Co-operation by the teachers has included talks given to the top classes of elementary schools (and to some extent in continuation schools). Pupils are addressed on the coming need to choose an occupation and the means of appropriate vocational training; they have to write an essay on some such subject as "My Future" or to answer a number of questions concerning the choice of a trade drawn up in a questionnaire supplied by the vocational guidance authorities, which provides them with the opportunity of indicating their preferences and plans for the future. The pupils also read and discuss the pamphlet already mentioned on the choice of a trade. Thereupon the teacher perhaps gives the class some preparatory guidance particularly relating to possibilities of employment and training in the district itself; or opens a discussion on some special problem of choice of vocation, talks with individuals who have special problems,

1) Such collaboration is also necessary in the central organisation.

and encourages pupils to apply to the employment services and vocational guidance offices for further information and help. In many cases the teacher takes his class on a visit to the employment office, or, in co-operation with the employment service, to various workplaces. Use is also made of the schools' broadcasting service. In most cases also the teachers co-operate by supplying written or oral information concerning their pupils.

The vocational guidance officers of the employment service, on their side, have given lectures to the top classes of schools. In some provinces different school districts have collaborated to enable pupils from smaller places to visit larger schools where vocational guidance officers are available. The object is to establich contact with pupils and to hold simple and conversational talks with them, usually followed by a question period and - if there is time - individual consultations for pupils with special problems.

It is evident that vocational guidance conducted in such a simple manner cannot have any great effect. It can provide little more than a preparatory indication and an opportunity to make the acquaintance of those who will subsequently be responsible for vocational guidance. Real vocational guidance among children leaving elementary schools must as a rule occur at a later stage through continued contact with the vocational guidance officers of the employment service.

Secondary Schools.

Vocational guidance in secondary schools is more deliberte. The pupils are somewhat older, the members of the top classes being as a rule 16-17 years of age in the middle schools, 17-18 years in girls' schools and 19-20 in the upper secondary schools.

The primary object of attention is the top class of each school; but some attention must also be given to the classes in the middle and girls' schools from which pupils may transfer to the upper secondary school, and the second classes in the four-year upper secondary school (or first class in the three-year upper secondary school) where pupils select the combination of subjects on wich they wish to concentrate during the remainder of the course; these choices are of importance also for the training which it is desired to take up after matriculation .

The first step in vocational guidance in the secondary schools is to distribute the pamphlets already mentioned; pupils and parents

are expected to study them on their own. Pupils then have an opportunity to state their interests, future plans and problems in the form of written answers to the questionnaire concerning the choice of an occupation, of which there is a special form for upper secondary schools, another for girls' and middle schools, and a third for peoples' high schools. The statements are sent to the vocational guidance officers, who use them as a basis for a background talk to all the classes concerned; the talk is adapted to the choice facing each class (whether to take the earlier leaving examination or to transfer to an upper secondary school; or the choice between different occupations or courses of training after the final examination).

Subsequently, when the vocational guidance officer has again examined the pupils' statements and has received the headmaster's and other teachers' impressions on certain children, there is in most cases an individual interview. The time which can be allotted to each pupil has of course in many cases to be regrettably short; but occasion is found to answer certain questions, to clear up points in doubt, and to help boys and girls in various ways towards a clearer view of themselves and their future. Lectures and individual interviews have also been arranged for parents and guardians of pupils, but they by no means always take the trouble to attend.

The Juvenile Employment Offices.

It is evident from the above description of vocational guidance work in the schools that no thorough treatment of each individual case is possible at that stage. Pupils are therefore encouraged to visit the juveniel employment office, where there is more possibility of individual treatment. If there is no office in the neighbourhood, the process may perhaps be continued by correspondence, but the results will naturally be greater if the vocational guidance officer has an opportunity for more direct contact with the young person. Several visits are often required.

Many of those who visit the juvenile employment office come in search of employment only, but a number of them prove to be badly in need of vocational guidance.

Many older persons (over 18 years of age) also come to the juvenile employment offices for advice and information. These may be divided roughly into the following groups:

(1) persons of the age of 18 to 20 years who after matriculating, or graduating from girls' schools, find themselves faced with the choice

of an occupation and training (adults who have completed the peoples' high schools course, passed examinations after study by correspondence, ect., fall into the same group);

(2) persons who have postponed their final choice of an occupation until after completion of their first year of military service (20-21 years of age), or who have been in the armed forces on a long engagement;

(3) persons who have worked for years in an occupation but now desire to secure promotion or to become skilled workers and therefore need advice and information on the various possibilities of training;

(4) persons who have made a bad choice of an occupation or have been obliged to enter unsuitable employment and find that they must change their occupation after unsuccessfully attempting, perhaps for many years, to adjust themselves.

(5) persons who, after perhaps years of occupation in their own homes, wish or are obliged to seek employment outside and have no suitable training;

(6) persons who, owing to sickmess, injury, social maladjustment or external circumstance, have to change their employment and perhaps require retraining also.

In such circumstances it has been impossible to limit the age of persons who may apply to the vocation guidance officers of the employment service; in fact, 7 per cent, of those registered as seeking advice are over 25 years of ago, and 27 per cent, are between 18 and 25 years.

Apart from the schools service, 28.000 persons (16.000 men and 12.000 women) received individual guidance at the juvenile employment offices during 1949. In many cases the guidance involved more than one interview.

Methods used

It is difficult to state at all exactly how vocational guidance is actually given. It must of course be adapted to the choice which each individual has to make. The following classification of vocational guidance cases illustrates methods used:

(1) the boy or girl knows exactly what he wishes to be but requires special information or practical advice, for instance on a given school or course or on the various forms of training between which he must choose if he wishes to enter a certain occupation, or on the best means of obtaining practical experiance or a post as an apprentice in a given trade, or on the best means of dealing with the

financial side of the question; it may also be necessary to help in the removal of various obstacles (social or economic) from the young person's path, or to provide contact with an employer, training establishment or source of financial support;

(2) the young person is roughly aware of his own aptitudes and interests but knows too little about the occupational world to judge what occupation or course of training is most suitable. In such cases, after ensuring that the young person has good reasons for his opinion, it is necessary to classify all conceivable possibilities in the light of these aptitudes and interests and then to provide more information regarding the occupations and courses of training most appropriate, to examine the young person's situation in other respects and to call attention to any points of which he or she should be aware with regard to the possibilities under discussion;

(3) the boy or girl may perhaps initially indicate interest in a certain career but may have too little self-comprehension and too vague an idea of the occupational world for this expressed interest to have much real meaning; in this case the guidance officer begins with a thorough test of aptitudes; use may be made of the exploratory psychological technique in its various forms and psychotechnical or medical experts may be called in;

(4) the boy or girl is determined to enter a given occupation but it is found on closer examination that his choice is erroneous for some reason (for instance, having regard to certain weaknesses in his personal qualifications, difficulties in obtaining satisfactory training in the appropriate time, competition in the career in question, future prospects. etc.); it is then necessary to call attention to the relevant facts and to indicate the occupation or course of study which may be regarded as most suitable; if the candidate sees the reasonable character of the vocational guidance officer's argument the case will fall into group 2 or group 3 above.

Special Methods and Facilities.

There are various sources of knowledge and information available to the vocational guidance officers in the course of their work. Apart from the facilities placed at their disposal by the central authority, there is also material relating more particularly to local condition, which each provincial office must obtain for itself and keep up to date.

By means of contacts of various sorts (with representatives of local associations , training establishments, trade unions, representatives of industry , etc.) and by visits for study purposes to workplaces and training schools, the vocational guidance officer attempts steadily to improve his knowledge of occupational conditions and training possibilities and to follow up developments in the various branches of economy and of society in general.

In order to obtain an idea of the character, attitude and situation of the applicant with regard to future employment, the vocational guidance officer will probably reply first of all on his own ability gradually to explore the personal circumstances of the case by means of suitable questions directed to the individual in question or to other persons with knowledge about him. The principal aim at this stage is to obtain a grasp of the situation as a whole, i.e. to understand the deeper motives behind the applicant's indication of interests, to "place" him on the basis of personal characteristics and natural gifts, to appreciate the general external conditions under which he lives and has developed, and any social or economic problems which may arise. The following are the main elements on which the vocational guidance officer can base this general opinion:

(a) the information, written or oral, which can be obtained from previous employers, doctors, teachers, youth leaders, child and youth welfare officers who have had to deal with the young person in question for any considerable time;

(b) the information which the young person may be able to give spontaneously regarding himself, his aptitudes and interests, and his material circumstances;

(c) the observations which the vocational guidance officer may be able to make during individual interviews, and the information he receives in answer to his own more or less methodical questions;

(d) the results of any direct aptitude test which the vocational guidance service - forming part of the employment service - is able to organise; such tests are conducted in some natural and appropriate manner and may include a trial period arranged at a workplace or trade school.

Such methods are naturally dependent to a large extent on the personal judgement of the officer, they have proved effective in the majority of cases and will probably govern the appreciation of individuals under the Swedish vocational guidance scheme in the future.

The teacher's report. A special statistical-psychological investigation is now being conducted by the central authority into the best form of presentation of the teacher's report on each child. The form now in use enables the teacher to grade pupils' personal qualifications from various points of view according to a seven-point scale. Many teachers have taken considerable pains in making these reports and have often given an informal description of each pupil to supplement the information specifically required. Experience has shown, however, that the teacher's impressions must be used with a certain amount of caution.

Medical experts. No special medical experts are directly attached to the local vocational guidance bodies, but such experts are attached to the main employment office in each province and could also be used by the local vocational guidance bodies. Furthermore, according to regulations issued in 1944 and 1945, which apply to all schools where health arrangements are made or subsidised by the authorities, school doctors are required to collaborate in vocational guidance. When a pupil is about to leave school, the doctor will inspect his health card and decide whether "vocational guidance on medical grounds" may be regarded as desirable. The parent or guardian and the juvenile employment office are notified of the doctor's opinion.

Psychological examination. It has not hitherto been possible beyond a very limited extent to meet the need for a fuller psychological examination conducted by specialists with the aid of psychotechnical apparatus. Practical psychology has had considerable difficulty in winning ground in Sweden, and it is only during the last ten years that serious progress has been made. There are at present two institutes of practical psychology with psychotechnical tests of aptitude on their programme, one connected with Stockholm university and the other with the university of Göteborg. The vocational guidance authorities send prpblem cases to these institutes for examination, the expenses being payable by the State. The findings of the institute are communicated to the vocational guidance authority; these may confirm or correct the original diagnosis but will in any case enrich the knowledge of the case obtained by the vocational guidance officer from other sources. Naturally only the vocational guidance services at Stockholm and Göteborg can make use of these services to any large extent.

Follow-up. Hitherto the important side of vocational guidance known as follow-up has been too much neglected in Sweden. In some parts of the country, however, the organisation of systematic follow-up has been started lately. By contacts with the employers, the staff of vocational training establishments or with the individuals themselves or their parents, an attempt is made to discover how young workers and trainers are faring in cases in which special supervisory measures were concidered advisable at an earlier stage. If the follow-up shows that things are not as they should be, the case must be reopened for discussion, and the necessary action taken.

Recruitment and Traning of Vocational Guidance Personnel

In recruiting juvenile employment and vocational guidance officers, the first aim has to be to find persons with the right interests and aptitudes for the work. Practical organising ability, psychological insight, a relaxed and selfreliant manner, facility in establishing contact with all sorts of people and particularly with the young, an interest in youth and its problems, each of expression, clarity an common sense in exposition, sufficient intellectual distinction to make the most of the informatory and methodological material provided by the vocational guidance authorities - these and similar qualities are of decisive importance in the selection of the officers. Training for and experience in some other occupation have also been regarded as desirable; and a candidate should preferably have proved his interest in the problems of youth and his ability to deal with juveniles by earlier activity as a youth leader or teacher. Higher education in some form has also been considered desirable, since the guidance officers have to deal with students and to use various sorts of specialised litterature, but this last qualification is not regarded as an absolute condition. Still less has it seemed necessary to require the passing of a special examination, In fact, the persons engaged have had education and training of the most widely different types. About a third have academic qualifications (besides practical experience in an occupation), and quarter have diplomas from social institutions or from Y.M.C.A. or Y.W.C.A. secretarial institutes.

With a vocational guidance staff made up in this heterogeneous manner, care must be exercised in the way the officers are used.

First of all, in allocating them to the diffirent centres, arrangements must be made so that what one official lacks in training, etc., is made good by qualifications of his colleagues at the same office (similarly, an attempt is made to have expert knowledge regarding boys and girls available at each centre), Secondly, it has been necessary for the central authority to arrange for the training of personnel after they have begun vocational guidance work.

The training of vocational guidance officers is carried out in close connection with the training of other employment staff members - all of it planned and arranged by the Royal Labour Board. The prospective vocational guidance officers must as a rule, like other applicants for employment service positions, apply for one of the aspirants' posts advertised once a year.

All aspirants have to undergo a probationary, salaried service during a period of 6 months in a County Employment Headoffice. After having passed this probation the aspirant will be trained during an additional period of 18 months, also salaried. This training includes service in different branches of the employment agency work-the vocational guidance officers-to-be practice at least 6 months in a juvenile employment office and 3 months in a workers' rehabilitation office - and this practical training must take place in at least two different County Labour Boards. As part of the training is furthermore included an assistants' course, centrally arranged in Stockholm. For the vocational guidance officers a complimentary course is organised centrally, where special vocational guidance questions, social and psychological, are discussed. After passing the aspirant's training, the candidate will receive a more permanent subordinate function and may apply for a definite appointment as assistant in the employment service organisation.

Furthermore, to supplement the practical training, lectures and special courses on education and psychology are organised by the central authority. The latter's representatives have the opportunity, during their visits to centres, to discuss any matter which arises, point out faults, commend good progress and give orders and advice. This instructional work can, to some extent, take the form of written memoranda and directives.

The Future

The system described in the preceding pages may be regarded as a foundation for a rational, integrated vocational scheme on a national scale - but only the foundation. Much remains to be done before the structure is sufficiently complete for use by young persons throughout the country; methods can be made more effective, and improvements in the training and placement of officials can make their work more decisive. The central vocational guidance authority is well aware of the faults of the present system.

It is thus proposed to attach an "employment research and forecast institute" to the central vocational guidance authority, to enable the authority to give fuller information regarding prospects in various occupations.

It is also intended to organise collaboration with school doctors on a more rational basis, and to render more effective the "vocational advice on medical grounds" in schools. Some method of giving the local vocational guidance bodies easier access to psychological experts is also desirable, but this is a difficult problem, and little improvement can be expected for some time. On the other hand, it is conceivable that the schools will gradually be able to give assistance with regard to psychological techniques. A proposal is now pending under which special "school psychologists" are to be trained and appointed with the object of organising tests dealing with problem cases, etc.; these specialists would collaborate with the vocational guidance services and place the results of their investigation at the officers' disposal.

The development of the new school-system will also in other respects open entirely new possibilities for vocational guidance. The new school reform, passed in Parliament 1950, implies that vocational guidance will be given a relatively great space and be considered as an important function in the future Swedish school life. Principally, vocational guidance shall be introduced in the next to the last class of the basic 9-year school and then be continued in the last class (9th year). Education will be differentiated in this last-year class on waried lines of training. It is therefore of utmost importance to arrange a thorough vocational guidance, practical as well as theoretical, in the eight class. It could be mentioned here, that vocational guidance also will be given to the pupils in high schools, preparing for matriculation examination. In the experimental activity, already started with the new schools system as basis,

vocational guidance will play an important role.

A condition for the realisation of these plans is, however, that the efforts from the part of the school are increased considerably as far the vocational guidance is concerned and that the cooperation between school and employment service is being organized rationally, and furthermore that the vocational guidance organisation within the employment service is strengthened and adapted to the new requirements.

The two first-mentioned problems are at present under investigation by a committee, consisting of representatives from the Royal Labour Board, the Board of Education and the Board of Vocational Training. This committee has almost concluded its work and presented certain proposals, implying the employment of special vocational guidance teachers in the experimenting schools.

The special qustion of the vocational guidance organisation within the employment service is object for an investigation through another committee charged with the revision of the entire employment service organisation.

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E D U C A T I O N I N S W E D E N

An expanded and supplemented version of a shorter article written by Professor Ingemar Düring of the Gothenburg University for the Yearbook of Education 1947.

The Swedish school system is not a uniform one. The dominating positions are held by the f o l k s k o l a (elementary school) and the l ä r o v e r k (secondary school), and although there are a great many other kinds, they are of minor importance. At the present time, the whole system is being examined, and reforms - similar to those recently brought about in Britain - may be expected.

The ordinary State Secondary School in Sweden is, as mentioned, called l ä r o v e r k, its first four or five forms being collectively termed r e a l s k o l a, and its three or four upper forms g y m n a s i u m. The normal school attendance for a boy or girl, provided that he or she wants to pass the s t u d e n t e x a m e n or matriculation, is shown in table 4.

The Swedish school year begins in the autumn, about September 1st, and the first term lasts until the middle of December. The second term begins early in January and continues until the beginning of June. Longer or shorter holidays are given during each term at Easter and Whitsun etc. and also for sport, these occasionally lasting for a whole week. - The duration of tuition each day varies from 4 - 5 periods of 45 minutes each in the lower classes to 6 - 7 periods in the higher ones (as for instance in the higher elementary schools and secondary schools).

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.

Elementary education became compulsory in 1842, but it was long before the ideal of a school for each community was actually realized. For many years, the period of compulsory school attendance remained fixed at 6 years plus 2 years continuation school, and in the course of time, this evolved into 7 full school years plus one year's continuation school. In some areas (33 school districts in all, representing one-fifth of the population) a compulsory period of 8 years was introduced as

from the school year 1947, and in some towns elementary schooling covers a period of 9 years. Children usually start at the age of 7, and for those attending the f o l k s k o l a, the age for leaving school is therefore 15 - 16 years. The 8th and 9th school years are chiefly devoted to vocational guidance.

But the whole system has recently been re-examined by the Royal School Commission which was appointed in 1946, and it has stated that elementary education should have a minimum duration of 9 years. For those who wish to go straight to work or to vocational training at the end of this period, the final 2 years of schooling ought to be particularly occupied with vocational education and guidance.

Swedish elementary schools are administered by municipal authorities, the government paying roughly three fifths of the total costs, including teachers' salaries.

The main subjects taught in the elementary school are Swedish, scripture, history, mathematics, natural sciences, geography, domestic work and handicraft. Gymnastics and sports are prominent on the curriculum. Instruction in English is given in many elementary schools, and as soon as teachers are available the subject will be made obligatory from the 5th school year. Hitherto more than 2,000 elementary school teachers have voluntarily taken a special examination qualifying them to teach English.

There has been steady progress as regards working methods in the elementary school. Great stress is laid on the necessity of encouraging the young to pursue their own interests and on modern pedagogic methods in general.

Much has been done to provide the elementary schools with modern equipment, such as projectors, films, radios, and modern maps and pictures. There is a thirty minute broadcast daily for schools, comprising excellent lectures, plays and foreign language exercises, and this is frequently listened to. All school material, including books, is free, and a free midday meal is often provided.

There is a pronounced tendency towards the increased geographical centralization of upper grades of the elementary schools. As a result it has become necessary to provide for the transportation of school children from far off districts. Thus

school buses are now available free of charge in rural areas. For the school year 1947 - 48 the sum of 8,557,000 Swedish crowns was set aside for this purpose and 23,877,000 crowns for board and lodging for elementary school children. The government is encouraging further centralization, since it will enable the country to improve the general standards. Indeed there is under discussion a plan envisaging complete centralization where necessary, the estimated annual expenditure on school buses or board and lodging being 20 million crowns.

Young people who wish to pass on to secondary schools may do so from the fourth or the sixth class of the elementary school (see next chapter). Virtually all Swedish children pass through the four lower classes, and during the 1944 spring term, the total attendance was about 326,000. There are also some private preparatory schools, but the total attendance during the same period was only about 2,000. It may be mentioned here that the population of Sweden on December 31st 1948 was approximately 6,900,000. Thus, if the figures mentioned in this paper are multiplied by six, it is easy to make comparisons with conditions in the United Kingdom.

The elementary school teachers' organizations are keenly interested in pedagogic questions and run several large reviews containing reports from many different countries on current problems and achievements in this field.

Nursery and Play Schools.

There are but few nursery and infant schools for children not older than six. A total of about 20,000 youngsters is provided for in this respect. Six special training colleges for nursery school teachers produce some 175 teachers yearly. A Royal Committee is now working on this question, and further schools for children who have not reached school age may be opened soon, though it is unlikely that compulsory attendance will be proposed. In Sweden the question as to whether schools should be opened for children under six is widely regarded as a social rather than an educational problem. Nursery and infant schools are, of course, necessary when parents cannot for various reasons see to

their children themselves. Since at present the number of young mothers employed in commercial or industrial life or occupied with studies is gradually increasing, schools of this kind are even more necessary.

SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

History and Organization.

The state secondary school system was organized by King Gustavus Adolphus and his daughter, Queen Christina, in the early 17th century, and thus many schools are now celebrating their tercentenary. Since the time of Gustavus Adolphus, educational tradition in Sweden has been dominated by two general principles: firstly, strong state leadership and a pronounced tendency toward uniformity; and secondly, the recognition of education as an important factor in social development and, as such, clearly a state responsibility. The old State Secondary School - the three or four upper forms of which have collectively been termed g y m n a s i u m ever since the time of Gustavus Adolphus - has been largely instrumental in creating the remarkable social unity of the country. The school reform plan which is now under discussion will probably open the g y m n a s i u m to more students who at the present time do not have the economic means.

Of the total number of children in one age-group, 29 per cent are now transferring to secondary schools of one type or another on reaching the 4th or 6th elementary school class. In Stockholm the proportion is about 40 per cent: in certain other places it is 60 per cent or even more.

It is possible to transfer to the lower secondary school either from the fourth or from the sixth class of the elementary school. Children who enter the r e a l s k o l a according to the first alternative take a five-year course before they can pass the final examination of the r e a l s k o l a, the r e a l e x a m e n or Lower Certificate, whereas children who enter the r e a l s k o l a in accordance with the latter alternative take a four-year course to pass the r e a l e x a m e n. It is possible - and customary - to transfer to the upper

Secondary school from the fourth form of the five year r e a l - s k o l a. In this case the upper secondary school course is four years. Boys and girls who take the course of the four-year r e a l s k o l a either pass their Lower Certificate examination before transferring to the upper secondary school, which in this case will take three years, or transfer from the third form to the four-year upper secondary school. The four-year and the three-year upper secondary school both lead up to the same final examination, the s t u d e n t e x a m e n or matriculation. The projected school reform will probably put an end to this system of "the double transfer", and at the same time amalgamate the elementary and secondary schools.

The main difference between the upper classes of the elementary school and the lower forms of the secondary school, which are parallel, is that in the latter emphasis is laid more on foreign languages and mathematics. All secondary school teachers are university graduates and specialists in their particular subjects, whereas elementary school techers receive their training in seminaries and function as teachers in all subjects, expect in the towns and cities, where special teachers are provided for arts and crafts.

In many towns there are special seven-year girls' secondary schools normally run by the local authorities and subsidized by the government. Girls enter this type of school after leaving the fourth or sixth class of the elementary school (cf page 17). The theoretical education is about the same as in the lower secondary school but with some stress on modern languages. The girls also receive practical training in domestic work, sewing, etc.

Curricula and Methods.

The curriculum of the lower secondary school comprises such subjects as Swedish language and literature, history, scripture, mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, geography and modern languages, sports and physical training, music and drawing.

The upper secondary school has two lines: the classical main/

- and the modern and scientific. Three compulsory subjects are common to both: scripture, history, and Swedish. Other subjects, such as mathematics and modern languages are studied in both lines, but the classical makes Latin and French compulsory, and the modern mathematics and English.

The first foreign language in the secondary school is English, this being taught from the first form (i.e. the 5th school year, age 11 years) onwards. German is taught from the 3rd form; French is obligatory in the two upper grades only for those who intend to continue their studies in the gymnasium. Language studies in Swedish secondary schools extend over a long period, the English course usually lasting 8 years, the German 6 and the French 5 years. It constitutes, in point of fact, a special educational problem in this country. All studies at schools of university standard are, to a large extent, based on textbooks in English, German or French. Consequently no student can matriculate without having studied these three languages for some time. Furthermore the student must, of course, have a fairly good command of his mother tongue, as well as some knowledge of Danish and Norwegian; and, should he choose the classical side of the gymnasium - at present attended by roughly one third of all students - he must also take a four-year course in Latin and can, moreover, choose a voluntary two-year course in Greek. In some gymnasia it is possible to discontinue the study of classical languages during the two last years, and to take instead either Spanish, Italian or Russian. In others the entire period of languages studies is devoted to modern languages. Thus a Swedish gymnasium student by the time he leaves school, has been taught three - and sometimes four - modern foreign languages, besides the familiar Scandinavian ones. Clearly, then, attending a gymnasium involves a good deal of hard intellectual work. As regards general knowledge and general education, considerable time must be devoted to a study of Scandinavian culture in the wider sense of the term. Such subjects as history, geography, etc., therefore embrace two courses, one being exclusively Scandinavian and the other general. Hence the curriculum of a Swedish - or for that matter a Danish or Norwegian - secondary

school must inevitably be more comprehensive, more detailed, than that of the corresponding school in Britain, France or the United States.

Each student in the upper forms of the secondary schools must in addition to the five compulsory subjects study one group of two or three subjects out of 18 possible groups. Besides this he may choose one extra single subject. The normal curriculum thus comprises from 7 to 9 subjects, excluding physical training, music and drawing.

Secondary school curricula and methods are, on the whole, of at traditional and markedly academic character, with much cramming and a perpetual flow of written work. New methods are, however, slowly gaining ground, and there is a marked tendency towards the encouragement of individual study. University tutors and secondary school teachers are cooperating in a most effective manner; those who teach one subject or group of allied subjects have formed societies with the object of following the development of such subjects and suggesting the incorporation in school curricula of the results of recent research work. These societies give refresher courses for teachers, publish useful text-books and pamphlets, and discuss current pedagogical questions at annual conferences. It would be no exaggeration to describe them as a primary instrument of progress in the field of secondary school educational methods.

Costs and enrolment.

Recently all fees to the state have been abolished in the secondary schools but not yet the fees to the schools. Text-books and material are not yet free, but will be so when the school program is realized. A free noon meal is provided for those who reside some distance from school. A new grant system was introduced in 1946, under which students whose studies involve boarding out are entitled to a basic grant of 500 Swedish crowns per school year, and a supplementary grant of 540 Swedish crowns per school year subject to a means test. For the year 1948 - 49 the relevant appropriation is estimated at 8,000,000 Swedish crowns. The grants of 500 crowns are designed to compensate

Parents not residing in the vicinity of State secondary schools for the added expense of educating their children.

The number of secondary schools is mounting steadily, and in 1948 - 49 the figures were as follows:

	Number of schools	Number of pupils
State secondary schools	209	75,096
Municipal secondary schools	14	
Municipal girl's secondary schools	47	16,311
Vocational training municipal secondary schools	18	7,793
Private secondary schools	29	8,543

To illustrate the increase in the number of secondary schools it may be pointed out that, in 1927, there were only 40 State schools with gymnasia - in this country called H ö g r e A l l m ä n n a L ä r o v e r k - whereas today there are 67. The average attendance at these schools is about 680, including students between the ages of 11 to 19, divided into 7 or 8 forms. In the spring of 1948, 9,600 of these students passed the Lower Certificate examination (r e a l e x a m e n) and about 4,000 the Matriculation examination (s t u d e n t e x a m e n).

Major Current Problems and School Reform.

Each branch of education has its own peculiar problems - and these are far too complex even to outline in this brief survey. There are problems of selection, differentiation and guidance, of affording rural children the same opportunities as those raised in the towns, of coordinating general and special education to the best possible advantage - all these and many others exist on much the same scale throughout Western Europe today.

At the moment the Swedish educational authorities have to contend with one special problem. In 1933 about 85,000 babies were born in Sweden. Since then the number of children in each age-group has increased; in 1942 it amounted to 114,000, and in 1945 and 1946 more than 134,000. In the school year 1945 - 46 the number of children in the eight lowest grades of Swedish schools aggregated 674,000. If the present birth-rate continues schools will have to accommodate, in about 10 years' time, more

than 1,000,000 children in these eight grades. In 1940 the government cut expenditures by engaging fewer teachers, and in 1940-41 practically no candidates were admitted to the training colleges, though a few were accepted later. Emergency training is now necessary and in 1946 no fewer than 1,727 candidates (normal pre-war figure: 400) entered these colleges. Between 1950 and 1970 teachers must be provided for age groups each numbering about 50,000 more persons than the age groups from which the teachers themselves were recruited. And not only teachers, of course, but men and women of all professions. During this period the distribution of population according to age will be most unusual: an abnormally large proportion will consist of persons under 20 or over 60, and a correspondingly small proportion of persons between those ages.

In 1940 a committee of experts presided over by the Minister of Education, was appointed with the task of conducting an exhaustive investigation into education in Swedish schools and of proposing desirable reforms. This committee has now completed its work, the results of which have been published in a series of Yellow Books. These reports include a survey of the Swedish educational system in its entirety and contain a wealth of in ormation for anyone desirous of studying Swedish educational problems today. In 1946 a body was appointed - The Royal School Commission -, on which each of the five parliamentary parties is represented. Presided over by the Minister of Education, it was charged with the task of framing definite proposals and submitting them to the R i k s d a g. This commission presented a report in the summer of 1948. A Royal proposal based on this report was submitted to Parliament this year, and the discussions there about the new school reform are still going on. Thus Sweden is about to embark on a new era of school reform.

It would be no exaggeration to say that the Swedish educational system, from the primary school to the university, is in a period of transition, and that the coming years will bring many important changes.

A point of the programme has been that the reforms generally should not be finally accepted before being put into practice. The Björkhagen School in Stockholm is an experimental school trying out these reforms.

A great deal of research work has been carried out in recent years. One example may be mentioned. In conjunction with the investigations of the committees mentioned above and at the government's request, original research work in the following fields has been carried out: Child development; the organization of the curriculum; problems of selection and differentiation, of orientation and guidance; methods of teaching languages and mathematics; teachers' experience. The essential aim of this research is to pave the way for a system that all Swedish educators and parents have long awaited: true child-centred education in a unified system of schools, affording each young boy and girl, irrespective of social standing and domicile, equal opportunities to develop his or her innate capabilities and talents.

THE UNIVERSITIES.

Sweden has only four universities, but the American reader especially should bear in mind that they offer essentially graduate work, beginning at a stage corresponding to the junior or senior college year in the United States. Two of these institutions - U p p s a l a (founded 1477) and L u n d (founded 1668) - are totally state supported and complete universities in the European sense, i.e. with faculties in theology, law, medicine, and philosophy (arts and natural sciences). At present, S t o c k h o l m U n i v e r s i t y has faculties in law, the arts and natural sciences. The C a r o l i n e M e d i c a l I n s t i t u t e, is an institution for medical training and research work and has full university rank in medicine and includes a large, modern hospital, Stockholm, furthermore, has a number of graduate schools in special fields, including those of tecknology (The Royal Institute of Technology), forestry (The Institute of Forestry), commerce (The University College of Commerce in Stockholm), dentistry (State Dental College), veterinary (The Roayl Veterinary College, science (The Royal Swedish Academy of Science), the arts (The Roayl Academy Art School), music (The Royal Music Academy), pharmacy (The Royal Pharmaceutical Institute), social science (The Stockholm School of Social Work and Public Administration) and welfare and so forth.

The G o t h e n b u r g U n i v e r s i t y curricula comprise the arts and natural sciences, and a recently founded faculty in medicine. The city is also the seat of institutions of university standard for social, economic and technical studies, notably the C h a l m e r s I n s t i t u t e o f T e c h n o l o g y, the second complete technical school in Sweden.

There is also a Dentistry high school in M a l m ö and an agricultural in U l t u n a.

University studies in Sweden, at least in Uppsala and Lund, have sometimes been considered antiquated and steeped in traditionalism, but those two institutions have on the other hand, been compared by foreign observers with Oxford and Cambridge as distinguished seats of education and culture. Admittedly they need to be modernized and a reform is now in preparation. In 1945 the students in the universities and other graduate schools numbered 14,000, of whom 3,250 were women. Since the last two years in the secondary school are considered equivalent to the junior college course of the freshman and sophomore college years in the United States, the number of students in school of higher education in the American sense, is considerably greater than indicated by the above figure.

The three so-called s o c i a l i n s t i t u t e s, which broadly speaking are of university standard, train personnel for the state and municipal social welfare services and for similar appointments with private firms. The training course covers about two and a half years.

Since the war there has been a substantial increase in the volume of state grants to the universities, and a number of institutes have been reorganized. Royal committees have published several reports containing far-reaching proposals, the R i k s - d a g adopting many of these in June 1947. They are designed, among other things, to facilitate research work in all fields; and they provide for some 25 new chairs in various subjects, a great number of assistant professorships and lectureships, more than 200 new scholarships for advanced scientific studies, and substantial grants for the publication of doctors' theses.

A proposal to bring about more equal opportunities for academic education was brought forward by a special Royal Committee

in 1948. It recommended expanding support to students of higher education through increased state grants for scholarships and interest-free loans and rebates for books and travel expenses to and from school.

CORRESPONDENCE INSTITUTES AND ADULT EDUCATION.

Sweden seems an immense country, if one compares its size with its population. Schools and vocational training are not immediately available to people living in far-off places. A means to studies and training for these people is the correspondence schools or institutes. These offer all sorts of courses - technical, commercial, social, general-educational, etc., at all stages. It is possible through correspondence to take continuous and comprehensive courses leading up to the same examinations as, for example, those held at the lower or upper secondary school, technical or commercial secondary school. On the other hand a student may also take a short course in a special subject of almost any kind, general or vocational. An estimated 400,000 persons are at present studying in these correspondence schools.

In many countries adult education has been a philanthropic project, promoted for the people. In Scandinavia it has been developed by the people as well - through their own organizations. These people´s organizations were founded either to promote some particular cause or to defend some particular interest.

Among the educational associations founded by these organizations may be mentioned those founded by the labour movement (ABF or the Workers´ Educational Association), the farmers´ political federations and the Young Farmers´ League, the white-collar employees, the Swedish Cooperative Union and Wholesale Society, the temperance movement, the State Church and the Swedish Missionary Society. Many of these associations maintain f o l k h ö g s k o l o r (people´s high schools) of their own. Other people´s high schools are maintained by local authorities such as county councils. The f o l k h ö g s k o l a is characteristic of Scandinavia. Originally it was founded to enable young people in rural districts to come together and learn something about the society they lived in, its history, organizations, literature

and so forth. Today the pupils at these schools come as much from towns and industrial districts as from rural areas. The curriculum has been widened so as to embrace such subjects as natural science, mathematics and languages. The usual age for attending a school of this kind is 18 - 20 years or over. For many young people the f o l k h ö g s k o l a is a means to pass on to more advanced vocational training. There are at present some 70 people's high schools subsidized by the state.

Other important features in adult education are the lectures, series of lectures and study circles arranged by the various educational associations. Some figures may be given to illustrate the scope of these activities.

In 1945, some 11,000 lectures were arranged by local boards and by the Workers' Educational Association. In the same year, 17,053 study circles were arranged by the W.E.A., the Young Farmers' League, the International Order of Good Templars, the military authorities, the university extension, women's institutes and other organizations. The Swedish Broadcasting Corporation arranges a number of courses based on correspondence-cum-oral lessons devised specially for listeners, courses in English being the most popular of these.

The public library system is also well developed. In 1944 there were, 1.424 municipal lending libraries with a total of nearly five million books and a total of between ten and eleven million loans. The number of study-circle libraries in 1944 - 45 amounted to 5,000 with a total of over two million books. Lectures, study circles and libraries are subsidized by the state, municipal authorities and county councils, though members of study circles pay most of the expenses themselves.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION.

Sweden possesses a whole system of vocational training schools, and this system, broadly speaking, is linked up to the ordinary schools for general education, i.e. the elementary school and the lower and upper secondary schools. Those institutions which require matriculation as a condition for entry - universities, high schools and professional training colleges - are dealt with in a special section; the aim here is merely to

present a synopsis of other vocational schools.

T h e m u n i c i p a l t r a d e s c h o o l s - at present numbering about 300, spread throughout the country - provide training for industry, commerce and domestic work, and accept both young people and adults. They arrange evening courses with a few hours' of class generally twice a week but also full time courses.

The most important of these full-time courses are run by w o r k s h o p s c h o o l s for industry - usually two-year but also three or four-year courses respectively, and by d o m e s t i c and h o u s e w i f e r y s c h o o l s, whose courses usually last between six months and one year, or consist of one-year commercial courses. As a general rule the pupils in each of these courses have no general education above elementary school.

Evening courses in technical subjects are available for apprentice workers. There are general or comprehensive courses for beginners and more specific courses for advanced students. To be eligible for admission, applicants must, as a rule, be employed in one of the appropriate trades. Other evening courses provide training for commercial work, domestic work, etc.

At some of the municipal trade schools, moreover, there are special courses for nursemaids, laundresses, seamen, etc.

Training for industry and handicraft is also provided by the c e n t r a l w o r k s h o p s c h o o l s (18 in number) - boarding-schools designed mainly to accommodate young people from rural districts - and by a number of private state subsidized schools of roughly the same type as the municipal trade schools.

In the schools concerned with f a r m i n g and f a r m m a n a g e m e n t young people from rural districts receive both theoretical and practical training. The usual course at these schools runs for 5 months in the winter, and pupils must have some practical knowledge of farm work before they are admitted. Altogether there are some 50 farming schools for young men and 40 schools dealing specifically with farm management for young women. More comprehensive training in agricultural work may be obtained at the schools of agriculture, numbering eight, which provide either one-year or two-year courses. In common with many of the farm schools, the schools of agriculture also

arrange special courses for cattlemen, tractor-drivers, motor-mechanics, and itinerant inspectors who work under the milk recording societies.

The d a i r y s c h o o l s (numbering 4, with one-year courses), s c h o o l s o f m a r k e t g a r d e n i n g (5, with two-year courses), and s c h o o l s o f f o r e s t r y (5, with one-year courses) train overseers, foremen, etc. for work in their respective fields.

In addition to these, there are other schools of the same type providing higher and more specialized training. The Alnarp Institute for the study of agriculture, dairy-farming and market gardening, for instance, provides research and training facilities comparable with those of Reading University in Great Britain.

Eligible pupils may enter any of the above-named schools on completing their elementary school education. Young people who have passed the Lower Certificate examination, or who possess corresponding qualifications, may choose to enter one of the following schools.

Engineers (apart from civil-engineers) are trained at the t e c h n i c a l s e c o n d a r y s c h o o l s (15 in number), which are divided into two groups: schools with two-year courses mainly devoted to professional training, and gymnasia with three-year courses comprising both professional and general subjects. There are also a few special schools for technical training, for instance the Textile Institutes, the School of Mines and the School of Art.

Correspondents, secretaries and other qualified office workers are trained in a two-year course at the c o m m e r c i a l s e c o n d a r y s c h o o l s (12 in number). Similar training is also given by some of the larger private commercial institutes, which are state-subsidized.

A considerable amount of vocational guidance and training is arranged within the framework of public institutions such as the postal and telegraphic services, the railway and the armed forces.

In 1942 a special state secondary school, called F ö r s v a r e t s L ä r o v e r k was opened at Uppsala exclusively

for regular personnel from the armed forces. Evolving from similar schools which existed prior to 1942, it now has about 800 students - all men from the ranks. It provides general education, including foreign languages, together with a number of courses in military subjects. The students are entitled to sit for the Lower Certificate examination or Matriculation.

Merchant naval officers (ship's masters, engineers and mates) pass through one of the five s c h o o l s o f n a v i g a t i o n, whose training course comprises several years service at sea, and theoretical training at school - two terms for mates and engineers, and four terms for ship's masters and chief engineers.

Nurses and midwives receive their training at the s c h o o l s o f n u r s i n g (numbering 25) and m i d w i f e r y i n s t i t u t i o n s (2). The period of training for nurses is usually between 3 and 3 1/2 years; that for midwifes being 3 1/2 years for a nurse and midwifery certificate, and 2 years for a midwifery certificate.

For designers and handicraftsmen there is one school in Stockholm and one in Gothenburg.

Finally, advanced training in the domestic field can be gained either through special courses for matrons of boarding schools and qualified housekeepers, or at the training colleges for teachers of cookery and farm management.

Teachers (apart from those at secondary schools, people's high schools and other institutions for advanced education) receive their training in training colleges. The training colleges for elementary school teachers (numbering 19) have a four-year course for pupils of Lower Certificate standard and a two-year course for matriculated students.

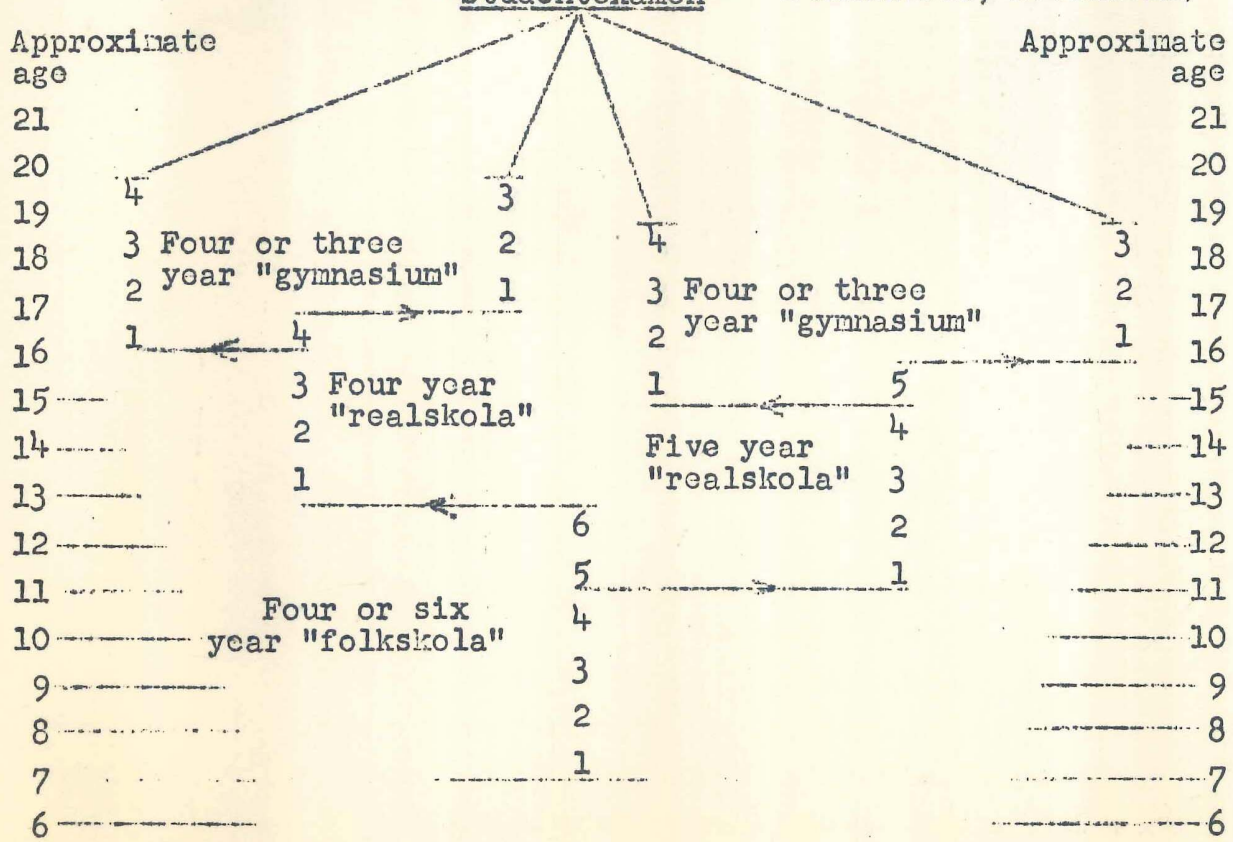
Most of the other training colleges - those for play and nursery school teachers, and for teachers of cooking and home economics, farm management, handicraft and weaving - run two-year courses based on the Lower Certificate examination. Teachers specializing in child welfare receive three years' training, and drawing-masters about four years. Gymnastic instructors and music teachers attend special schools which furnish the equivalent of university education.

Social Welfare and parish workers are also trained at the l a y w o r k e r s i n s t i t u t i o n s, and at a number of training institutes affiliated with certain organizations and movements.

Most of the vocational institutions named above provide free training, though some of the schools charge small fees, and a few of them more substantial ones. At nearly all schools, students without means or with only limited means can secure state scholarships which facilitate their studies considerably. All the institutions mentioned in this section are either state controlled or both state controlled and state subsidized. There are, of course, a number of private schools for vocational training, but they constitute an educational factor of minor importance in comparison with the work of institutions under state control.

LADDER CHART OF SWEDISH ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL SYSTEMS.

(From the book "Studier i USA" published by the Swedish-American Foundation, Stockholm)



THE SWEDISH INSTITUTE
STOCKHOLM 3

Information Service

The Stockholm Primary School Board.

The Stockholm Primary School Board consists of fifteen members and is presided by the Civic Director (Borgarråd) for the Education Department of the City of Stockholm.

Said Board is the authoritative organ for directing the Stockholm primary schools. It has further to decide in matters concerning school buildings used for girls´schools, for intermediate schools, and for state highschools ("läroverk"). For intermediate schools and girls´schools, the Board also takes care of the economic administration. In questions of education however, highschools are directly subject to the Royal Board of Education whereas girls´schools and intermediate schools are governed by their own boards.

Trade schools are subject to a special board, i.e. the Board of Apprentice and Trade Schools, chairman being the Civic Director for the Education Department.

Certain matters are handled by special committees established by the Board. Thus, the Economy Committee decides in certain questions concerning wages, leaves of absence, school meals, clothing for school children, purchases, and in certain other economic questions. The School Building Committee decides in questions concerning the erection of new buildings and the upkeep of those existing. The Education and Certificate Committees handle certain educational matters.

The administrative organization of the Board is led by the Chief Inspector (Superintendent) who together with two further inspectors and certain other officials as e.g. departmental inspectors and consultants leads and controls the pedagogical activity at the Stockholm primary schools.

Medical care at the schools is supervised by a chief medical officer; there is also a special superintendent for mental hygiene. A chief dental officer leads the dental clinics at the schools.

The business manager heads the department of economy which comprises, among others, departments for wages, puchases, school meals, clothing for school children, and a building department under the immediate guidance of a building commissioner.

It must however be observed that the Board receives State contributions for most of its activities, and as a consequence all matters of greater importance have to be submitted to State authorities, such as e.g. all the questions regarding the curricula.

As to the organisation of the Stockholm schools, cp. the special report given below, "Public Education in Stockholm".

At present the most difficult problem for the Board as well as for the various school boards all over the country is to procure sufficient premises for the growing numbers of children. As an illustration it may be named that the number of children born at Stockholm was in 1934 somewhat over 5.000 but in 1944 nearly 15.000. It has been calculated that the number of primary school classes which is 1.407 in 1948 will rise to about 2.800 in 1956. To begin with the problem has to be solved temporarily - by renting suitable premises originally not intended for school purposes and repairing older school buildings that were to be pulled down. The great demand of new buildings cannot be satisfied at present because of restrictions in the building field.

Already some years ago Government investigations have been started with the aim of preparing a thorough school reform. In accordance with directions given by the investigation committee the Board is running certain experiments. Thus the singing classes for children with special singing talent are from class V up divided into two lines, one following the general schedule of primary schools, the other, i.e. the language line, being adapted to the schedule of the five-year lower secondary schools and comprising also a class IX which is terminated, since spring 1946, by the lower secondary school examination ("realexamen"). Another experiment has been carried on since 1947, consisting in a differentiation of primary school instruction in such a manner that in some classes English lessons are begun in class V so that this subject as well as other subjects may be studied in conformity with the schedule of lower secondary schools up to class IX, whereas the instruction given to other classes is aimed at directly preparing the pupils for future instruction in practical professions. Besides these attempts of re-organization certain experiments are being carried on in the field of methodology.

Public Education in Stockholm.

Primary Schools

Organization

The primary school in Stockholm is an eight-year school, compulsory for all those children in the age of 7-15 years who don't get full-time education in corresponding schools.

Classes I-II form the preparatory school, the training being performed by female preparatory school teachers. Classes III-VIII form the regular primary school and training is supplied by male and female primary-school teachers and by departmental teachers for drawing, singing, gymnastics, handicraft for boys, needlework and domestic science.

Boys and girls are instructed together in classes I-IV but are, as a rule, separated in classes V-VIII.

There are aid classes (hjälpklasser) for mentally retarded children. For psychopathic children observation classes are organised. Children having considerable difficulties in reading and writing, so-called "word-blind" children, are referred, for longer or shorter periods, to special reading classes. Children with considerably impaired hearing are trained in defective-hearing classes with special training supplied in labiology. Children suffering from tuberculosis in a non contagious state are assembled in open-air classes, Two hours of complete rest being part of the daily schedule. In sanatorium schools children with acute tuberculosis are being cared for and there are schools at childrens' homes and children colonies for children demanding special care on account of physical weakness or for some other reasons.

For children having special singing talent singing classes are provided. See above.

Instruction.

Handicraft (sloyd) is, for all classes, a compulsery subject. In classes I-III both boys and girls have needlework comprising sewing, knitting and darning. In classes IV-VIII girls have needlework, in class VIII called "sewing and care of clothes". Boys' handicraft in classes IV-VIII is woodwork and metalwork - to a lesser extent pasteboardwork and bookbinding - in class VIII called "workshop training".

Domestic science is included as a subject of the curriculum of the girls in classes VII and VIII. In the latter class the girls are also trained in health-care, domestic medical care and care of children.

In class VIII "domestic science" is optionable for boys and "workshop training" optionable for girls.

The entire education in class VIII is concentrated upon preparing the pupils for wage-earning on account of which great stress is laid upon professional orientation and practical work.

Pupils. Teachers.

The Stockholm primary schools list, at present, 35.000 children distributed on 1.407 classes, of which 597 preparatory school classes and 810 regular primary school classes. There are 107 special classes, namely, 54 aid classes, 11 observation classes, 30 reading classes, 5 open air classes and 7 defective-hearing classes. The average number of children per class is for normal-classes I-II 24 children, for normal-classes III-VIII 29 and for special classes 12.5. As the system of classteachers is applied, the number of preparatory school teachers and primary school teachers is corresponding to the number of classes in primary and preparatory school. In addition there are 30 headmasters of the 30 headmaster districts into which the Stockholm primary schools are divided and one headmaster for the specialclasses. The number of full-time departmental teachers is 250.

Welfare.

Since the autumn term of 1946 free school meals are available.

All pupils are granted free medical inspection and, to a limited extent, free medical attendance and free dental care.

Poor children in primary schools are also provided with clothes.

Since the spring term of 1946 all pupils have free textbooks. Stationery material as exercise-books, pencils etc. is also free in primary schools.

One fifth of the pupils of the primary schools may during the summer visit holiday camps, financed chiefly by the respective parishes and by the City of Stockholm.

In afternoons and evenings school premises are made available to young people in ages between 14 and 18 as well as to grown-ups for leisure-time activities organized by the Primary School Board. Gymnastics and athletic sports, folk-dancing etc., woodworking and modelplane construction, sewing and care of clothes, music, domestic care and cooking, care of children and nursing, scouting and typing

attract the greatest number of participants. The assembly rooms and other premises are also at the disposal of club activity; thus the schools may be characterized as a kind of community centers.

Buildings.

The primary schools of Stockholm are accommodated in about 50 school buildings of different sizes, the largest comprising 80 classrooms besides special rooms.

The school-buildings erected since the middle of the thirties are differentiated according to the functions of the different premises. A central building of 3-4 stories comprises administration premises, special rooms for science, drawing, woodwork, needlework etc., premises for libraries, medical inspection, dental care etc. and one assembly room. Attached to the central building there is a wing of 2-3 stories comprising primary school classrooms and another wing of 2 stories comprising preparatory school classrooms, each wing having a separate playground. In addition there is a detached gymnasium house, also including bath facilities.

The schools built recently have as a rule the central building designed as a large hall and comprise each c:a 40 classrooms and necessary special rooms. They also comprise a branch department of the Stockholm Public Library and in certain cases club-rooms and similar premises that make them suitable as community centers in the new suburb communities in which they are situated.

As a rule 2 % of the building costs are spent for decorative purposes.

Secondary Schools

Organization

See the survey chart.

After having passed class IV 30 % of the primary school children in Stockholm move: are transferred to five-year lower secondary schools (realskola) or seven-year high schools for girls (flickskola), in which they receive higher education, mainly of theoretical character.

A further 20 % of the primary school children are, after having passed class VI transferred either to four-year lower secondary schools (intermediate schools) or to six-year high schools for girls, having the same educational objectives as the previously mentioned lower secondary schools and high schools for girls, or to four-year practical intermediate schools (commercial, technical or domestic).

Lower secondary schools and intermediate schools are finished by the lower secondary school examination (realexamen).

The lower secondary school constitutes the basis of higher secondary schools (gymnasium) that have two sides, the classical side (latinlinjen) and the modern side (reallinjen).

They are three-year schools for pupils transferred after the lower secondary school examination and four-year schools for pupils transferred directly from the second highest class of the lower secondary school. The final examination of the higher secondary schools is the matriculation examination (studentexamen). The white cap with blue and yellow cockade is the visible sign of a successfully passed matriculation examination.

Lower secondary school (realskola) and higher secondary school (gymnasium) together form a unit, called "läroverk".

At the Technical Secondary School (Tekniska läroverket) engineers are trained with the lower secondary school examination as a basis. To it a Technical Evening-School is connected.

The trade schools offer a multitude of training opportunities to pupils having passed the entire primary school.

Pupils. Teachers.

At present the number of pupils is

in high schools for girls	4.000
"intermediate schools	3.200
"lower secondary schools	6.400
and in higher secondary schools	3.000

The teachers of lower secondary and intermediate schools are called "adjunkt" and have, as a rule, passed the M.A. degree. The teachers of higher secondary schools are called "lektor" and have passed the Ph.D. degree.

The number of pupils at the Technical Secondary School is 700 and at the Technical Evening School 1.200.

The trade schools have - besides some thousand of grown-up students in eveningcourses - about 1.200 pupils with full-time instruction and 1.000 pupils with part-time instruction, as a rule in evenings.

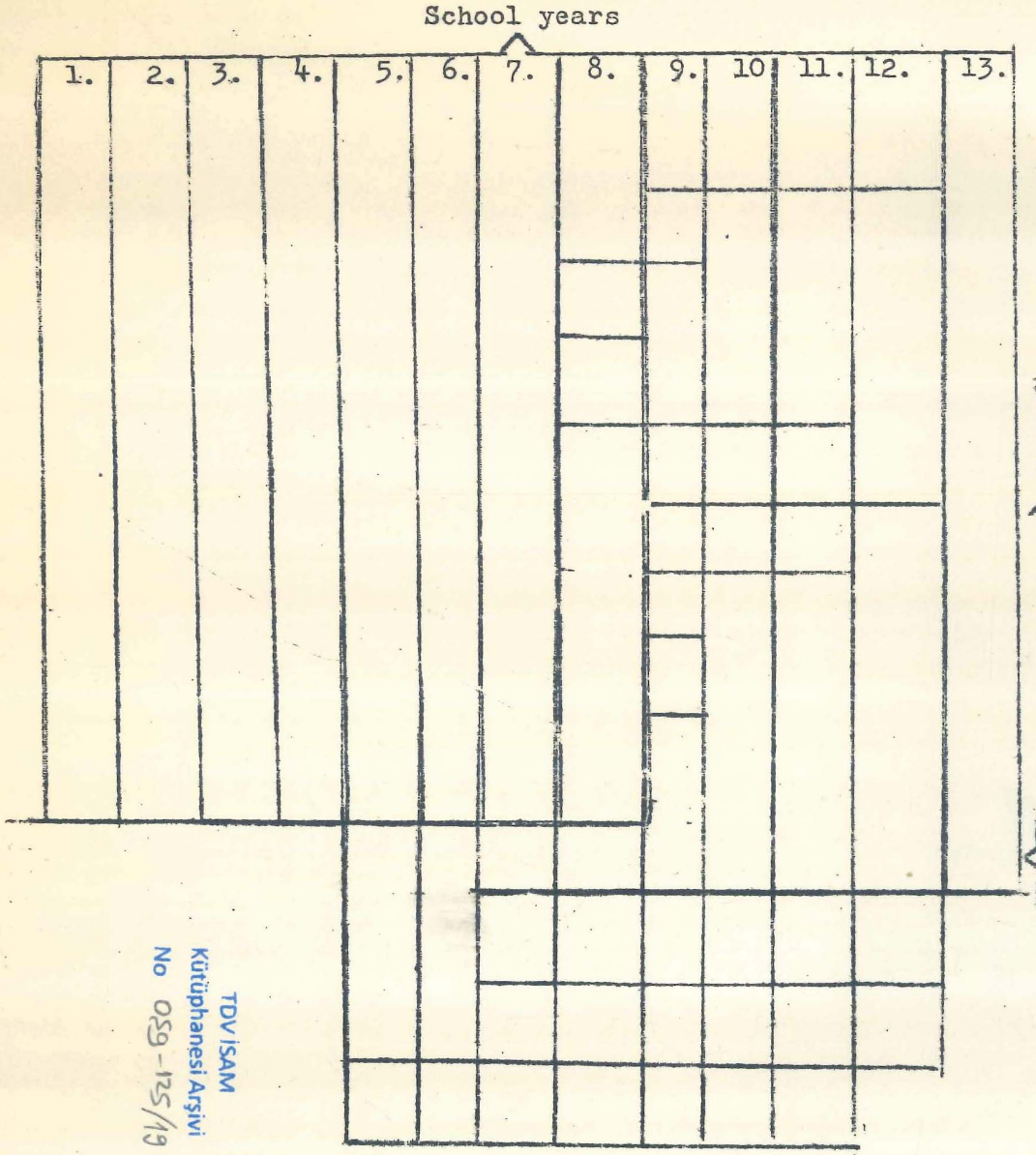
Welfare provisions of the secondary schools are mainly the same as those of the primary schools.

As to buildings, the same is applicable to secondary schools as to primary schools. Premises for natural science and technical subjects are, however, much more spacious in secondary schools.

Stockholm April 1948.

Survey Chart

THE SCHOOL ORGANIZATION OF STOCKHOLM.



Apprenticeship and trade courses of various kinds for trade, industry and domestic economy business assistants' schools

Compulsory continuation school
(for those hereto entitled)

Business assistants' schools
(The Stockholm Town Commercial Schools)

Workshop schools

Three-year commercial school (Stockholm Town Commercial Schools)

Correspondent's course

One-year course at the Intermediate School of Domestic Economy

Eight-year compulsory primary school

Practical intermediate school
Communal intermediate school
Four-year lower secondary school
} + 3-year higher secondary school

Six-year high school for girls

Five year lower secondary school + 3-year higher secondary school

Seven-year high school for girls

Schools along with wage-earning

Schools entirely absorbing pupils time

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Information Service

Vocational Guidance.

by Cedric Larson

One of the most important decisions that a young person can ever make is the choise of a career. This is especially true in those countries of the free world, such as the United States and Sweden, where any individual may choose his own occupation, and where the only ceiling on his progress is his own lack of energy, which may be limited by ill health, or some fault in planning. Vocational Guidance seeks to help a youngster work out his own plan for a career by understanding his aptitudes, his likes and dislikes, his physical fitness for certain occupations and other conditions which may influence his future. It has developed into quite a science in recent years.

The basic deifference in the vocational guidance system of the two countries is that in Sweden it is centralizid and largely under the control of the Stae, through two of the "department" which make up the Cabinet. They are the Ministries of Education and of Labor. In the United States vocational guidance is largely decentralized in character, and administered at local levels generally through the school system, particularly in high schools and colleges, or through training systems set up by employers.

Three professional organizations have influenced the development of guidance work in the United States - the National Vocational Guidance Association, the National Education Association and the American Vocational Association. The NVGA now reaches inte virtually every school through its national or local agencies, and it has had a potent voice in raising professional standards of vocational advisers.

The public school system, which annually enrolls nearly 35 million students, is the largest single vocational guidance agency in the United States. Nearly every state has some type of training for teachers to equip them for guidance activities. There is in both countries a dearth of trained workers. However, 37 states in 1950 reported that their principal state t e a c h e r training institutions were providing some pre-service training for teachers who would be called upon to do guidance work. Many states now require at least one professional guidance course in the certification requirements for all teachers. Twenty-seven of the 48 states reported well-established "inservice training" for guidance

workers, also that 317 separate in-service training meetings or conferences reached 3.927 individuals d u r i n g 1950.

Active professional membership of NVGA in the spring of 1951 was reported at 5.456, a gain of 5.5 per cent. That membership is comprised chiefly of persons devoting full time to vocational guidance activities in all fields. New York State has over 800 of the national membership. Another feature of the American system is the limited role of the Federal Government. Education is considered essentially a state function. Federal prerogatives extend only to leadership and coordination. While large sums of Federal funds are allocated to state and local vocational guidance programs, the Office of Education, now in the Federal Security Agency, requires only that state activities conform to the laws on vocational education.

In the U.S. Office of Education the Occupational Information and Guidance Service, headed by Dr. Harry A. Jager, is manned by a few experts and is the Federal nucleus of system assisting state education departments and kindred activities. It assures that certain mimimum st are observed. The U.S. Employment Service of the Labor Department works in three directions. It has conducted remarkable studies in job analysis, culminating in the D i c t i o n a r y o f O c c u p a- t i o n a l T i t l e s (D.O.T.) in two volumes, listing, codifying and defining 40.000 occupations - recently revised - which is an indispensable handbook for every vocational counsellor. It has made equally important studies of worker analysis, and has established counselling activities as regular procedures in its offices. Some of its activities have had the assistance of private grants.

The U.S. Employment Service has offered job counselling as part of its regular program since 1933, although halted during the war. During 1945 - 1947 the Service gave counsel to 1.880.425 applicants, of whom 1.300.000 were ex-service men. Job counselling service is given in each of the 1.800 offices. Local managements is left to the states. It is estimated that this service reaches a hundred thousa persons a month, and a good share of them receive some vocational counselling.

The Veteran Administration set up to deal with the rehabilitation of the ex-service men, has an Advisement and Guidance Service responsi- ble for developing its counselling program. This Service works with the Training Facilities and Education and Traning Sections of the same agency to provide the supervision, counselling, education and training and vocational adjustment of ex-service men. Millions of veterans have had the benefits of the so-called "G.I. Education Bill" at a cost

of several million dollars of tax money. Under a special law every disabled veteran - there are about 1.750.000 veterans with service--connected disabilities - requiring vocation rehabilitation must take advantage of the counselling facilities provided by the agency. Other veterans may avail themselves of the facilities if they wish. At the peak of this counselling program in August 1947 more than a million veterans had availed themselves of the counselling services at some 700 n a t i o n a l l y distributed centers.

In the United States the vocational guidance counsellor meets with two main problems: guidance of the adult who consults him in an emergency and the school pupil at whatever level. In the former case the counsellor has to reconstruct his client's history as best he can, analyze his present status, and help him to arrive at a solution of his problems, with a down-to-earth view. That situation is common, for example, in the case of veterans, vocationally displaced persons and the physically handicapped. With school pupils or high school and college students, the counsellor usually has access to the comulative records kept throughout the school career.

The importance attached by industry to the techniques of vocational guidance is shown in the elaborate and expensive provisions for tests, interviewing and job and worker analysis in personnel offices of most large industrial organizations. It is universally recognized that the happiness and satisfaction of the worker on the job are important elements tending to increased producation. The personnel office in a typical industrial plant makes wide use of the data available at the schools and state employment office from which it draws its labor supply, to obtain accurate information so applicants receive jobs most suited to their abilities and personalities.

It now is almost a custom in American businees for members of the staff of personnel departments to be members of professional organizations of vocational guidance, such as NVGA, and there is a free exchange of guidance workers in schools, employment agencies and similar groups and the personnel offices of industry and commerce. In spite of those common interests, however, an important distinction exists between the interests of the vocational guidance services and the personnel departments in industry. The main interest of the personnel office is the success of the industrial concern. The object of the vocational counselling office is to preserve for the individual the rights of choice, adjustment and progress. The interests of the two groups are quite reconcilable, but the distinction remains important in our free society which fosters freedom and initiative.

In Sweden vocational guidance is centered largely in the Government. Sweden has progressed far along the so-called "middle-way", and has not had its social order disturbed by the disrupting influence of two major wars in one generation. Responsible to the Government Departments, although vested with considerable independent powers, are a number of agencies, boards and similar establishments. One of the most important is the Royal Labor Board, Kungl. Arbetsmarknadsstyrelsen, and it is the Vocational Guidance Bureau, Yrkesvägledningsbyrån.

One of the main functions of the Royal Labor Board is that of labor recruitment and placement. In that sense it functions like the U.S. Employment Service, and has offices throughout Sweden. It was believed most feasible to attach vocationel guidance structurally to the employment services, because they were provided with speical juvenile divisions. That viewpoint also was justified by other considerations. The parallel organization of vocation guidance and placement, it was held, in a direct and natural manner would permit the employment services to learn more about the most needed areas for study and training, and keep in step with occupational developments generally. Further, those two services together would ficilitate the use of vocational guidance in employment planning should that be necessary. Most important, the public employment services were given a powerful organization structure which could blanket the country effectively at all levels in a fully integrated system.

In each of the 25 provinces of Sweden t h e employment services have been grouped under a single body - the Provincial Employment Board - with the Royal Labor Board as the central institution. There is a main office in each province, with full-time branch and part-time local offices and agencies under its supervision. The number of field officers of the employment services of all types in the country is about 269, i n c l u d i n g 25 main offices, 178 branches and 66 local offices, with about 1.100 agents.

The proposal that vocationel guidance should be placed within the general system in the schools, as in the United Stated, was rejected also because those who dropped their education after grammar school at the age of 14 to 16 usually were not developed enough for their aptitudes to be judged with certainty.

In Sweden school attendance is compulsory between the ages of seven and fourteen. In some cities the age limit is higher. The basic grammar school, Folkskolan, in Sweden as in many European

countries acts as a sort of screen for secondary schools, technical schools and universities. About 700.000 children are of elementary age in Sweden, and while educational work in the grade schools is on a high plane- the literacy rate to all intents and purposes being 100 per cent - the number of students going on to the secondary and technical schools, Realskolan, Gymnasium and Högskolor, is a much more selected group, relatively speaking, than in the United States.

For that reason the Vocational Guidance Bureau in Sweden has been especially interested since the war in extending downward inte the grades as far as possible the vocational guidance process. Elementary s c h o o l teachers are instructed to stress the coming need to choose an occupation. Even in the middle grammar grades, when students must write an essay they are given a subject such as "My Future". It is the duty and responsibility of the teacher to give the class "p r e-p a r a t o r y guidance" throughout the curriculum. A discussion on some special problems of choice of vocation may take place during a class period.

Vocational guidance officers of the employment service give talks or lectures for the upper grades. Personal takls or interviews are arranged for students in the last two upper grades. The higher elementary grades in Sweden often have male teachers, and frequently they go on field trips to industrial plants and factories, spending the whole day there. The students also read and discuss attractive pamphlets published by the Vocational Guidance Bureau and slanted to the comprehension of juvenile readers.

It is not difficult to stress preparatory guidance at the elementary level on a national scale in Sweden, because all teachers are paid by the Government, and educational matters are under the authority of the Ministry of Education, with some local control. Hence instructions to stress preparatory guidance are observed.

Vocational Guidance in the secondary schools is more deliberate. The pupils are older and usually members of the upper strata, being generally 16 or 17 years old in the "middle schools", and 18 or 19, sometimes 20, in the upper secondary schools or j u n i o r colleges. The Vocational Guidance Bureau has published a wide variety of pamphlets and literature suited to needs and interests of the repidly maturing adolescent. These are made available in quanty, and the pupils and parents alike are expected to study them. In the upper secondary grades, all pupils must fill out a detailed questionnaire concerning the chose of an occupation. There are three levels of

questionnaires. When these are filled out, they are sent on to the advisers. Periodic talks are given to the classes on current employment trends and opportunities, and each student later is individually interviewed. A fair number know exactly what they are aiming at occupationally, and when it seems to accord with the individual's abilities, he is encouraged. If it is an obvious mal-selection, succeeding interviews try to steer the student into more practicable fields.

In Sweden guidance in the secondary level is of prime importance, because the next higher school which the student may attend is determined largely by his or her vocational choice at the secondary level. The idea stressed throughout these formative years is that guidance should be pupil-centered as much as possible and to let their inclinations govern their choices wherever possible. The use of aptitude, intelligence and personality tests, while available to the secondary student is not as widespread in Sweden as in the United States.

There now is being completed an Occupational Index, Yrkeskartotek, which will embrace some 600 occupational analyses for Sweden. It gives the type of work, number of esatblishments and workers in the different branches, employers' a n d workers' organizations, physical and psychological requirements, training, chances of promotion, economic conditions, the future of the trade, and all extant publications available about the trade. Material for the Index constantly is undergoing study and revision. It is acquired by interviews and meetings, study of trade publications and observation and analysis at working establishments. It is distributed not only to the employment and vocational guidance offices throughout the nation, but also to schools, libraries and other public institutions.

The Vocational Guidance Bureau also has had great success preparing annually in pamphlet form a wide varity of publications, which contain occupational information of all types on the various trades and professions. These pamphlets, designed for the young, are attractive products of the graphic arts, and profusely illustrated. They are provided free of charge to youths and parents alike.

Because the choice of trade and training is for many people an economic problem, summaries of scholarships, fellowships, loans and other allowances from national or local authorities, or other sources, are distributed. Prospectuses from about 250 specialized vocational training institutions are issued to local offices. Any youth of either sex of better than average ability, with drive, purpose and character, always can manage to get the desired schooling, because of readily available loan funds form G o v e r n m e n t and private sources. Those loans are repaid,

and the looses are negligible.

In Sweden as in Britain, the Government enjoys a radio monopoly, and the Vocational Guidance B u r e a u has definitely scheduled "radio hours" throughout the year, in which interesting educational talks are given, some of which pertain to vocational guidance. One very popular feature has been a "Radio Letter-Box" for questions relating to all types of vocational guidance matters, which anyone may send in, and which are answered via the microphone.

Throughout Sweden about 500 full and part-time officials now are engaged exclusively in juvenile vocational guidance and placement work. There also is a field organization with a staff of about 100 which has been built up for the special treatment of disabled and handicapped persons.

The duty of a typical local vocational guidance office in Sweden might be summarized as follows: 1. To make a young person conscious at an early age of the importance of choosing an occupation and of undertaking vocational training; 2. Explain what occupations and forms of training are available and the requirements and prospects in each case; 3. To help the youngster to determine clearly his own aptitudes, interests and needs occupationally; 4. Where a choise is obviously bad, to counsel against it and set forth alternatives; 5. After an occupational decision has been made, to help in a more precise formulation of plans and lay out a suitable course of study in cooperation with the teacher; 6. To aid the young person in a material sense by finding him a suitable on-the-job training opening, or establishing contact for him with a trade or professional school, or secure financial support in some form; 7. To maintain a satisfactory followup with the subject and supervise his progress until assured it is satisfactory.

About a hundred thousand youths a year receive varying degrees of fairly personal occupational guidance and counselling, and close to 70.000 of them are channeled inte technical jobs in industry, business or the professions or semi-skilled trades. That it is done with a minimum of "occupational floundering" and with maximum attention the the wishes of the students themselves is a remarkable feature of the Swedish system.

Even the girls who marry and become home-makers are given careful guidance and counselling, because the general labor shortage since the war encourges mothers of two or three children to take jobs. The Government, incidentally, provides high-type-day nurseries for children of working mothers at a very low fee.

An index of occupational mobility, shifting or worker dissatisfaction is the so-called "annual quite-rate" or "separation rate". Sweden apparently has the lowest rate, indicating the apparent success of counselling and guidance.

The Swedish of course do not claim that Utopia has been reached in vocational guidance, Here are some of the future developments they hope to incorporate in their system: 1. Better technical training for vocational guidance personnel, like that in the United States; 2- Create an employment research and forecast institute within the Vocational Guidance Bureau; 3. Increase the use of psychological and aptitude test with children generally; 4. Raise entrance requirements in many occupations so that more children will attend and complete secondary schools; 5. Integrate vocational guidance procedures unifomrly throughout elemenatry and high school for all students; 6 . Special attention and help for gifted children; 7. Gradually entrust more of the vocational guidance work to the educational system itself, provided there be constant collaboration with the Vocational Guidance Bureau and employment system; and 8. Continous research in vocational guidance methods and techniques.

From "The American Swedish Monthly", July 1951.

Schools for the Blind in Norway.

The first school for the blind in Norway was started in Oslo (Christiania) in 1861 by the "Society for the Blind", founded 1858 on the initiative of J. Johansen, manager at the State Hospital in Oslo.

During the first years of the existence of this school there was no compulsory school attandance for blind children. Therefor only a small part of the blind in this country came to a school to get instruction. But from July 1885 an act was passed according to which their education became compulsory between the ages of nine and sxteen. The number of pupils accordingly increased so much that the school in Oslo could not receive all of them. A new school for the blind was then started in Trondheim (on Glöshaugen). Like the school in Oslo it received state support. Later both of these schools were made state schools, - the school in Trondheim from 1893 and that in Oslo from 1896.

In 1925 a new reorganisation of the schools for the blind was carried through. The school in Oslo was turned into a professional school for all grown up boys in the country, and Dalen school near Trondheim was to receive all blind and partially sighted children. A professional school for girls had been started by an association for the blind in Oslo in 1912, and is now largely a state school. But blind grown up girls will also get their professional training at Huseby school for the blind near Oslo as soon as the necessary buildings can be built for them there.

In the spring 1938 the Norwegian Parliament decided to move the professional school for blind boys from Oslo to Nordre Huseby near Oslo. There the State was to build a new school. On account of the war only workshops and a house for the headmaster have been finished so far. But now Parliament has granted sufficient money to continue the building work. First of all a home for the boys will be built, with kitchen, dining room an various class rooms, gymnasium and flats or single rooms for part of the staff. Then building work for the professional department for the girls will be started.

Methods of Instruction etc.

In the schools for the blind different methods fro those of the ordinary schools must be applied in various subjects. The blind must use feeling and partly also hearing as a substitute for the eyesight. Thus a different type of letters must be used which the blind can read by means of the fingers. It is a letter system composed of 1 to 6 points put in two vertical rows with up to three points in each. The letters are in relief.

This letter system in its simple form was invented by the blind Frenchman Louis Braille. He became a teacher at the school for the blind in Paris, and had his system fully developed in 1825. It is now used in the schools for the blind in all countries.
The Braille letter also gives the foundation for the muscal notation.
In geography relief maps must be used. These must be simple and not contain too many names.

Instead of drawing the blind in the elementary schools have modelling in plasticine or clay. Musical pupils may start to learn music in the third or fourth form. Those showing special gifts may pass on to the music department of the professional school after their elementary instuction, there being educated as professional musicians (organists and the like).

The blind need much practice in mental arithmetic. But in the schools the cotogonal board of Taylor is used when larger sums are being worked. A Braille writer (embossing machine) may also be used at more complicated operations.

In natural science it is necessary to have at the disposal of the school a lot of different material for the instruction of pupils. There ought to be a number of animals, birds and plants stuffed or dried, and in addition to this it is very helpful to have pictures in relief. Modelled forms or relief pictures of small plants etc. on a large scale are also very useful.

<u>The different schools</u>.

1. Dalen state School for the Blind, Trondheim.
   Headmaster Kristofer Öye.

The school is an elementary school for the whole country and has 7 forms, each with a one year's course. More or less the same subjects as in an ordinary school are taught, with exception of drawing. But instead of this the children learn to model in clay, and they also get instruction in music and typewriting. Music is not a compulsory subject, but may be chosen by all pupils with inclination and gifts for music.

In many subjects the instruction is the same as in an ordinary elementary school. The difference mostly lies in the expedients used. The children have special frames for working sums with types to be put together and writing apparatus where they by means of a little stiletto can make Braille letters which they can read with their fingerpoints. When the children have developed the sensibility of the fingers through training the most clever of them can read this writing as quickly as a seeing child reads from its book. There are also special machines for writing Braille which the pupils are taught to read.

In the seventh form boys as well as girls are taught domestic science.

The school has its own cottage "Dalabu", near the lake of Jonsvatnet. Every autumn all the pupils make an excursion there together, or only one or more forms go there on occasional trips. In the winter the children bring their skis, and have great fun. If there is no snow on the ice of the lake, they go skating. When the weather permits, an ice rink is also fitted up beside the school buildings.

The school has its scouts and guides, and these sometimes get the opportunity of contact with other scouts in the town.

When after Christmas holidays all children are back at school, a Christmas festival takes place there. All people connected in any way with the school are invited, and as a rule also some former pupils turn up. At this festival there is the traditional performance of a play, and the pupils also entertain the guests with song, music, declamation etc.

Another grest day of the year is the confirmation day just before the children leave for their summer vacation. Then most of the parents of the pupils come there and pass the day with the children and the staff. The The confirmed children now leave and pass on to a professional school.

Application for blind children.

It is of great value that application for a blind child to enter the school is sent as soon as possible, so that the pupil is sure to be accepted at the right time.

The School Board is charged to fill in a special form about the child and send it to the school director.

All blind children and also children with partial sight, who cannot profit from the instruction of an ordinary elementary school ought to go to a school for the blind at the age of eight.

Oslo State School for the Blind.

Eugeniegt.23, Oslo.
Headmistress: Miss Gudrun Pollan.

This school accepts girls who come from the elementary school for the blind and also young and older women who have partly or completely lost their eysight as grown ups. It is a boarding school with a four years course.

Instruction is given in weaving, hand and machine knitting, bedding, upholstery, chair caning, domestic science and different kinds of other little trades. Singing and playing on the piano are also taught. Pupils who have lost their sight as grown ups go through several courses for reading of Braille and for ordinary typewriting.

During leisure time there are various kinds of occupation. The pupils are allowed to go to some festivals and meetings in the town and its neighbourhood if they are accompanied in a safe manner. There are also socials at the school where the pupils and other entertain the guests. They are allowed to invite friends. Sometimes also the pupils get tickets given them for one of the theatres or a concert.

Huseby State School for the Blind.

Röa, Oslo.
Headmaster: A.O. Rösegg.

This school has a four years' course and has a provisional boarding house for the pupils until the new building will be finished. The first part of the money wanted has been granted by Parliament, and it is hoped that it will not take long to have it ready for use.

The school accepts pupils from the elementary school for the blind at Dalen and also young and older men who have lost their sight as grown ups. Instruction is given in different trades as carpentry, making of baskets, upholstery brushes and pianoforte-tuning. Pupils who are very musical, may get instruction to become organists or music teachers. Instruction is given in theoretical subjects as elementary theory of music, theory of harmony, counterpoint as well as in theory of musical form, history of music etc. Some of the pupils can get instruction on some instrument or other in which they are interested or in solo singing if they have a good voice. Some pupils are for instance taught to play a stringed instrument, others a wind instrument or the accordion. If there is a sufficient number playing a wind instrument, they form a small band of horn blowers or a janizary orchestra.

The school also has a departement for theoretical subjects with teaching of the ordinary subjects of a secondary or a commercial school and also in shorthand and typewriting. For older pupils who have lost their sight as grown ups there are courses in reading and writting of Braille and in ordinary typewriting.

During their free time the pupils listen to radio bradcasts which may interest them and also to the reading aloud of novels as well as other books. They also borrow books in the small Braille library to read by themselves. Some pupils take an interest in chess, and many a thrilling match is fought. Some pupils are interested in skating races in winther, and not a small number, even the totally blind, go skiing. Some also take part in swimming courses held in the public baths and learn to swim.

The pupils have an association of their own and arrange meetings and socials where the pupils themselves or persons from outside are responsible for the entertainment. Besides, they are allowed to take part in meetings and socials in Oslo.

The pupils also often get free tickets for the theatres. In that way they can find something to do in their leisure time.

Profit derived from school instruction.

People working to-day in the service of the schools for the blind consider it their task to try to make the blind selfsupporting through their own work. Naturally this end cannot be gained by all blind. But those who do not get so far, are hampered in their activity not by their blindness alone. Other impedements exist which together with the blindness make it impossible for them to achieve such results in practical life that they can earn their own living.

All people working with the instruction of the blind have very good faith in their possibilities to become self-supporting. This good faith is to a high extent due to the strong impulse in the blind to gain this end, so that they do all they can in persistant and purposeful work while at school.

It is also seen that many blind people can achieve excellent results there. But there is unfortunately avery small scope for the blind when it comes to choosing a trade or a profession. The blindness itself is the reason for this. But if the blind has good mental faculties, a well developed body and good health, he can get very far in a job within the limits set for his activity by blindness alone.

Insurance for the blind.

Blind people above the age of 19 can apply to the Ministry of Social Affairs for a pension. Applications are written on forms to be had from the chairman of the local health committee and sent in by him.

Administration.

All special schools are put under the administration of the Directorate in the Ministry of Church and Education. The Director is miss Marie Pedersen. At each school there is a school manager responsible for its management as well as for the boarding house for the pupils there.

A control comittee of 3 members for each school has been appointed by the Ministry of Education. The committee has to visit the school and the home for the pupils and control hygiene and nutrition.

The schools have a superintending doctor who visits them regularly, and who can be sent for any time when necessary. The pupils receive dental treatment while at school.

Who pays for the pupils?

The instruction is free. Board and lodging at present 45 pounds (900 kroner) a year, and clothes are paid by the wider local community (fylkeskommune) to which a pupil belongs. The county shire (fylket) can get about one third of the expenses reimbursed from the parish of the pupil. If he comes from a town, the municipality will pay. All these expenses are school expenses and not poor relief.

If the supporter of the pupil is very well off, he may be asked to pay for the maintenance of the pupil at the school. This, however, does not often occur.

prentice-schools and workship-schools) upon a number of second-masters, whereas the disciplinary responsibility (general school order, negligence in attendance, and the like) for each division of the day- or evening-schools, is entrusted to an inspector.

The total school work is co-ordinated to the greatest possible extent by the managing director who is in direct contact with the school-committee and the Board, and it should be added that the leading teachers and the teachers' staff are represented in the discussion by the school-committee of all cases which are of actual pedagogical importance.

Economy. Seen in relation to Danish conditions the institution is operated on a comparatively large scale (more than 8,000 pupils, about 450 teachers and a balance sheet exceeding 2.000.000 kroner), and its activity, as mentioned above, is first of all dependent upon public grants. About 40 per cent. of last year's working expenditure was covered by the Treasury and about 20 per cent. by the Municipality of Copenhagen. The balance is provided partly by contribution from endowments and funds (including "Varelotteri"), and lastly - but not least - through school-fees. These are comparatively low for the obligatory apprentice education (35 kroner per six months), but in return rather high for the examination schools (up to 200 kroner per six months).

N O R W A Y.

OUR SCHOOLS FOR MENTALLY RETARDED CHILDREN AND YOUTH:

Edited by The Ministry of Education
Directorate for Special Schools

Author: School Director Birger Heiberg Andersen.

THE EDUCATIONAL WORK WITH THE BACKWARD CHILDREN is very little known. This is why this pamphlet is presented to spread knowledge and gain understanding for this work - for and among these children. To many the word "backward" or mentally retarded sounds strange. Therefore a little orientation is needed to explain who these children are.

The backward children are those , as the name indicates, who cannot get along in the ordinary elementary school or helping school on account of their low mental abilities but who all the same will be able to learn and can take advantage of education in special schools. How many backward children are not placed in our elementary schools today? In spite of The Law of Education that orders all the local school boards to report every child that do not succeed in the elementary school, many backward children are not reported. Quite a lot of them wpuld have profited by school where education was adjusted to their specific needs. As it is now, many of these children are still in the elementary school, being an inconvenience for the progress of the brighter children, and having only troubles and worry themselves.

The reason why the backward children are not reported, is often wanting knowledge about the special schools which the Government has established, for mentally retarded children. In most cases however, the name: Schools for Feebleminded, that the schools hitherto were called, has scared both parents and teachers. The word feebleminded has by degrees obtained an odious meaning here, and parents do not use this word about their own child, without a very sad feeling, even if the child is very low graded.

The father and mother prefer to say that their child is retarded or that their child has reduced intelligence.

Why make the burden heavier for these unhappy parents, who have one or more children that cannot make progress in the elementary school, by naming their child feeble-minded ? Wasn't it better to soothe them by telling them about the special schools which are established to serve children who are retarded and slow learning.

In the special schools the teaching and education are based exactly upon the needs of the slow learning and backward child. It is obvious though, that the special schools have their limitations. The lowest level of intelligence for a child being able to benefit from a special school, is about 50 per cent of normal intelligence. If thus a child ten years of age has a mentally development corresponding to that of a normal child between five or seven years (with some modifications) that child just belongs to the school for backward children. It is expressed in the way that the child has an I.Q (intelligence Quota) between 50 and 70.

How is the procedure to get a child admitted to a special school ? The application is made on certain forms which the local school boards get from The District School Director. These applications must contain information from teacher, physician, and the school board. The forms are sent to The District Director of Schools, who forwards them to the Director of Special Schools. The forms are then sent to the leader of the school where the child is likely to go. The leader of the school must give his opinion of the child after having read the informations, and the Director of Special Schools decides whether the child is to be admitted. The local school board is then informed when the child will be enrolled to a course for testing and examinitation before the definite decision is taken, whether the child belongs to a school, or is unfit for education. The testing courses last two weeks or more. Here experienced teachers take care of the children and try to find out their ability for learning and further development.

Through play and happy daily life together with the children and by various tests and measurements they make their investigations. Parents ought to bring their backward child to these testing courses themselves. Doing so, they will have the opportunity to get acquainted with the school and with the persons who are to take care of their child during the period it will stay away from home. Many misunderstandings are avoided when the father or the mother have experienced how the school personnel are, and comforted they have returned after having left their child to those who are to be in mother's or father's place.

As a rule not many days pass til the child has adjusted itself to the new environments. Here it meets its equals

and find comrades on its own level of development. The fixed rythm of the day, and the firm program of the school help the child to gain security and confidence in the new home.

THE EDUCATION OF BACKWARD CHILDREN is given in classes as in ordinary schools. In the special school, however, the classes are much smaller, and the teaching is arranged as individually as possible. The school tries to procure the best equipment and use all facilities that are available. The teachers have the best education for this difficult field of school work. Besides teachers college, special education is needed. The teachers always find the teaching of the retarded children both interesting and inspiring.

The subjects in the special schools are much the same as in the elementary schools: Religion, reading, writing, arithmetics, regional study with some geography and history. Song is very much used. The children are fond of singing and clever to pick up songs. The physical training is very much emphasized through gymnastics and sport. Those children who need it, are given special lessons in speech therapy. Handwork is given a wide space in the curriculum. The boys learn various kinds of woodwork, brushmaking and bootmending. Knitting, sewing, weaving and domestic management are subjects for the girls' practical training. At two schools there is a farm where the children are given opportunity to participate in the seasons. - Having finished the child school, the boys who are suitable for it, may continue at vocational or continuation schools, where farming, forestry and various kinds of out-door occupation are main subjects. When they are through with the school, the pupils are heped into jobs where they are paid for their work.

For girls' vocational schools plans have just been prepared and there is reason to believe that before long the vocational school for girls will be a fact. It will be of great importance to get this vocational school, not least for the efficiency of the children schools.

THE HOME OF THE CHILDREN DURING THEIR SCHOOL TIME.

The State Schools for backward children are residential schools. The children's home mostly are situated in the same building as the school rooms. There are dormitories, day-rooms, dining rooms and various other localities as bath-room, laundry etc. The homes have the necessary personnel to take care of the children. Besides the female personnel, the caretaker of the buildings joins in the inspection, and where a farm is connected to the school, the farm personnel as well participates in the inspection and entertaining of

the children during their leisure time. The home arrangement aim to being as homelike as possible. It is evident that with a few exceptions the children feel very much at home in the school home. The fixed program of the day, the solid and trusty treatment are a very good help in the education and bringing up of the pupils. The backward children are mostly very kind to each other. They are helpful and faithful, and very little is needed to make them happy. As a matter of fact, they are more fond of their teachers than other schoolchildren are, and the school and the period they stay in the school residence together with equals and like minded, are of enormous value to them.

The special schools have vacances like the elementary schools. If the parents' home is not located too far from the school, the pupils are allowed to go home for holidays. This is a welcome interruption in the routine of the day, but it has proved that the children, even from the best homes, as a rule, long back to the school when the vacanses are at an end. After they have left school, many of the children return to pay a visit to their old school. We try to keep the contact with the children after they have left the institution, and we are glad to hear from them later.

Isn't it tiring work with the retarded children?, many will ask. You must have unlimited patience, other say. Are you not quickly tired of the work? they also ask. - It is certainly a difficult job to teach backward and slow learning children, but the special pedagogy solves the problems just in that way that the self-activity of the children is mobilized, and their self confidence is strengthened. The task is not of the easiest, and often it may look hopeless. But the confidence that faces you, and the gratefulness that sparkles in the childrens' eyes when they find the understanding and sympathy which they have often missed, is an abundant pay for the trouble and gives encouragement and inspiration to persevere, although it is often burdensome and tiring work.

Interest and concentration are of importance for those whose gifts are small. Among children who are retarded and less gifted than normal boys and girls, we often find cases where the will to learn and acquire knowledge is enormous, and they try to use well their insignificant talents. It is a pity when such children do not come to schools that suit their specific needs, but are rather kept in the elementary school for reasons of misunderstood humanity, and thus must struggle on in a school where they meet defeats again and again throughout their whole time in school. How often does not their initiative chase through

the wrong channels? The teachers in the elementary schools have to be on guard and report to the local school board those children who, owing to their low intelligence, do not seem suited for the school. It is not only the education and teaching in school that have to be adjusted to the capacity of the retarded child. It is of the utmost importance that the whole atmosphere and environments pay attention to the reduced ability of perception.

Administration.

All special schools are administered by a "directorate" in the Ministry of Education. The director is Marie Pedersen.

Each school is directed by a director who has the responsibility for both school and homes, and also supervises the farm, wher there is one. The Ministry of Education appoint a board of control of 3 members for each school. The duty of this board is to visit the school and the school homes and control the hygiene and nutrition. The school also has a physician who visits the school regularly and is sent for if anything is urgent. At the institutions the children have free dental care.

Who pays for the children?

The instruction is free of charge. From 1.7.1952 the State is responsible for all expenses in connection with the accommondation and living of the children in the Special Schools. The State may, by a parliamentary enactment, demand refunded a fixed amount from the towns or counties, to which the children belong. This is no charity, but expenses to schools of the country.

The Special Schools for retarded are:

Torshov Public School, founded 1878, location Oslo.
Capacity of the school 100, in residence 90.
Leader of the school is Ingolv Eik.

Eikelund Public School, founded 1882, Hop at Bergen.
95 children in school and residence. The school has a farm.
Leader is Birger Heiberg Andersen.

Röstad Public school, (founded 1876 in Oslo) Levanger.
160 children in school and residence. The school has a large farm.
Leader is Ola Vandvik.

Hunn Public School, founded 1934, Gjövik.
90 children in school and residence.
Leader is Gustav Uri.

Solheim Public School, founded 1947, Lunner st.
70 children in school and residence.
Leader is Berg Kveim.

Ekne Public School, founded 1951, Ekne.
60 children in school and residence.
Leader is Jon Ögård.

Lunde Public School, founded 1936. Dypvåg at Tvedestrand.
School and home for 10 maladjusted small boys.
Here they stay for shorter or longer periods. The goal is to adjust them and start the first training. The boys are afterwards sent to one of the larger schools.
Leader is Signe Kallhovd.

Externate School:

Kalmargaten Public School, Bergen.
55 children in school. (Dayschool)
Leader is Lars Hauge.

Vocational schools:

After having finished the elementary training in the schools for children, the boys who will profit by further training in the vocational field, may be admitted to the vocational schools for retarded boys. There are at present two vocational schools.

Kjelle Public School, founded 1925, Björkelangen.
42 boys in school and residence.
The school has a large farm and forest where the boys get their training.
Leader is Johan Hovrud.

Ekne Public school, founded 1950, Ekne.
60 boys in school and residence.
Leader is Jon Ögård.

Austjord Public school, founded 1925, Lundstad at Hönefoss.
Farming and poultry yard.
20 pupils in school and residence.
Leader is Mattias Kjellsrud.

The Further Development of the Special Schools.

The Storting (Parliament) in 1948 passed a resolution for the decennial extention of places in schools for backward children. The plan includes more new schools, among these a vocational school for adolescent girls, a new school in Southern Norway, a new school in Northern Norway and extention of existing schools. According to this plan, the schools will give education to twice as many pupils as today.

Results of the Schooling Effect.

Many ask about the results gained by education of mentally retarded children. They like to know if it pays to spend time and efforts on children who cannot succeed in ordinary schools. It is at once to be stated that the schools to the highest extent justify their position, and the results gained, often exceed the expectations. Statistics founded on research made by The Directorate for the Special Schools, give informations of the pupils who left the schools 1920-40. The economic and social aspects are most interesting to society. How do the pupils get on in life? The book "De evnesvake i skole og samfunn" (Backward Children in School and Society) edited by Fabritius 1946, by Director Marie Pedersen and School Leader Ingolv Eik will answer these questions. What value the education and school life have had for the many backward children by giving them knowledge and training that make them better qualified for a happier life, cannot be measured in money.

Even if these values are not taken into consideration, it must be realized that a great number of those who have left the schools have been given qualifications to become self supporting. Without the help given by the schools for retarded, the chances to prosper in life would have been considerably reduced, and many of the self supporting boys and girls might have had to be taken care of by society.

It has happened that retarded children have been given education and treatment that have caused complications both in school and home. Many such cases have been taken care of in the special schools. Very often, good results have been obtained, and adjustment difficulties have been straightened out.

Spring 1952.

Functions of the Clinic.

As mentioned above there are little tradition to build upon in this field in Norway. The director of the clinic has been given a relatively free hand in developing the work and the policies to be persued in cooperation with the psychiatrist of the clinic. However, since there has been hardly anywhere else to send children badly in need of help (two of the clinics mentioned above were started in 1950 and 1952, respectively), if only for diagnostic screening before placement in instituion or special class, the staff has felt compelled to take up a variety of problems. Because of this situation, the work up to last year has been mostly diagnostic, as it was not felt justifiable to accept more than a few cases for treatment as long as mentally retarted children were waiting six months or more for their psychological examination prior being placed in a special class or school. As the clinic expand, it will probably accept and more children for psychotherapy.

The children accepted at the clinic may be grouped as follows:

1. Children with emotional and/or behaviour problems:
These are referred by the school (teacher, through the principal) with the consent of the parents, by the medical officers of the school, by the parents directly, etc., To this group may be added cases sent by the Board of Education (mostly cases of truancy) and by the Board of Guardians, Child Welfare Board City of Oslo (mostly delinquent children). The latter has functions in part similar to children's courts in other countries. The children referred by the Board of Education or the Board of Guardians may be examined without the consent of the parents.

The clinic makes a rather thorough examination in which a social worker, a clinical psychologist, and the psychiatrist all take part. Their work is divided thus:

The social worker: Contact with the home, the "raw" anamneses from the parents,

The clinical psychologist: interview with teacher, with parents and with the child, play observations and play interviews, projective and psychometric tests,

The psychiatrist: supplement of the anamneses, general medical and a neurological examination.

The child is subsequently at a weekly conferense, and the further work to be done is divided among the members of the team. The measures will in most cases come under one of the following headings:

1) Report to the school, to the Board of Education or the Board of Guardians with advice about placement of the child and/or its treatment. The reports are written by the psychologist, the pratical measures are taken by the social worker.
2) Talks with parents and/or teacher about the situation of the child and its treatment, eventually also its placing. Is done by the psychologist or by the social worker.
3) Counseling of parents, mostly of mothers, over a longer period. Is mostly done by the psychologist but also of the social worker.
4) Treating the child through a "play group" or through individual psychotherapy at the Clinic. Relatively few cases. Is done by the psychologist only.
5) Referring the child to a special medical examination or to psychotherapy at the private child guidance clinic mentioned above. Is done by the psychiatrist.
6) Helping the family to get social security, to send the child away for a few months etc., is done by the social worker.

2. Children who are regarded as mentally retarted and thought by the school to belong in a special class.

The children are referred mostly by the school and can, if necessary be examined without the consent of the parents.
However, there is usually no objection.
Some of the children prove to be normally gifted but with severe emotional difficulties. These cases are transferred to group one above. This does not mean that the children left are without neurotic difficulties, several of them belong to both groups at the same time.

The work done on the mentally retarted children do not differ very much from that done on the emotionally maladjusted children, is only less thorough.

Projective tests, in most cases the Rorschach, is given to nearly all of these cases, to uncover a possible "pseudodebility". The team cooperates on each case. The psychological work is in most cases done by one of the "psychological assistants", the child sometimes being referred to one of the clinical psychologists if it turns out to have severe emotional problems.

Reports about the examination, its results and our advice are sent not only to the child's school, but also to the local director of the special classes in Oslo, and in cases of mental deciency, even to the director of the government special schools (for children with I.Q.'s 5o - 75.).

3. Children who are to be placed outside their own home, because of neglect by the parenys etc.

The children are referred mostly be the Child Welfare Board mentioned above. After the fall 1952, the Clinic is going to accept as clients children of this category down to the age of two years. The clinic is going to add obe more clinical psychologist and one more clark to its staff, to be able to accept these children for examination (about 7o children per year.).

The children very often belong to group one mentioned above, some times also to group two. The whole team take part in the examination. Reports are sent the Child Welfare Board describing the child's background, personality structure and emotional difficulties at present, and giving advice whether and in case where to place the child (still with the parents, adoption home, foster home, children's hone, special or normal school etc.).

4. Six years olds for school readiness examination.

The children are referred by the parents in the spring before they start school. The children belong to that category which may start school in the autumn but which, according to the xtxrk Act of Elementary Education of 1936, as yet has no right to do so, Children do not have this right until immediately before they are seven.

The reason why the clinic has taken up this task is that formerly, every fall not few six years old were referred by the school because of the difficulties in concentrating on the work, "immaturity" etc.

The children first go through a medical screening by the Medical Officer of their schol to be, and are then sent to psychological examinations of the Clinic. In this work, only, psychologists and social workers take part.

Five to six hundred of these children are examined each year. About 50% of the parents are adviced to let their children wait another year before starting school.

After the Clinic started these types of psychological examinations, few children have been referred by the school for concentration difficulties in combination with the child's being relatively young, and none of them have been children who had gone through an earlier examination of the Clinic.

Counting with the six years olds, about looo children pass through the Clinic each year.

The functions of the writer at the School Clinic.

The function of the writer at the Clinic may be summed up as follows:

1. General responsibility for the Clinic's work, includ in making plans for further development, cooperation with other child welfare agencies and services, etc.
2. Professional responsibility for the work of the five psychologists, the two social workers and several internees, including planning the working procedure of the Clinic as a whole and selecting the psychological methods to be used.
3. Clinical psychological work, diagnostic and therapeutic.

Oslo, June 25., 1952.

Dagny Oftedal.

LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL.

Arrangements for the education and care of handicapped children.

I. Section 34 of the Education Act, 1944, requires local education authorities to ascertain which children in their area need special educational treatment and to make appropriate provision for them. The categories of pupils for whom local education authorities are to provide special educational treatment under the section are defined as follows by the Handicapped Pupils' and School Health Service Regulations, 1945:- blind; partially sighted; deaf; partially deaf; delicate; diabetic; educationally sub-normal; epileptic; maladjusted; physically handicapped; pupils suffering from speech defects. The Regulations require that those children who are blind or epileptic must be educated in boarding schools.

II. The Council's responsibilities for handicapped children are exercised mainly through the Special Education Sub-Committee and the Special Services Branch of the Education Officer's Department.

III. The Council conducts at present the following schools and classes for handicapped children:-

Handicap	Day schools		Boarding schools	
	No. of schools	Total accommodation	No. of schools	Total accommodation
Blind	-	-	2 establishments recognised as 1 school	100
Partially sighted	6	450	-	-
Deaf	4	380	3 (including 1 for children suffering from another handicap)	194
Partially deaf	4 (special units in ordinary schools)	90	-	-
Delicate	11	1,500	7	425
Diabetic	-	-	1 unit at Hutton Residential School (a school for deprived children in the Council's care under the Children Act, 1948) is reserved for diabetic children (alternative hostel accommodation is being sought so that the places at Hutton now being filled by diabetic children may be taken by children dealt with under the Children Act, 1948)	40
Educationally sub-normal	26	3,244	6	561
Epileptic	-	-	- Epileptic children for whom the Council is responsible are placed in voluntary residential establishmente	-
Maladjusted	15 special classes	120 at any one time	5	165
Physically handicapped	18	1,760	2	123
Speech defects	26 speech clinics for children in ordinary schools; 25 & 17 clinics at day schools for E.S.N. and P.H children, respectively	-	2 centres in Children's Department residential schools for normal children	-

P.T.O.

In addition, the Council sends many pupils, especially maladjusted and delicate children, to voluntary boarding special schools. Furthermore, the Council conducts 6 hospital special schools involving about 340 children and provides individual tuition at home or in hospital for about 70 handicapped children who cannot be taught in school. Group tuition is given in 5 other hospitals to a total of 70 children where the numbers at each hospital are not large enough to warrant the establishment of a school.

IV. General.

The curriculum of the special schools is designed to give the pupils, so far as their handicaps allow, a basic education similar to that provided in ordinary schools, plus some pre-vocational instruction introduced in the latter part of the school course, which continues till the children are sixteen years old, the statutory school leaving age for handicapped pupils. The children are encouraged to forget their handicap as far as possible and to look upon themselves as normal children. They go to camps, on school journeys and on educational visits, and have their share of concerts and other cultural activities organised for the education service generally. At the same time, their special needs are carefully watched and met. Thus, physically handicapped, deaf, partially deaf and partially sighted pupils, and junior delicate and educationally sub-normal pupils, are conveyed daily, in the Council's school buses, to and from their day special schools. Nurses are on duty at the schools for delicate and physically handicapped children to supervise the children's physical welfare and to give special attention and treatment to those children needing it. Special aids are provided to facilitate the education of the deaf, partially deaf, blind and partially sighted. Medical examinations are held regularly, and it is encouraging that some children are found eventually to have improved so much as a result of the special educational treatment given them that they are deemed to be no longer handicapped and fit to attend ordinary schools.

Suitable handicapped children on leaving school are placed in employment by the Youth Employment Officers of the Education Committee's Youth Employment Service set up by the Council under the Employment and Training Act, 1948. Medical as well as educational reports are taken into account and special attention is paid to selecting employers with good welfare services in order that health may be safeguarded. Liaison is maintained with national and voluntary associations for the care of the handicapped.

V. Education provided for blind and partially sighted children.

A. Blind.

A child is regarded as educationally blind if he is without sight, or his sight is so defective, or is likely very soon to become so defective, that he requires education by methods not involving the use of sight.

Nursery education up to the age of 6 or 7 years is provided mainly by the Sunshine Home Nursery Schools which are managed by the National Institute for the Blind. At the age of 6 or 7 years the child is transferred to a Primary School for the blind, where he remains until the age of 11 or 12 years. He then passes on either to a Grammar School for blind if he has marked academic ability, or otherwise to a Secondary Modern School for the blind.

By definition in the Handicapped Pupils and School Health Service Regulations, 1945, the number of pupils in a class does not exceed 15. It is more often as low as 12. Much of the teaching is individual.

A curriculum approximating as nearly as possible to that provided for seeing children is followed. It is the methods of instruction only that differ considerably.

Reading and writing are taught by the medium of braille, arithmetic by a system of arranging types in a board, and geography by means of embossed maps.

Much importance is attached to physical activities, which include physical training, swimming, roller skating, Scouting, Guiding, walking on stilts, skipping, games and country dancing.

The aim is to train the children to be confident and independent, and to become as near normal as possible, in order that they may eventually take their places in the seeing world without fear or embarrassment.

Those chiodren who qualify for Grammar School education receive a more liberal academic education, which enables them to take up professional courses. Some pass on to the Universities, frequently studying law; others become masseurs, physiotherapists, local government officers, etc. They remain at the Grammar Schools to the age of 19 or 20.

The majority of children remain in a Secondary Modern School for the blind to the age of 16 years or later, and in addition to the usual subjects a full handwork course is followed. The boys receive instruction in woodwork, basket work and modelling, and the girls study housecraft, knitting, simple sewing, light basketry and modelling. Typewriting is taught to all boys and girls when they reach the age of 13.

At the age of 16 a boy or girl may, if he, or she, wishes, leave school and be found suitable work in open industry. Many choose this course, and they take their places alongside sighted workers. Others continue training for a further period of years and the following courses are open to them - shorthand and typewriting, telephony, music, pianoforte tuning, basket making, mattress making, brush making, machine knitting.

There are approximately 1,100 educable blind children of school age in the whole of England and Wales, and about 100 of these are London children. This represents 0.2 to 0.3 per thousand of the total registered pupils.

The Education Act of 1944 requires that blind children should be educated in boarding schools. London has two boarding establishments which are recognised as one school under the control of one headmaster. The total roll at present is about 80 children of both sexes and all ages.

B. Partially sighted.

Children are ascertained as partially sighted if their vision is so defective that they are unable to follow the ordinary curriculum without detriment to their sight or to their educational development, but can be educated by special methods involving the use of sight. Education is compulsory from the age of 5 to 16 years.

For the children who come within this category special methods of instruction are employed. The children of ages 5 to 10 years perform much of their written work with chalk on blackboards, or with thick black crayons on large sheets of white paper. The reading matter for the very young children is prepared by the teacher, who uses a thick pen and black ink on large sheets of white paper. Suitable large type infants readers are also available.

A fairly plentiful supply of reading books of large bold type is available for children of primary age, and to overcome the difficulty of providing sufficient reading matter in large bold type for the children of secondary school age, each child is supplied with a reading lens on a stand. The lens has opened a wide field of reading matter for the children, and school libraries are being formed in the schools.

The older partially sighted children use pencils and plain exercise books for writing, and before they leave school they are taught to use pen and ink.

Throughout the country approximately 1 per 1,000 of registered pupils are ascertained as partially sighted, and require special educational treatment.

London has 6 all-age schools for partially sighted (ages 5 to 16 years) and the total number of children in the 6 schools is about 430. The size of each class is limited to 15 by the Handicapped Pupils and School Health Service Regulations, 1945.

In each of the schools the curriculum approximates to that of the normal school, and it is aimed to equip the children so that they are able to take their places in the sighted world with confidence.

Partially sighted children are examined by an Ophthalmologist twice yearly and a number whose sight is considered to have improved sufficiently pass on from the schools for partially sighted to normal grammar schools, technical colleges and secondary modern schools.

There are no occupations peculiar to partially sighted people as in the case of the blind. Much depends on the degree of vision and the type of eye defect.

VI. Education provided for the deaf and partially deaf.

A. Deaf.

Deaf children attend schools especially provided for their use. In London there are four day schools for deaf children of both sexes from the age of 5 to 13 years and at each of the schools there is a nursery section for children from the age of 2 to 5 years. At the age of 13 the children are transferred to boarding schools, one for boys and another for girls, where all children remain until the age of 16 and some continue to the age of 18 or 19. The compulsory school period is from 5 years to 16 years. The size of each class is limited to 10 by the Handicapped Pupils and School Health Service Regulations, 1945.

The Council maintains a boarding school for boys and girls who are deaf or partially deaf and who have an additonal handicap. The age of admission is usually 5 years and the children remain until they are 16.

Although 5 years is the compulsory school age the majority of deaf children now attend school at an earlier age, from 2 years and upwards and there is a growing appreciation on the part of parents of the value of early education. There are about 330 deaf children in the four primary day schools, including about 80 in the nursery classes.

At the age of 13 the children are transferred from the day schools to separate boarding schools for senior boys and girls up to the age of 18 or 19. The Council maintains two schools, one for each sex, and the total roll at present is about 95. Vocational (trade) training for children up to the age of 16 is gradually being discontinued so that full-time classwork (speech, lipreading and language development) may be maintained. Provision is made, as in senior schools for hearing children, for practical subjects - handicraft for boys and housecraft and needlework for girls. Upon leaving school employment is found in any appropriate type of work not involving normal hearing.

The oral system, speech and lipreading, is used throughout the nursery, junior and senior schools. Those children with sufficient residual hearing make full use of group hearing aid apparatus for group work in specially equipped classrooms and are provided with individual hearing aids for personal use in and out of school.

Teachers employed in the Council's schools for the deaf have been specially trained.

Children with high academic ability are transferred at the age of 12 to the Mary Hare Grammar School for the Deaf, Arlington Manor, Newbury.

B. Partially deaf.

Partially deaf children are taught by teachers of the deaf in special classes in primary mixed schools for hearing children where they are taught lipreading and trained in the use of individual hearing aids which are provided for use in and out of school. In addition, the children make full use of group hearing aid apparatus for group work in specially equipped classrooms. After this period of special teaching, varying from a few months to two years, the children return to classes for hearing children where they are able to be educated as hearing children if they are placed in a favourable position in the class and continue to use hearing aids. If they are unable to return to ordinary schools by the age of 12½ the children attend one of the boarding schools for the deaf.

There are four partially deaf units in London schools, three units consisting of two classes each while one consists of three classes. The size of each class is limited to 10 by the Handicapped Pupils and School Health Service Regulations, 1945, and there are about 100 children at present on the rolls.

VII. Education provided for the delicate.

Delicate children are defined by the Handicapped Pupils and School Health Service Regulations, 1945, as those who by reason of impaired physical condition cannot, without risk to their health, be educated under the normal regime of an ordinary school.

The Council's special schools cater chiefly for the needs of those suffering from asthma, bronchitis, debility, malnutrition, primary tuberculosis, anaemia and chronic catarrh. A careful check is kept upon the health of the children who are examined by the school doctor each term. A school nursing sister is in attendance at each school.

The Council's day schools for the delicate are for those whose handicap is not so severe as to necessitate boarding education. The 11 schools at present maintained are organised as follows:-

Primary mixed - 3
All-age mixed - 8

The numbers at present on the rolls are about 1,450.

The size of classes in schools for the delicate is limited to 30 by the Handicapped Pupils and School Health Service Regulations, 1945, and the curriculum is the same as that of schools for normal children with emphasis on gardening. Each day school has a large garden which is maintained by the children. All children receive three meals a day, rest in bed for one hour at midday, and work in open-air conditions. The class shelters and rest sheds are open to the weather on all but the most inclement days. The majority of children are able to return to normal schools after about 12 to 18 months in an open-air school.

The Council's boarding schools are intended primarily for those children whose handicap is so severe that they should live and be taught on the same premises, or for whom a change of air is necessary. The seven schools at present maintained by the Council are organised as follows:-

Secondary boys - 1
Junior boys - 1

Infants' mixed	- 2
Junior mixed	- 1
All-age girls	- 1
All-age mixed	- 1

Treatment and education are similar to those given in day schools. The numbers at present on the rolls are about 400.

In addition to providing places in its own boarding schools, the Council accepts places in voluntary schools and at the present time about 20 such schools are being used for the treatment of 200 London children.

VIII. Education for the diabetic.

Children who are severely diabetic are given boarding education with the necessary medical treatment while following a normal school curriculum. Children are trained to deal with diet and insulin intake so that their handicap may be minimised and their future lives be as normal as possible. As stated in paragraph III suitable accommodation is being sought for these children in order to free the premises they now occupy at Hutton residential school where there are 35 such children in residence at present. Their employment is specially selected to provide regular meals, suitable hours and medical supervision.

IX. Education provided for the educationally sub-normal.

Educationally sub-normal children are defined by the Handicapped Pupils and School Health Service Regulations, 1945, as those who, by reason of limited ability or other conditions resulting in educational retardation, require some specialised form of education wholly or party in substitution for the education normally given in ordinary schools.

It is the Council's policy to educate the more seriously E.S.N. children in a special school, either day or boarding, while those less seriously handicapped will have special help in their ordinary schools.

The Council has, at present, 26 day and 6 boarding special schools for these children with a total accommodation of 3,805. There are about 3,470 children on the rolls of these schools. The 26 day schools are organised as follows:-

Primary mixed	- 11 schools
Secondary girls	- 4 schools
Senior girls and primary mixed	- 3 schools
Secondary boys	- 8 schools

The six boarding schools with a total roll of about 540 at present are organised as follows:-

Secondary boys	- 2 schools
Primary boys	- 1 school
Primary mixed	- 1 school
Primary and secondary girls and infant boys	- 1 school
Secondary girls	- 1 school

In addition to maintaining children in its own boarding schools the Council pays for the education and maintenance of about 100 London children in 15 boarding schools maintained by other authorities and voluntary organisations.

The size of classes is limited to 20 by the Handicapped Pupils and School Health Service Regulations, 1945.

The provision of special educational treatment in ordinary schools is at present very limited and the Council's policy cannot be fully implemented until more teachers become available and pressure on accommodation eases.

Children who are educationally sub-normal may attend special schools from the age of 5 to 16 years. For the young entrants an admission class is organised which is designed to help the child to become adjusted to school conditions, to encourage it to make good relationships with other children and to be able to live a socially adjusted life in the school community. Play materials such as sand, water and clay are provided and the day is run so far as is possible along nursery class lines. The teacher has a nursery assistant to help her care for the children. Later the children are introduced to reading and number material and in many primary schools activity methods are tried and found to be successful. Children who arrive at a special school at a relatively late age are often discouraged and uninterested in school work. It is the aim of the special school teachers to restore self confidence and evoke pleasure in the attainment of a reasonably good standard in the basic skills wherever possible. Innate dullness of intellect may preclude a high standard of attainment but many children, at the end of their school life, are found to be able to read with some pleasure, have competence in many handicrafts, and show evidence of being able to play a useful role in the world as workers and as people.

Speech therapy is provided for pupils of day schools - see item XII.

Sub-section (5) of section 57 of the Education Act, 1944, provides that, if the local education authority are satisfied that a child, because of disability of mind, will need supervision after leaving school, they must, before he reaches school leaving age (16 years), report accordingly to the local health authority, to enable appropriate action under the Mental Deficiency Acts to be considered.

There are three ways of providing care under the Mental Deficiency Acts. They are (1) training in an institution, or (2) under guardianship, or (3) supervision in the child's own home.

Proposals (1) and (2) require the authority of a Judicial Order before they can be carried out. An officer of the Public Health Department of the Council makes regular applications to Justices of the Peace for orders in these cases. The majority of children leaving special schools remain at home (it is estimated that 90 per cent. do so) and are placed under supervision. No Judicial Order is needed for placing a child under supervision - all that is required is a decision by the appropriate Committee of the Council. Supervision depends on the co-operation given by the child's parents. It involves periodic visits to the home by a qualified social worker who gives any possible help or advice and reports regularly on the child's progress. The Mental Deficiency Act, 1927, requires the Council to provide suitable training and occupation for mentally defective persons under supervision. The visitor will usually take steps to see that boys are not called up for National Service. Approved cases of boys and girls can be placed on the Disabled Persons register. On the other hand those under statutory supervision are not allowed to hold motor driving licences. In some cases attendance at an occupation centre is arranged and in others suitable employment is found in close co-operation with the Council's youth employment officers. The type of employment for which these children are best suited is that of a routine nature under close supervision.

X. Education provided for the maladjusted.

Maladjusted children are defined by the Handicapped Pupils and School Health Service Regulations, 1945, as those who show evidence of emotional instability or psychological disturbance and require special educational treatment in order to effect their personal, social or educational readjustment. The same regulations prescribe that the number in each class of a school shall not exceed 15.

The majority of maladusted children need boarding education and the Council, in addition to providing places in its own schools, also places a considerable number in voluntary special schools and

independent boarding schools. When they are so placed the Council keeps in touch with their progress either by visits by a Council's inspector or by means of reports obtained on its behalf by the local authority in whose area the school is situated. The Council's schools are organised as follows:-

Primary and secondary boys	- 1 school
Secondary boys	- 1 school
Secondary girls and primary mixed	- 2 schools
Primary mixed	- 1 school

There are also 15 special day classes catering for the less handicapped. Children attend part-time at these classes, remaining on the rolls of their ordinary schools and attending them for the rest of the time.

In each of the Council's nine administrative divisions there is a Problem Case Conference, consisting of the district inspector, the divisional officer, the divisional medical officer and the district care organiser. The educational psychologists also attend whenever possible. The Conference meets once a month, or more frequently, and considers and recommends appropriate action concerning problem children referred from various sources. Action may include reference to and co-operation with Child Guidance Clinics, referral to classes for maladjusted children or general social action. When a psychiatrist recommends placing away from home, the Conference forwards all reports to the School Medical Officer, who recommends the child for ascertainment as maladjusted if he is satisfied that this is the right course of action.

Great care has to be taken to ensure that maladjusted children are sent to the boarding schools, hostels or foster-homes that best suit their particular needs. For this reason, placings of the more difficult children are decided on at a monthly conference consisting of the assistant education officer for Special Services, an inspector of special education, an educational psychologist, the principal organiser of children's care work and the Council's psychiatrist.

Special educational treatment of maladjusted children must depend, not so much on the nature of the symptoms shown, but on the underlying causes of the lack of adjustment to the community in which the child lives. It is not easy to determine what these causes are and only patient observation of the children concerned can give insight into them.

In some cases the burden of the home situation is so heavy that readjustment seems only to be possible when the child is away from home. Removal from home is a most serious step, which is taken to-day with ever increasing reluctance. Removal from home, quite often, does appear to effect a remarkable improvement in many children; they put on weight, their eyes are brighter and skin clearer. They sleep well, play and adapt to their fellows. If at the same time, a better understanding by the child's parents can be attained, the chances of readjustment are quite good. To this end a considerable amount of home visiting is undertaken by care committee workers and psychiatric social workers attached to Child Guidance Clinics. The Council's boarding schools have their own psychiatric social workers.

Where parents are reasonably co-operative attendance at a special day class may be very helpful to the child. Quite often maladjustment in the home situation is accompanied by backwardness and unhappiness at school. Sometimes the main symptoms may show themselves at school either in inability to get on with other children or to accept any sort of teaching of the basic skills. Normally the child attends the day special classes for part of the week and his name remains on the roll of his ordinary school. As the child improves, the attendance at the special class can diminish until the child is back in the ordinary school with increased confidence in his ability to learn, improved skills and greater ability to make friendly relationships with others.

Classroom technique for maladjusted children must be based entirely on the need of the individual. Remedial teaching is commonly needed and must be accompanied by the utmost encouragement and sympathy. Every method known for the teaching of reading must be tried; if one fails another must be tried and the teacher must be experienced and resourceful. Ample opportunity must be given for creative work; painting, pottery, general handicrafts help different children to achieve satisfaction.

However well the environment may be planned, however free and encouraging the atmosphere and sympathetic the teacher, yet still a small minority of children do not respond. For them psychotherapeutic treatment is necessary and this can only be undertaken extensively as a rule, in child guidance units and clinics. It is obtainable also at one of the Council's boarding special schools for maladjusted children. At the Maudsley Hospital the Council provides a hospital school for children and adolescents who because of the intensity of their psychological disturbance need in-patient treatment. There teachers work in close co-operation with doctors and occupational therapists; lessons are voluntary, but generally popular with the small patients. The work in the school is considered to play a very definite role in the treatment of the children and young people.

When maladjusted children leave school special care is taken to ensure that a sympathetic employer is found and close touch is maintained between the youth employment officer, care committee and psychiatric social worker and child guidance clinic.

XI. Education provided for the physically handicapped.

Physically handicapped children are defined by the Handicapped Pupils and School Health Service Regulations, 1945, as those who by reason of disease or crippling defect cannot be satisfactorily educated in an ordinary school or cannot be educated in such a school without detriment to their health or educational development.

The Council's day schools for P.H. children are intended for those children whose handicap is not so severe as to necessitate boarding accommodation. These children live at home and are conveyed to and from school by the Council's buses specially adapted for the purpose. The 18 schools at present maintained are organised as follows:-

Secondary mixed	- 1 school
Secondary girls and primary mixed	- 6 schools
Secondary boys	- 5 schools
Primary mixed	- 5 schools
Primary boys	- 1 school

The numbers at present on the rolls of the schools are about 1,450.

The Council's boarding schools are intended primarily for those children whose handicap is so severe that they should live and be taught on the same premises. The schools are used also to accommodate less severely handicapped children whose homes are unsuitable but it is hoped in the course of time to place these children in hostels in London from which they will attend appropriate day schools. Of the two boarding schools at present maintained by the Council one provides for girls and the other for boys. The age range at both schools is from 5 to 16+. The numbers at present in residence are about 120.

In the day schools every child is examined by the school doctor on admission, and thereafter once a year. Arrangements are made also for any ailing child to be specially examined. In addition, each child suffering from an orthopaedic defect is examined at the school by the Council's consulting orthopaedic surgeon once every six months. Before leaving, a special report is made giving advice as to future occupation and notes of any contra-indications.

Arrangements for medical inspection in boarding schools are similar to those in day schools. A visiting medical officer is available for emergency examination, and supervisory visits are paid by doctors from County Hall. The orthopaedic surgeon also visits these schools and a school nursing sister is in residence.

The size of classes is limited to 20 by the Handicapped Pupils and School Health Service Regulations, 1945. For practical classes the maximum is normally 10. It follows from the definition of physically handicapped children set out above, that the purpose of special schools for such children is to provide a physical environment appropriate to their needs; an environment where their particular disabilities may receive proper and continuous care and attention; where their education, academic and practical, is conditioned by their physical and mental capacity; and where their emotional development may find harmonious expression.

In other words, the care, maintenance (and where possible the restoration) of health, education and the development of normality in outlook and behaviour, all form one integrative process in the schools for the physically handicapped.

Consequently, each school has a nursing sister on the staff; special equipment, furniture and apparatus are provided to meet the needs of special cases; physiotherapeutic treatment and remedial exercises and speech therapy are given to those requiring them.

The teaching staff is specialised to its task, classes are small (educational 20, practical subjects 10); the curriculum is designed to fill in the gaps caused by illness, to cover the full range of general and cultural subjects, and to provide varied forms of practical work.

The tempo of the work in the schools for the physically handicapped is slower than that in the ordinary schools, the atmosphere tranquil and secure.

Pupils may remain at school for a period after reaching the age of 16 if they so desire. Others, whose ability, progress and state of health justify such a cause, may be nominated for special courses at technical schools or polytechnics at an earlier age. The Youth Employment Service tries to find suitable employment for all leavers and keeps in touch with them afterwards. When employment is chosen care is taken to ensure that there is a minimum of travelling. For the majority sedentary occupations are found, the type of work depending on educational attainment. A very small number work at home.

The number of physically handicapped children, especially those in the older age range, has progressively decreased in recent years. A number show sufficient improvement to justify their admission to the ordinary school, others less handicapped are retained there.

XII. Treatment for speech defects.

Speech therapy is provided for London school children who stammer or have other defects of speech. The work is at presnt carried out by a staff of one senior, 8 whole-time and 4 part-time qualified therapists who work in 26 clinics conveniently placed so that children may easily travel to them without loss of school time. 517 new cases came for treatment during 1952, and by the end of the year a total of 627 children were being treated.

In addition to these 26 clinics where children from ordinary schools are treated, the speech therapists visit the day special schools for educationally sub-normal and physically handicapped children where treatment is given in the school

premises. Though progress is slow the correction of speech defects is particularly important in helping these children to take their place in the community.

A pamphlet has been prepared for the help of teachers and others who have the care of children with speech defects and a copy may be obtained on application.

XIII. Education in hospital or at home.

(1) Local authorities have power to establish hospital special schools, with the consent of the Minister of Education, when the appropriate medical authorities request such provision. At present the Council maintains 6 such schools with a total of about 340 children on the rolls and the ages range from 5 to 16+. These facilities are provided where the average numbers of long-stay children are sufficiently large and about 25-30 is usually the minimum number. Much of the teaching is bedside but the children are able to join groups in a classroom. The children are, of course, constantly changing. As far as possible a normal school curriculum is followed.

(2) In hospitals where numbers do not warrant the setting up of a school but where there is usually a small group of long-stay children over 5 years old in the hospital at any one time the Council provides a full or part-time teacher according to the needs in each case. At the present time these facilities are provided for a school of about 70 children in 5 hospitals. The tuition is mainly bedside and individual.

(3) There are also some children living at home who are so severely handicapped that they are unable to attend any school. Frequently these children are suffering from a mental as well as a physical handicap while many suffer from more than one physical defect. Each of these cases is considered by the Council's school medical officer to determine suitability for individual tuition and in appropriate cases a teacher is appointed. The amount of tuition given is usually 3 sessions a week at first, increasing later to 5 sessions. The school medical officer re-examines the children annually. These facilities can be provided up to 18 years of age and the type of tuition varies in each individual case. For older children some vocational training may be given and some have been enabled to obtain the General Certificate of Education. A similar procedure is adopted if the child is in a hospital not catered for under (1) or (2) above. These facilities are also provided where children are awaiting admission to a suitable special school while it is occasionally used as the best method to determine educability in doubtful cases.

About 70 children are now receiving this type of education.

XIV. Children incapable of benefiting from education.

(iv) Section 57 of the Education Act, 1944.

This section states the conditions under which children are to be reported to the Health Authority so that appropriate action may be taken under the Mental Deficiency Act, 1913-38.

Sub-section (3) provides that if, after considering the advice of their medical officer (following a special medical examination which the parents must have been invited to attend) and reports by teachers or others, the local education authority decide that a child is suffering from a disability of mind of such a nature as to make him incapable of receiving education at school, the local education authority must issue a report to that effect to the local health authority.

Sub-section (4) extends sub-section (3) by requiring that "a child shall be deemed to be suffering from a disability of mind of such a nature and extent as to make him incapable of receiving education at school not only if the nature and extent of his disability are such as to make him incapable of receiving education, but also if they are such as to make it inexpedient that he should be educated in association with other children either in his own interests or in theirs".

The majority of children reported under these sub-sections live at home and attend occupation centres administered by the Health Committee of the Council.

Until comparatively recently, once a child had been reported under either of these sub-sections he could not in any circumstances be dealt with under the Education Acts. Section 8 of the Education (Miscellaneous Provisions) Act, 1948, however, now provides, in effect, that if a child who has been reported improves to such an extent that he no longer needs to be dealt with under the Mental Deficiency Acts, he may be referred to the Education Authority so that they may consider whether he might now be given appropriate education.

JOHN BROWN,

Education Officer.

April, 1953.

The Municipal Vocational Schools of Stockholm

A Brief Survey

2.5.51

Vocational Education

in Stockholm

- A Brief Survey -

The question of establishing vocational schools in Stockholm was raised for the first time in 1900, but it was not until 12 years later that these schools actually began, once the municipal council had accepted a scheme of organisation based mainly upon that of the Munich vocational schools. Following legislation concerning municipal vocational education, the system of the latter in Stockholm was re-organised in 1920, whereby the different kinds of schools belonging to the vocational school system were separated, and new syllabuses were made out. At the same time, the whole scope of its activity was considerably extended. The organisation of the schools set up then has, in its essentials, existed to the present day and may be described briefly as follows.

The central authority for vocational eduction is the Royal Board for Vocational Training, which appoints the Inspectors. A municipal board exercises the local management of schools for vocational training and has as its chairman a Deputy Mayor /"borgarråd"/ for the City Educational Department. For the direct management of the schools and for the maintaining of direct contact between school and everyday life, there is an advisory committee of five members as a rule, representing each trade or group of trades. On these committees there are specialists in each type of trade. Employers' associations and workmen's unions of the trade in question appoint one representative each. A Director is responsible for the overall management of the vocational schools, and under his supervision are at present four schools, each conducted by a Principal. They are: The Schools for Industry and Handicraft, the Schools for Sewing Trades, The Schools for Domestic Science, and the Schools for Commerce.

A total of about 13,000 pupils yearly profit from the above-

mentioned schools.

In addition to these vocational schools, there are two more: The Stockholms Municipal Higher Commercial School and the Stockholm Municipal Technical Evening School.

The Higher Commercial School is supervised and conducted by a board consisting of the members of the municipal Board for Vocational Training and the Principal of the School. The Technical Evening School has a board and a Principal in common with another school, The Stockholm Higher Technical School.

Along with the ordinary instruction in the schools, the Board for Vocational Training gives instruction on social conditions through four expert advisers.

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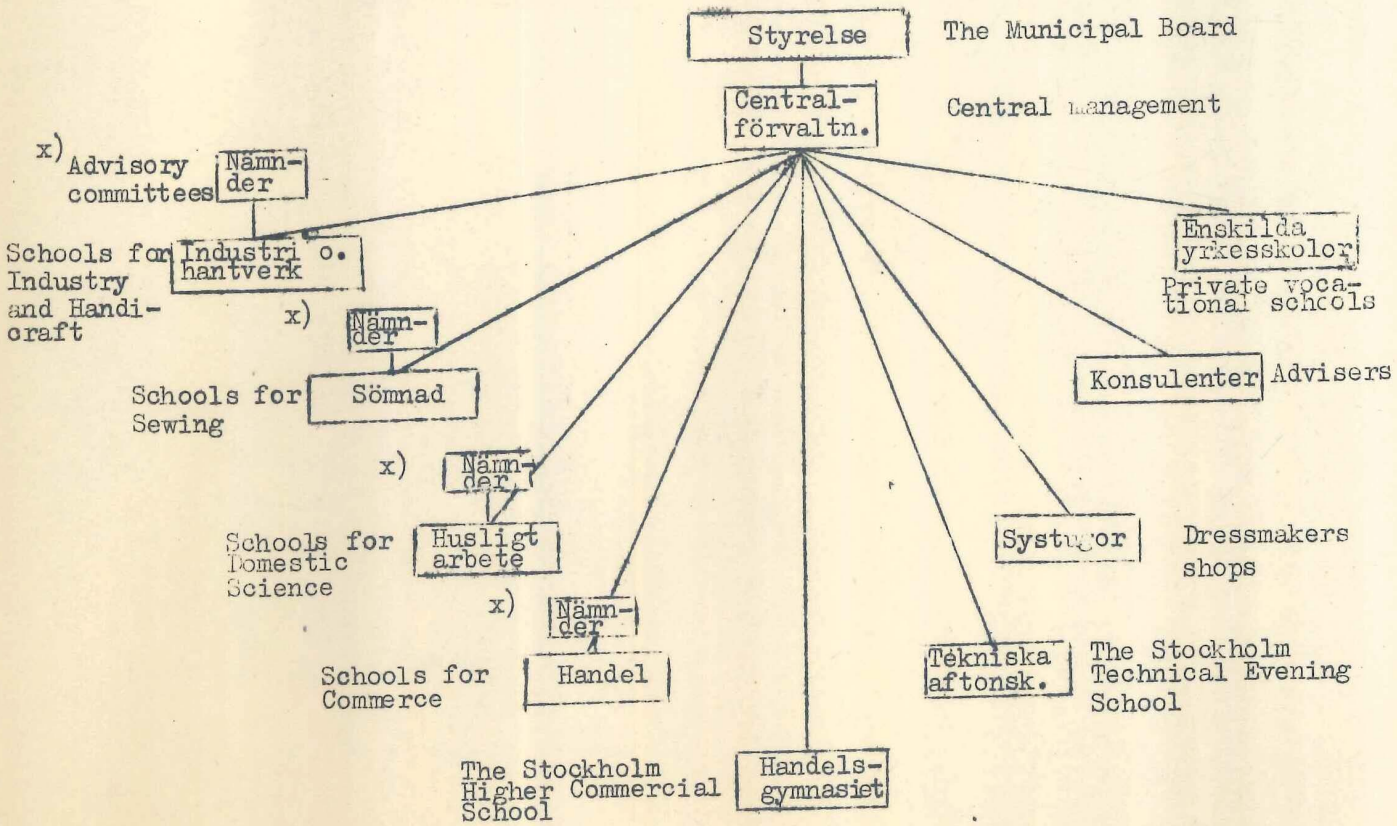
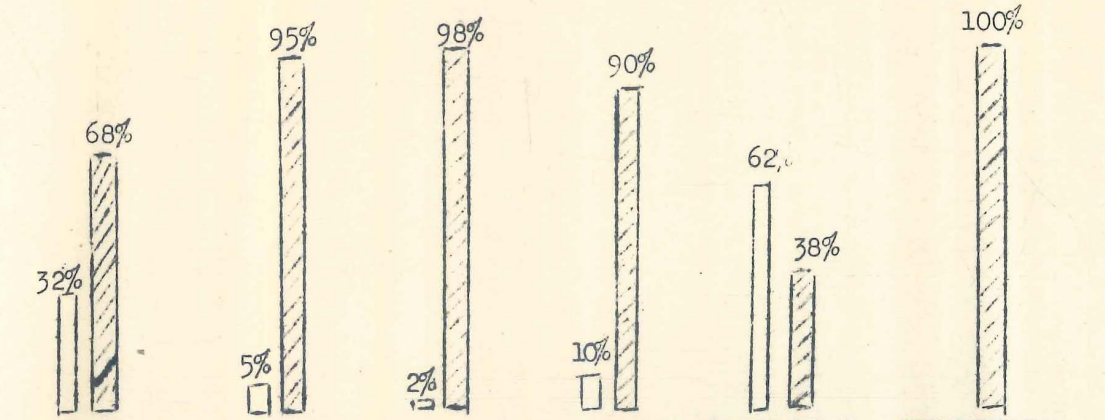
The Board also places annually quite considerable subsidies at the disposal of private schools.

Organisation of the Vocational School System

and its Various Branches of Activity.





The pupils in the vocational schools divided in education in day- and evening-time.

Schools for Industry and Handicraft.

After the re-organisation, in 1920, of the vocational schools in Stockholm, there are chiefly found three different types of schools: Workshop Schools, Apprentices' Schools, and Schools for Further Vocational Training.

The Workshop School is intended for beginners in a trade and provides fundamental vocational education from the first simple instructions of handling tools to more all-round knowledge and proficiency in the trade. The object of the Workshop School is thus to give young people such education as to enable them to obtain an employment in the trade.

The pupils are generally admitted to the Workshop Schools at the age of 15 years. After their admission, the pupils have to undergo a probation period, varying between four weeks and three months, at the

branch to which they have applied. During this period the teacher is able to judge the pupil's qualifications to profit in a satisfactory manner from the education. If the pupil lacks the necessary aptitude for that branch, he is transferred, if there is a vacancy, to another branch of the Workshop School that is more suitable to him.

At school the pupils have to do different kinds of work, thus receiving an all-round training and a knowledge of the various aspects and branches of the trade. In order that the pupils may get practical training at the same time, they have to carry out contracted jobs of varying degrees of difficulty. Out of the income from these jobs, money is paid out to the pupils according to how much diligence they have shown. The gross income from the work produced amounts to some 650,000 Swedish Kronor every year (approx. £ 43.300).

Along with practical training, theoretical subjects are taught 6 - 15 hours a week, varying for different trades. These subjects are, among others: Practical Mathematics, Engineering Drawing, Materials, Calculations, and Trade and Labour Legislation. The total duration of the instruction given in the Workshop Schools is 46 hours a week, varying within the different trades by from 2 to 4 years.

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Schedule of the Courses

in the Workshop Schools:

Length of Course	School for:
2 years	Mechanics, Engine Mechanics, Motor Car Mechanics, Aeroplane Mechanics, Welders, Tinsmiths and Platers, Electrical Installation Workers, Plumbers, Photographers, Joiners, Upholsterers, Bricklayers, Butchers, Dressmakers /for Trousers and Waistcoats/.
3 years	Instrument Makers, Blacksmiths, Painters and Decorators, Dressmakers for Furs.
4 years	Watchmakers, Cabinet Makers, Tailors, Furriers.

The Board for Vocational Training has always tried to keep the Workshop Schools in close touch with the employers in Stockholm. This principle has been followed in the organisation accorded to the majority of the Workshop Schools. At the School for Painters and Decorators, for example, the greater part of the pupils are sent to various master house-painters in the town, who allow them to do house-painting work in the town under the guidance and superintendence of masters and teachers, the pupils receiving the usual wages as apprentices. At the School for Bricklayers, for instance, the pupils are first trained for two months and are then sent to building-contractors in the town to take part in productive work for the usual apprentices' wages. Similar contact has also been obtained through the re-organisation, in 1925, of certain departments of the Workshop School for Mechanics, in such a way that two classes alternate with each other, as a rule every three months, so as to enable the pupils to attend one class for three months at the school's workshop, while, at the same time, the pupils of the other class are placed as apprentices at various mechanical workshops. The two classes alternate with each other during the second year and the following years of their training.

There have been courses for women's and men's hairdressers similar to those in the Workshop Schools, and this has promoted co-operation between school and employers. The Schools that were previously conducted by the employers, themselves as private schools were taken over by the City of Stockholm in 1938. All the pupils of these schools have employment in the town and receive, in addition, practical and theoretical education at the school's hairdressing practice rooms, varying between 6 to 22 hours a week during 3 or 4 years.

Since 1926 Journeyman Trials have been arranged at the Workshop Schools. These trials are held in the presence of certain examiners appointed by the Craftsmen's Association. If a pupil has passed his

trials exceptionally well, he is awarded the Medal of this Association, or a prize. In addition, the pupil receives a Journeyman's Certificate.

The Apprentices' School is, unlike the Workshop School, intended for those who are already employed in a trade and who wish to complete their practical and theoretical vocational training.

Within the Apprentices' School there exist three different types of schools: departments for the vocational training of pupils of from fifteen to eighteen years, apprentices courses and senior courses. In the vocational departments the pupils are taught, among other things, Knowledge of the Trade, Economics, and Trade and Labour Legislation. The departments for vocational training always comprise two years, training and instruction is given for from 6-9 hours a week. They are designed for mechanics, cabinet makers, electricians, and bricklayers.

Along with the departments for vocational training there have been established so-called apprentices' courses which are to give the pupils a more extensive knowledge of one or more of the subjects suited to their trades. These courses vary from one to eight terms' duration. Among the numerous courses may be mentioned those for men's and women's hairdressers, the training period being 3 and 4 years respectively; a two-year course for piano-repairers; and a course for instrument-makers in the optical industry. Among the apprentices' courses may further be mentioned a course for restaurant cooks (men and women) and a course for manageresses of the cold buffet.

The course for cooks is intended to give the beginner fundamental instruction in the art of cookery and a sound knowledge in the organisation and economy of the kitchen. By dividing the course into theoretical and practical instruction, and by arranging it partly in the school itself, and partly in restaurants fully catering for the public, the organisers of the course have set up a comprehensive study-programme.

During their training period, the pupils get many advantages. In-

struction is free of charge and meals are likewise provided free. During the first six months they receive contributions towards rent, and during the next eighteen months, so-called pupils' wages. Prizes are also awarded.

The course for manageresses of the cold buffet is held mainly on the same lines as the course for cooks. The pupils are taught how to make cold dishes, and how to arrange a 'smörgåsbord' (an array of Swedish hors d'oeuvre) among other things. The advantages are the same as those in the cooks' course.

Both are two-year courses, and are held at the Municipal Restaurant School which is housed in the Hasselbacken Restaurant in Djurgården, Stockholm.

Special apprentices' courses in theoretical subjects are also arranged for the employees of the L.M. Ericsson Telephone Co., Stockholm. The courses are principally designed for mechanics and weak-current electricians.

The senior courses organised by the Apprentices' School are intended for semiskilled workmen above 18 years of age who have had no opportunity of attending the vocational training classes in the Apprentices' School.

In addition to the above-mentioned vocational courses, other courses are arranged for such categories as pipe-fitters, concrete-and-cement workers, stone-breakers, weak-current and high-tension-current electricians, assistants in the colourman's trade and for gardeners.

For laundry assistants there are two courses: one that is preparatory, and one that is intended for laundry managers, located in the Stockholm Municipal Laundry School. The preparatory course is intended to provide fundamental training in the laundry trade and entitles the pupils to enter the laundry-managers' course. In the course, which lasts about 20 weeks, are included the following subjects: Chemistry and Labo-

ratory Work, Practical Arithmetic, Laundry Management, Practical Swedish Composition, Trade Work, Gymnastics and Games. The trade work is run on the same lines as in a commercial laundry.

The course for laundry managers takes about 24 weeks. The courses are open only to pupils of at least 18 years of age who have completed the preparatory course. Besides this, the pupil must have at least one year's all-round practice in the trade. The instruction comprises, in addition to the above-mentioned subjects, Physics, Textiles, Applied Mechanics, Time and Motion Study, Industrial Psychology, Organisation, Calculations, and Book-Keeping.

Like the pupils of the Workshop School, the pupils in some of the Apprentices' School receive rewards for application. As an example of the amounts of the rewards mentioned, the pupils in the laundry school can get up to 30 Sw.Kr. (approx. £ 2) a month, and those in the laundry-managers' school up to 60 Sw.Kr. monthly.

The School for Further Theoretical and Vocational Training is a superstructure on the Apprentices' School. For entry it is necessary either to have attended the apprentices' school or to have reached 17 years of age, and to have worked at least two years in the trade included in the course. Instruction comprises on the one hand independent courses of different theoretical subjects, and on the other, vocational training courses forming continuation instruction in a certain number of subjects needed for a particular trade. The courses are organised in different ways according to the needs and conditions prevailing.

The instruction at these three main types of schools is quite free of charge, with the exception of certain apprentices' courses and courses in special subjects and in vocational training. The entrance fees for these courses are very moderate, varying from between 2 - 25 Sw.Kr. (from 2/- to £ 1.10.- approx.) to which are added certain costs for materials.

Schools for Sewing Trades.

The Schools for Sewing Trades, being the collective name of the schools for dressmakers, ladies' tailors, milliners and for makers of ready-made clothes, are, on the whole, organised on the same lines as the Schools for Industry and Handicraft. In these schools, too, the Workshop School provides fundamental instruction, the stress being laid on practical vocational education. Theoretical instruction is given in Trade Technique, Pattern Design, Economics, Engineering Drawing, Materials, Trade and Labour Legislation, and Trade Hygiene. The courses are free of charge and held in day-schools. For each trade there has been fixed a certain probation period. Having finished the probation period, the pupil, as a rule, gets rewards for application. Continuation courses in evening schools offer the pupils a chance of receiving advanced education and of specialising at a trifling cost.

These courses are also accessible to adults, but it is a minimum requirement that the applicant should have gone through the Workshop School or otherwise must prove to have at least two years' practice in the trade in question.

The School for Dressmakers is a two-to-three-year school giving chances of a continuation year (a so-called Practice Year) at a dressmaker's work-rooms. After finishing this practice year, the pupil is entitled to pass a journeyman's trial.

The School for Ladies' Tailoring is a three-to-four-year school. Like the dressmakers, the ladies' tailors can have a practice year, which, however, is to be passed at the school itself.

The School for Milliners is of two years' duration. Before leaving school, the pupils have to pass a final test in order to obtain a certificate.

The School for Makers of Ready Made Clothes comprises apprentices' courses of 10 months' duration. In addition to the practical training

in Whole Piece and Tempo Work (-), the syllabus contains Trade Technique, Materials, Trade and Labour Legislation, and Trade Hygiene. Their probation period is two weeks. 85 per cent of the school's income from the sales of the work produced during the course is set aside for rewards for application to be divided among the pupils.

Besides the compulsory subjects, the syllabus contains optional English and Franch, with the stress laid on learning a limited vocabulary and some technical terms, and on the translation of easy texts.

Moreover, there is instruction in voluntary solo and choir singing free of charge for those interested.

Besides the sewing schools mentioned, there have been arranged special courses for domestic sewing. There are some 250 courses every year, comprising, for instance, Dressmaking, Sewing, and the Making of Children's Clothes.

Mothers with small children can attend the courses, as there is a nursery at their disposal where, at a trifling cost, they may leave their children, while attending the course.

Schools for Domestic Science.

These schools comprise, among others, training courses for domestic servants, housekeepers, and, for those serving as attendants at school meals, short housewifery courses, and other courses in domestic science. Instruction comprises practical as well as theoretical subjects, such as Cooking and Baking, Theory of Nutrition and Foodstuffs, The Keeping of the Home, Domestic Economy, Health and Child Care.

Several courses are intended for girls who wish to receive fundamental training in housewifery while they are earning their livelihood. Girls wanting further training in domestic duties, as a preparation for trades in which such training is considered desirable (e.g. for hospital-nurses), can receive it in the so-called housewifery courses which last for four months.

In collaboration with the Housewives' Association, four housewifery courses for adults are arranged every year. They are intended for those wishing to set up a home. In the instruction are included practical as well as theoretical subjects. Besides the courses there are lectures on housing problems, family hygiene, parent and child psychology, and sociology. These courses are given free of charge. The pupils have to pay 25 Sw. Kr. (approx. 30/-) a month for food.

In addition to these housewifery courses, short courses in Domestic Science are arranged. The duration of the instruction varies between 12 and 100 hours, depending on the difficulty of the subjects. Instruction is given in the simpler and more elaborate arts of cookery, preserving, baking, keeping the home, and domestic economy together with book-keeping. The courses, about 250 per annum, are free of charge.

Courses giving instruction in cooking are arranged for housewives with large families. These courses are held in the Municipal Nurseries.

Since 1948 the town authorities have organised vocational training courses for housekeepers. Instruction lasts 2 terms, and its object is suitable training in managing a large household with foresight and economy. The education qualifies the pupils for employment at for example officers' messes, boarding-schools, tourist centres and similar institutions.

The school for domestic servants organises three courses held annually, one a long course, one a short course and the other a continuation course. The long course admits young pupils with at least six months' practical experience. The course goes on for 33 weeks and comprises practical and theoretical instruction.

The short course (11 weeks) is specially adjusted to suit pupils with greater practical knowledge able to avail themselves of intensive instruction. Eighteen is the minimum age for entry. Applicants should, moreover, have had at least two years' practice. The certificate of this

course is the equivalent on the whole to that of the long course.

Continuation courses embracing about two hundred hours are arranged for domestic servants and those who are interested in Domestic Science and have had long and qualified experience as well as for domestic servants who have passed their final examination in the long, or short, course. If the pupil should desire to carry on her employment during the course, it will be possible for her to do the course in stages and study one or two groups of subjects at a time.

Instruction is free of charge for all these courses. A certain fee for food is to be paid, but the pupil may be exempt from this fee after application. The domestic servant school has a boarding-house of its own accommodating 18 pupils. The pupil pays a rent of 20 Sw. Kr. per month for sharing a room. Bed-linen etc. is included.

Schools for Commerce.

The commercial education carried on earlier by the Stockholm Municipal School (Stockholms Borgarskola) was taken over on July 1, 1924, by the town authorities and transferred to the schools for vocational education, where it was combined into a special group of schools, The Stockholm Commercial Schools.

The object of these schools is to give instruction to young people of both sexes who leaving school at different stages in their education, desire to prepare themselves for occupations in business and industry, in retail shops, or else in commerce, as well as to give supplementary commercial education to people of any age practising a trade. With their many classes and courses partly in the day-time, partly in the evenings, the schools meet a great number of study requirements, from all-round education in preparation for exacting office work to specialized education in particular subjects.

The schools comprise commercial day schools with full-time instruction, language courses (Swedish + one foreign language), courses for

office-clerks, courses in the subjects of the school for further vocational training, separate courses in shorthand and typewriting, and schools for shop assistants.

The commercial day schools with full-time instruction comprise a general department of commerce, a one-year commercial enterprise course, a secretary-course, and courses in Swedish and foreign commercial correspondence.

The general department of commerce embraces studies for three years, and its object is to give the pupil a fundamental general commercial education. The pupils receive instruction in commercial technique, commercial geography (including knowledge of merchandise), economics, sociology, commercial law, foreign languages, and in certain extra subjects. Entry is open to those who have gone through Elementary Schools.

The one-year business economy course is designed to give pupils who have sufficient general knowledge already such knowledge as will be necessary for the execution of more exacting tasks, especially those involving knowledge of accountancy. Instruction is given in book-keeping, commercial arithmetic, theory of commerce, and sales and publicity technique. English lessons in reading and conversation are also included in the course.

In the course for secretaries and the course in foreign commercial correspondence, instruction is concentrated on German, English, French, and commercial technique.

The courses in Swedish commercial correspondence involve typewriting, Swedish shorthand (Melin system), the Swedish language, Swedish commercial correspondence, commercial arithmetic and handwriting lessons.

The language courses comprise courses in Swedish and English, Swedish and French, and Swedish and German. They are evening courses extending over five terms in all, the first term of which is an apprentices' course and the remaining four terms further vocational training courses. The minimum age of entry is 15 years.

The courses for office-clerks consist of a two-year apprentices' course and a one-year further vocational training course and comprise technical commercial subjects.

In the commercial schools too, the subjects for the further vocational training courses are designed to provide a continuation of the apprentices' courses. To be admitted to these courses the pupil is required, among other things, to have gone through an apprentices' course or to have reached the age of 17 years and possess the corresponding knowledge and to have had at least two years' experience. Among other courses are tax legislation, self-assessment of taxes, statistics, office organisation, window-dressing and decoration technique, and sales technique.

Further, there are special accountancy courses extending over four terms. The conditions of entry are elementary knowledge of book-keeping and "realexamen" (corresponding to the school certificate examination). Additional requirements are at least 5 years' approved practice and the attainment of the age of 25 years or over.

The retail trade courses, day-courses and evening-courses, comprise the following branches: textiles, ladies' clothing, men's clothing, provisions, colourman's trade, and iron-mongery.

In some branches the day-courses last for one year, in others for two years. Instruction is given in Swedish, English, theory of commerce, knowledge of merchandise, commercial arithmetic, book-keeping, commercial correspondence and lessons in handwriting. On certain occasions, the schoolwork is substituted by practical training in shops.

The evening-courses extend over three years of study, the first two years' instruction of which is considered as an apprentices' course and the last year as a further vocational training course. The courses may be entered directly after pupils have left the Elementary school.

Six practice-rooms are installed in the new premises of the Commercial Schools provided with a stock of goods for the above branches.

In co-operation with The Swedish Insurance Association, The Swedish Advertizing Corporation, and The Swedish Bank Union, a number of special courses of varying length have been arranged.

Gymnastics and Physical Training.

The majority of the pupils of the full-time day-schools have gymnastics instruction for one to three hours a week. The further vocational training schools have, besides, their own athletic association in which the pupils take a keen interest. The association works in several sections, among which may be mentioned football, ice-hockey, table-tennis, badminton, and shooting. An extensive and fine collection of prizes bears witness to the fact that the schools have fostered many capable athletes among their pupils. The athletic association also publishes an annual report to which the pupils themselves have contributed.

Teachers.

The practical instruction is conducted by teachers employed annually, whose duties of appointment comprise 46 hours per week in the Schools for Industry and Handicraft, and 30 - 40 hours per week in the Schools for Domestic Science. The teachers of theoretical subjects are either given yearly appointment or are part-time teachers. Special-subject teachers appointed by the year in the Schools for Industry and Handicraft have to instruct for 30 hours per week, and in the Schools for Commerce 24 - 30 hours.

The teachers have to a large extent, a university degree or the degree of a college of technology or the Diploma of the College of Commerce ("Handelshögskolan"). All the teachers of the Schools for Domestic Science are trained cookery teachers. Those teaching on the practical side have, as a rule, undergone special courses and have had long practical experience.

The Stockholm Higher Commercial School.

In 1945, the higher department of the commercial schools was transformed into a so-called "Handelsgymnasium" (a higher commercial school). It consists of two departments, namely, a two-year day-line and a four-year evening-line. Both courses are intended to give the same standard of knowledge and are completed by the same examination. The final examination entitles the pupil to enter the College of Commerce.

The Stockholm Technical Evening School.

The object of the Technical Evening School is to make it possible for young people employed in commercial and industrial life to obtain, alongside of their daily work, a general cultural education and the technical training that, besides practical experience, is requisite for technicians such as, foremen, draughtsmen and assistants in technical offices and laboratories.

The school comprises a lower and a higher department, each giving two years' instruction. In the lower department the subjects taught are Swedish, German, English, Arithmetic, Physics, Chemistry, and Drawing. This department is also meant to prepare the pupil to enter the Technical Higher School in Stockholm.

The instruction in the higher department specializes in various technical sides such as, engineering technics, motor-engine technics, steam-engine technics, strong and weak-current electrotechnical engineering, etc.

Other Instruction.

Dressmakers' Workshops.

Activity of another character than the rest of the further vocational training courses has been conducted, since 1943, by the so-called Systugor (dressmakers' shops). The public is given advice and guidance as to washing, ironing, darning, mending, the daily care of one's clothes,

etc. Instruction is also given concerning renovation and alternation of old clothes.

As far as room permits, these "Systugor" are also exploited as workrooms for those interested in sewing who have no sewing-machines of their own. Every visitor to the "Systugor" pays a fee of 25 öre (approx. 3 d) each time. That the interest in this activity is great and much in demand is shown from the number of visitors 17,500 during the year 1950. There are at present twelve "systugor" in various parts of Stockholm.

Advisers.

At the service of the public there is, moreover, an adviser who may be consulted free of charge on questions about the care of clothes. The adviser also gives information concerning the care of bedding, sewing, weaving, and knitting.

There are three advisers attached to the Schools for Domestic Science, namely an adviser on house-furnishing, and two advisers on domestic problems. The principal task of the adviser on house-furnishing is to be of service to young couples who are going to start a home and family. The adviser is to help them to plan wisely when procuring equipment, such as furniture and other fittings for their home so as to fit in economic with practical and aesthetical requirements. The advice is given partly through personal consultation, and partly in connection with courses and lectures. Exhibitions of furniture and textiles are also held, as well as special displays of glass, china, and pictures.

The duty of the advisers on domestic problems consists of demonstrations of various kinds in food, preservation, washing, utensils, etc. short cookery courses, lectures and the giving of advice on food and nutritional questions, kitchen-planning, the rationalization and organisation of domestic work.

Municipal Subsidies to Private Vocational Institutes.

To make it possible for private vocational institutes to work in their respective districts, the Municipal Board for Vocational Training subscribes annually considerable amounts totalling about 540.000 Sw.Kr., to a great number of institutes. Among those to receive subsidies may be mentioned the Vocational School for Book-Making Craft, the Fredrika Bremer Society's Higher School for Ladies, the Women's Settlement (hemgård), Frans Schartau's Commercial Institute, Gålö Agricultural School, and Sunnerdahl's Practical Junior School.

Scholarships.

State scholarships may be granted to pupils without private means, or of small means. These scholarships are, however, granted only to pupils attending complete continuation courses of at least five months' duration. The scholarships, as a rule not exceeding 60 Sw. Kr. a month, are granted to necessitous pupils living at home while attending school. A pupil without private means, who has to be accommodated outside his home, may be granted a scholarship not exceeding 115 Sw. Kr. a month.

A student at the Higher Commercial School domiciled outside Stockholm and compelled to get board-and-lodging accommodation in Stockholm, can be awarded either a primary scholarship of 500 Sw. Kr. (about £ 35) without any inquiry into his needs or a so-called maintenance scholarship of not more than 540 Sw. Kr. (about £ 38). Contribution towards travveling between home and school may also be granted. A student domiciled in Stockholm can be granted a maintenance scholarship of not more than 540 Sw. Kr.

Students who are highly gifted for studies may be granted loans out of the public study loans fund. The loan is given without any security being required.

Besides the above State Scholarships and loans, the students can obtain the necessary means to study scholarships from private societies and unions.

School Meals.

Since 1947 free school meals have been arranged for pupils in schools with full-time day-lessons.

Text-books.

All the pupils registered in Stockholm and attending Workshop Schools, the vocational training departments of the Apprentices' Schools, Apprentices' Courses with day-lessons, or schools that are in most respects comparable to Workshop Schools, receive free text-books and free educational materials.

Libraries.

In the schools there are four libraries intended for teachers as well as pupils and containing technical literature, sociological literature, and, to some extent, works of fiction. The libraries comprise in all some 13,000 volumes.

Travelling Scholarships (Bursaries) for Pupils.

Schools that date so shortly back in history as those of the Board for Vocational Training have in general not obtained any great number of funds. The only fund alotted to these new schools is the Anders Granholm Stipendiary Fund. The object of this fund is to make it possible for apprentices in schools for blacksmiths and metal-workers in Stockholm to practise the corresponding trade abroad for three months and after that to continue their work in Stockholm.

Travelling Scholarships for Teachers.

Each year the Municipal Board for Vocational Training usually distributes 5,000 - 6,000 Sw. Kr. as allowances to teachers chiefly for travels

abroad.

Travelling Scholarships for Pupils.

It is considered highly important that the pupils of the schools should now and then make visits to suitable commercial concerns and to museums and other places so as to carry out study suitable for their vocational education.

The possibilities of paying educational visits to firms and institutions inside Stockholm and in its surroundings are made full use of. Moreover, study groups from the schools have visited large or special enterprises of various kinds in the country, such as Bofors, Sandviken, Hagfors Mills, Fagersta, Untraverken, etc.

Health Service.

The schools have two part-time physicians employed whose principal duty it is to examine the newly-enrolled pupils. They have, further, to subject all pupils who ought to be under special supervision owing to their state of health, to an additional examination, and to recommend them to apply to specialists and polyclinics. At the instance of the parents, the pupils may undergo calmette vaccination, and each year the pupils have their lungs x-rayed.

Under certain Government regulations pupils who have been injured at work, are entitled to certain sick-relief money during the time they are unable to work. In case of permanent disablement they may be awarded a life-annuity.

School buildings.

Owing to building restrictions caused by the scarcity of building material during the present time of crisis, the building problems have not yet been so solved as to keep pace with the present development of the vocational school system, which is expected to reach its culminating-point in the middle of the 1950's. The instruction is chiefly concentrated

in three school-buildings in Stockholm, viz. 35 Polhemsgatan (the Schools for Industry and Handicraft), 9 Bolindersplan (the Schools for Sewing Trades), and 25 Fridhemsgatan (the Commercial Schools).

Other courses and schools of various kinds are spread out in about thirty places in Stockholm.

Government Grants.

Since 1921, grants have been paid, according to the provisions of a Government Act, to municipal institutions for vocational education. The grant is paid out for each teaching hour. Government grants are also given for educational material and libraries.

The Government grant covers, at present, only a minor part of the cost, that is, scarcely 20 per cent.

Practical Guidance in the Schools for Vocational Training.

As part of the vocational guidance for pupils in the finishing classes of the Elementary School in Stockholm, the Vocational Schools arrange leisure-time occupation. The idea is that young people should be able to try one or more vocations. The young elementary-school pupils are allowed to visit the workshops and classrooms of the Vocational Schools, to see how the trades are carried on and to try to make use of tools, machines and materials. They also receive information about the different conditions connected with the trades. During one session lasting a year the pupils will be able to test 4 different trades. Pupils who so desire may choose a more extensive spare time course in one trade. The courses are held two afternoons a week, as a rule 2 hours each time. There are about 70 working-groups a year with some 1,000 pupils attending. This practical guidance of spare-time activity has proved to be of great importance for the choice of a vocation by young men and women.

In recent years there has been a general tendency to make the education in the highest forms of the Elementary School more practical. Some

elementary-school pupils of Class VIII (at the age of 14-15 years) have thus been able to get a preparatory vocational education by attending the courses of the Vocational School three days a week during their eighth school year. They have thus carried out this 8th school year by spending every week half of the time at the Vocational School and half of it at the Elementary School.

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THE SWEDISH INSTITUTE
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SOME FACTS ON SCHOOL ORGANISATION AND CHILD WELFARE IN SWEDEN

Short Survey of School Organisation and Professional Training.

A. Survey of Swedish School Organisation.

More than a hundred years ago - in 1842 - the first Elementary School Law was enacted in Sweden, making school attendance compulsory for all Swedish children. The elementary school of that period comprised a six years' course; the first two years formed the so-called Infant School and the latter four years constituted the Elementary School proper. Gradually, a large number of school districts 1/ introduced a seventh year on an optional basis. In 1918, the State authorities made it obligatory for all school districts to add a superstructure to the elementary school, known as the Continuation School, providing at least 360 hours of instruction in a course of two years, or 180 hours (one year course) for pupils from five-year elementary schools. The Continuation School was to be "a practical school for adolescents, to establish and prepare young people's training for their future vocations, and to further their future social ability." The seventh optional school year, however gained ground increasingly, and in 1937 the Swedish Riksdag enacted a measure making the seventh year compulsory for all school districts, the reform to be carried out during a period of transition covering 10 years. In 1948 the reform is to be in effect everywhere.

Educationalists and youth welfare workers, however, have long maintained that seven school years plus 180 hours of continuation school are not enough to provide the necessary amount of education adequate for preparation for later life. The demand for an eighth school year has grown increasingly stronger, and in a number of school districts the eighth year is established as a substitute for the continuation school. Some ten districts have recently decided to make the eighth year compulsory, and their decision has been sanctioned by the highest Government school authority, the Board of Education, which

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1/ The country is divided into approximately 2.500 school districts, which correspond closely to the communal districts. The latter decide on local questions such as children's welfare, poor relief, and elementary education.

controls the Swedish educational system (elementary as well as higher schools) and supervises the observance of the school regulations.

All children from seven to 18 years must attend school, but if they have completed the compulsory education before the age of 18 they are, of course, exempt from further attendance. At present, the State defrays well above three-fifths of all expenses for the elementary school, whereas the communes (school districts) pay about two-fifths. According to statistics there are about 530,000 elementary school pupils in Sweden today. Within the elementary school there are different categories according to whether one, two or more classes are taught by the same teacher in one classroom, etc. Children can enter sencondary school (the higher school form) from the fourth or the sixth year of elementary school. About 32,000 children, equalling 0.5 per cent of the total number of Swedish children of school age, enter secondary schools. A great number of the pupils from elementary and continuation schools enroll in practical schools such as apprentice and vocational schools, technical schools, etc. Two comprehensive investigations are presently underway on plans to introduce far-reaching changes both in school organisation and school studies. The coming reorganisation of the Swedish educational system will no doubt bring about a considerable democratization of the schools.

Finally, mention should be made of the fact that since 1946 all elementary school children receive free exercise books and textbooks and free working material. In families with more than one child, each youngster receives his own books the same as other children. Certain municipalities secure the same benefits for children in schools other than the elementary schools.

B. Short Survey of Vocational Guidance, Professional Training, etc. Organisation

Not until 1940 did Sweden give full attention to the problem of offering guidance for young people in their choice of occupation. And it was not until the war that a centre for vocational guidance was established as a section of the State Labour Market Commission. In all provinces (numbering 24) there was a rapid organisation of special Youth Employment Agencies, the heads of which are simultaneously Vocational Guides. In Stockholm, Göteborg and Malmö, there are special Vocational Guidance Bureaus in connection with the local youth agencies.

Sphere of activity.

As a rule Vocational Guidance is intended to serve all applicants from elementary to college students. Where there is time, the work is done partly in the schools, partly at the bureaus, which are open to all categories. At the schools the guiding officers visit the graduating classes and those classes where the pupils are expected to choose between a high or a low final examination. They also visit the senior class of secondary schools where the students must decide on their major courses.

Methods.

Vocational Guidance is at present administered as a simple informative service coupled with aid for the young in obtaining probational or regular employment. Instructors and school medical officers usually are asked to provide information regarding pupils who visit the guiding officer on his rounds of the schools. The pupils themselves fill in detailed forms concerning their interests, etc.

Vocational Training.

In Sweden the communities have undertaken to provide elementary school children with a thorough training for practical employment within industry, crafts, housekeeping and business. Communes and provincial councils can establish state-aid schools, and there are, in fact, such schools in most towns and other urban communities, giving both full-time instruction (crafts, commercial and domestic science schools) and evening classes. Vocational residential schools are planned for the rural districts of all provinces. Regular school training of skilled workers in individual private industries is comparatively rare in this country. But even in private enterprises the crafts schools receive state aid. The great majority of workers have no training except what they have learned by actual working experience. Instruction by correspondence has long been of great importance in the training of an intermediate layer of skilled technicians coming from the ranks of the workers. State Technical Schools and similar institutions have been established. Instruction is practically free (15 kr. a term). There are many elementary agricultural schools, but only about one-tenth of independent farmers have attended such Schools.

Legislation for Protection of Workers.

Protective legislation for labour provides, for juvenile workers, that no child shall be employed for gain under the age of 13. For factory work etc., the limit is 14 years, and 16 years for labour in underground mines. With some exceptions, periodical medical examination is mandatory for juvenile workers. Since 1946 the Statutory annual paid holiday for young workers under 18 is three weeks. As a rule, children under 16 must not be employed on night shifts. Labour Inspectors supervise observation of these protective measures. The Labour Inspectorate, according to a Bill to be laid before the 1948 Session of the Riksdag, is to have its authority greatly strenghtened. A Bill for a thorough revision and mondernisation of the Workers' Protection Act is now being prepared and is expected to be laid before the 1948 Session of the Riksdag.

Education and Care of Handicapped Children.

There are special institutions providing care and instruction for the various categories of physically and mentally defective children. Blind, deaf and dumb, and crippled children, 7-8 years old go to special resident schools where limited vocational training is taught before the children leave school. Mentally defective children (with intelligence quotas below 70) are also, since 1945, required to attend school. They are given instruction in closed institutions supervised by the Provincial Councils. These so-called Central Insitutions receive children even in pre-school age and ascertain which children are educable and therefore suitable for transfer to School Homes. Uneducable children usually are cared for in Nursing Homes where they can stay for an indefinite period. When necessary, the educable children can continue at the School Homes and at affiliated Work Homes up to the age of 21. They also are trained for practical work. The stay is gratuitous throughout.

After the age of 21, the mentally defective return to their homes or are placed in ordinary work. Only those who cannot take care of themselves may stay on indefinitely at the Work Homes. At the Central Institution, however, records are kept of all who have left the Schools, and the Institution is prepared to help them in every way possible should the need arise.

Because of lack of accomodation at the Institutions, and the lack of a careful psychological diagnosis of school children in many districts,

only a fraction of mentally defective children attend these Special Schools. But a great building project - the establishment of Central Institutions in every administrative province - is being realized. Only in the largest towns is there instruction for mentally defective children living with their families.

For children in the intermediate group between normal and imbecile as regards educable capacity - the mentally debile with intelligence quotas between 70 and 85 - there are "Help Classes" within the elementary school. Recent estimates number the children in this group at about five per cent, but only about one per cent of children in elementary schools attend the Help Classes, a fact due to the lack of specialized teachers and the difficulty in carrying through the differentiation in the small districts.

C. Child Welfare Boards and their Work. Legal Position of Children, Child Welfare Institutions and Foster-Child Care.

Child Welfare Boards and their Work.

Under Section 1 of the Child Welfare Act, every communal district must arrange its Child Welfare under the provisions of the Act, and must take measures for the protection of young people within the district. As a rule, Communal Authorities have a special board for this purpose, the Child Welfare Board, which is entitled to take the name of Youth Board when measures regarding adolescent protection come under its jurisdiction.

The Boards are all organised along the same pattern. The Legislating authorities have been anxious to ensure the representation on the Boards of certain other forms of activity bordering on Child Welfare Work. It is thus provided that one member of the Board shall also be a member of the Communal Poor Relief Committee, another member shall be a local clergyman acquainted with parish work, a third shall be a teacher (male or female) at the Communal Elementary Schools or Continuation Schools, or a School Inspector especially appointed for the commune. In certain cases one of the members must, if possible, be a medical authority. Apart from these representatives for special activities, the Board shall have among its members at least two other men or women well known for their active interest in Child and Youth Welfare Work. At least one of the members must be a woman.

Section 2 of the Child Welfare Act provides that the Board shall attentively follow conditions prevailing within the commune in the field of child and youth care and education, and carefully ascertain that young people living in the commune and in need of such care as the Board is supposed to provide, be taken care of.

The Board is especially responsible for:

1. Taking the necessary steps regarding
   (a) maltreated, and neglected children, and children whose health is otherwise jeopardized.
   (b) demoralized children, and children in risk of demoralization.
   (c) young persons leading a disorderly, lazy, or immoral life, or otherwise showing serious demoralized propensities.
2. The care of necessitous, sick and unprotected children.
3. The supervision of the work of the Child Welfare Institutions of the Communal District.
4. The control of Foster-Child Care.

Under the Child Welfare Act, the Board shall promote activities for the care of children and young people and for that purpose shall further the establishment and development of an adequate number of Child Welfare Institutions and take other measures in order to ensure the welfare of children and young people.

These provisions put the entire responsibility for the welfare of children and young people within each commune upon its Child Welfare Board. And in this connection the Act rules that it is not sufficient for the Board to intervene when a child is in need of aid, but that the Board must act as leaders of the child and youth welfare and education work, and ensure the best possible conditions for such activity.

The Child Welfare Board is given considerable latitude to work along the lines it deems best. The object is to provide good Youth Homes, Day Schools, Play Grounds, etc. The Board is recommended to arrange for games and entertainment of children and young persons and to provide such things as the individual homes cannot provide. The Board should in general keep an alert watch on all matters within its field that occur within its District and it should try in time to improve what is deficient. The more energetic the preventive activity, the more seldom is individual intervention necessary on the part of the Board.

Additional important tasks have been imposed on the Child Welfare

Boards under other statutes, which are mentioned in the Child Welfare Act as referring to Family and other Acts on matrimonial birth, on children born in wedlock and out of wedlock, on adoption, on prohibition against leaving the country for people liable to pay alimony, on guardianship, and on some points under Criminal Law, etc. The duties of the Board are also mentioned in the Act on the advancement of children's maintenance contributions, and the Statutes on maternity benefits and mothers' allowance.

The Child Welfare Act thus has not limited the duties of the Child Welfare Boards to individual cases, but has given them tasks of a wider nature.

The Legal Position of Children.

The legal position of children is regulated by the so-called Child Laws.

They are:

1. The Act of 1917 on Children born out of Wedlock.

The importance of this Act is that it not only secures certain elementary rights against their parents for children born out of wedlock, but it has also endeavoured to guarantee the child's enjoyment of these rights. This has been done by providing for the appointment of child welfare inspectors, one for each such child as a rule. The inspector shall take steps to ascertain the birth of the child, to secure adequate allowances for its support, etc.

2. The Act of 1920 on Children born in Wedlock.

This Act provides for the legal position of children born in wedlock. There are provisions in regard to the child's name, on the care and support of it, etc.

3. The Act of 1917 on Matrimonial Birth.

This Act contains regulations as to which children come under the first or second of the above Acts.

If the mother was married at the time of delivery, her husband is regarded as the child's father.

If the mother was married, but the marriage had been dissolved by the death of the husband or by divorce, and the child is born within such time after the dissolution of marriage that the child may have been conceived therebefore, the deceased or divorced husband is to be regarded as the child's father.

The Act thus decrees that the child of a woman who, at the time of the infant's birth, was married, or had become a widow or whose marriage

was definitely dissolved by divorce not more than 300 days before the birth of the child (in case of divorce the period is counted from the date on which divorce won legal force), shall be regarded as of matrimonial birth.

The same protection is provided a child whose parents have married after its birth. Paternity, however, must first be ascertained in the same way as is decreed in the Act on Children born out of wedlock, i.e. by agreement or by decree of court.

All children who do not come under these headings are considered to be children born out of wedlock.

A child having matrimonial birth under this law can be deprived of it only by decree of court.

4. The Act of 1917 or Adoption.

Under this law Swedish citizens may adopt a child. Such a person is referred to as an adoptive parent and the individual adopted is called an adopted child. By adoption legal relations are established between adoptive parent and adopted child, relations closely corresponding to those existing between natural parents and children within wedlock.

Note. There is no obstacle to a person adopting his own child born out of wedlock.

Besides the above laws there is the Act of 1924 on Guardianship, and the Act of 1928 on Inheritance.

These laws are at present being subjected to a thorough revision, and recently an Official Report has been published with the aim of bringing the laws into greater harmony with present public feeling.

Child Welfare Institutions.

According to the 1945 amendment of the Child Welfare Act, a Child Welfare Institution is an establishment for the care and education of children, not to be classed with hospitals, nursing homes, institutions for cripples or schools for the mentally defective, or belonging to Child and Youth Welfare, public juvenile reformatories, or school homes belonging to the Schools districts. Special forms of Child Welfare Institutions are children's homes, children's holiday colonies, and institutions for half-open child welfare. Special types of children's homes are infant homes, mothers' homes, temporary receiving homes, and children's homes for permanent care.

The Provincial Councils supervise and are responsible for the Children's Homes activities, and according to fixed plans the Councils are to have accomplished the extension of this activity on an adequate scale within five years. State aid will be granted for building and equipping as

well as for administration of the homes. State aid is also secured for administrating holiday colonies and institutions for half-open welfare which, as a rule, are run by private associations or by the Communal Districts.

All Child Welfare Institutions come under the supervision of child welfare committees, Provincial Administrators, and the Royal Social Board.

Foster Child Care.

The 1945 amendment to the Child Welfare Act defines foster-children as children under 16 brought up in private homes other than those of their parents, or with specially appointed guardians to take care of them. Child Welfare Boards, in special cases, can decree that a foster-child shall remain under supervision in the manner prescribed for foster-children until the child has attained the age of 18.

Foster-children are under the supervision of the Child Welfare Board, and for this purpose the Boards are to appoint special foster-child inspectors. Those who receive foster-children must register with the authorities.