stimuli. This capacity to find comfort can lead to a vicious circle. The inactive infants need more stimulation than the active ones in order to reach the same level of social awareness, but they are the ones that get the least attention.

An important generalisation was made from analysis of the conditions under which infants first show visual attention to their surroundings. A moderate degree of stimulation favours development; too strong an arousal leads to regression.

The mother, in particular, varies her response at this early stage to the infant’s changing needs. She introduces variation and intensifies those actions which, at one moment, are pleasing to him and reduces her activity when the stimulus is too great. Social encounters with siblings and fathers are less accommodating; the infant may be ‘...bounced, tickled, tossed, or teased by the offer of toys withdrawn just before they are grasped...’

It is the non-maternal contacts which provide the growing infant with the experience of having to accommodate to an unaccommodating world.

A good deal of the book is devoted to records of the research data. She also uses the words ‘adaptation syndromes’ for constellations of items of behaviour described as ‘stable patterns of experience’ (SPE). In her search for groupings of these patterns, she has used concepts derived from Gestalt Psychology and from the constructs of Kurt Lewin.

The book contains the seeds of many ideas for fresh research. Although the author does not refer directly to the idea of temperament, her findings are essential to anyone who attempts to study the constitutional differences in infants, and the way in which infants respond to the varying conditions of upbringing.

The roots of individuality
by Sibylle K. Escalona
Published by Tavistock Publications at 100s.

'O' levels by post

Maurice Cooling, head teacher at Swalcliffe Park School for maladjusted boys, describes an experiment to provide GCE qualifications by correspondence course for boys who are intelligent but too disturbed for ordinary secondary school education.

The description ‘maladjusted’ is a blanket term and the variety of children in this category is large, with a wide range of disturbances and abilities. This article concerns maladjusted boys in a residential school-unit. This kind of unit is usually small, providing a school environment free from many of the stresses which a maladjusted child may have experienced in the past.

Some children in these units have learning difficulties, perhaps because of interrupted schooling and it may be some time before their classroom performance begins to be satisfactory. On the other hand, some of the children will not have had difficulties in school and, working in a more emotionally relaxed environment, may begin to make academic progress. So there can be a conflict between the therapeutic aims of the unit and the educational aims. It is essential to achieve a balance between the two.

It is important to cater for all aspects of a child's development and helping the child to fulfil his academic potential is particularly important for equipping him to take his place in society. Schools for the maladjusted tend not to emphasise formal 'schoolroom' learning and use a more generalised approach to education. But, for a child who, but for his handicap, would have followed an academically based school career, placement in a unit meeting his emotional needs might well restrict his academic development. The residential unit for the maladjusted child, with its essentially relaxed atmosphere, may be unable to provide the motivation for more formal learning. Certainly the emotional needs of the child must claim precedence though whether the academic needs can be met as well should be considered.

Although the staff-pupil ratio may be high in a small boarding school for disturbed children, the staff is not likely to be large enough to have specialist subject teachers to meet the various needs of the (probably small number of) academically advanced pupils as well as the needs of the
rest of the school group. Also the role of the teacher in a school for maladjusted children is rather different from that of his colleague in a day school.

It is necessary, therefore, to look for a solution to meet the academic needs of the small number of bright maladjusted pupils, while retaining the advantages of the school environment to meet the emotional needs of the child. How can a learning situation be created in which these children can enter for public examinations, so giving them a chance to reach the same academic standard as the mass of academically-orientated children in a day school?

At Swalcliffe Park we felt that correspondence courses were a possible solution and, with the help of the National Extension College, began 'O' level certificate work with a pilot group of students to see if the educational needs of the bright maladjusted child could be met. This method of working had obvious advantages. To a large extent it overcame the need for specialist teachers; it also allowed the teaching staff to continue working for most of their time with the majority of the school group under ordinary conditions.

The initial group was selected bearing in mind that each boy would have to be able to work largely on his own, receiving only the minimum of direct supervision. He had to be fairly well motivated academically and not likely to be adversely affected by his maladjustment. The intelligence level of the boy (after clinical testing) was considered, so were his academic attainments. For the pilot study, only older boys were considered.

The first difficulty was the need to make up leeway. The boys had large gaps in their general knowledge and education; it was necessary to fill in a great deal of detail before they had a core of knowledge and the technique with which to embark on a subject. It rapidly became obvious how different the educational approach in broad non-examination curricula is in comparison with one hemmed in by the requirements of an examination.

Once work has begun, the importance of the self-discipline of the student became paramount. Each had to develop his own working pattern, since there was none laid down as there would be in an ordinary school. There were more distractions too because, as well as being a school, the unit is also his home and something of a youth club. It takes a great deal of self-discipline to study while friends amuse themselves next door.

Even when the many difficulties involved in studying were dealt with, the examination itself had to be approached with care. Examinations are anxiety-provoking experiences for most people, for the anxious, perhaps slightly neurotic, maladjusted boy whose grip on the situation is likely to be tenuous to start with the examination atmosphere involves even more stress. But, with the co-operation of the examination board, a centre was established within the school and, to a large extent (though not completely), this countered the difficulty by allowing examinations to be taken in familiar surroundings.

At the end of the pilot scheme, it was possible to look at the successes and failures both in terms of examination passes and in terms of what had been achieved by the use of this teaching technique. Initially, the main advantage was the provision of a specialist type of teaching where specialist teaching staff were not available. A disadvantage of the correspondence course is that it is designed primarily for adult students and, initially, it took time to adjust to the texts and materials. Attempts were made to overcome this by allotting teachers to pupils on a subject basis, to help with interpretation, explanation and clarification of the text and lesson notes.

We selected four boys for the original pilot group. One of them had to be removed from the group within a few weeks for psychological reasons. The other three worked on together, two of them studying four subjects, the other five.

The examinations resulted in one boy getting three passes out of four (one was a grade one pass in physics). Another boy had two passes out of five and the third failed in all his subjects.

The failure of the third boy showed very clearly that we had not solved the problem of anxieties over the examination itself. Throughout the course his marks had been in line with those of the boys who did pass and the stress of the exam situation can have been the only reason for his lack of success.

Since leaving school and going to work this particular boy appears to have coped very well in classes that he attends as part of his career training. Even though the exams were too much for him it seems that the process of studying has left him better equipped to achieve successful employment. At least the principle of working for the purpose of reaching a definite goal has been established.

Unlike the conventional school system, where an individual would be in an examination group in which the group set the working pace, it was necessary for pupils to be self-pacing. Initially, this had its difficulties, as the pace set was often slow and would have meant taking far longer to study the subject than would have been possible in the time available.

The total school environment also offered many external attractions and pressures which worked against the would-be 'O' level pupil, especially if he was a sportsman. The pilot group of pupils had
the additional disadvantage of not knowing whether this technique could be made to work, whereas the pupils now and in the future will know that the technique has been used with success within the unit. It will also be possible for future candidates to see how past students found it necessary to apply themselves to study.

This method of preparation for 'O' level involves the difficulty of overcoming deficiencies in previous schooling but, with sufficient time, this can be done by providing additional work and material by the subject teacher as required. This pilot scheme also led to a critical assessment of the general curriculum and, as a result, there may be indirect advantages for those pupils who are not taking 'O' level examinations. It is a technique which will be used again, though its use will be modified by the experience already gained. It is a technique which could be used, probably fairly successfully, by other groups in similar circumstances, where specialist teaching is not available for those whose ability requires it.

Adolescent development

Readings in adolescent development
by Harold W. Bernard
International Textbook Co., 50s.

A COLLECTION of fifty articles, mostly from the United States, which have appeared in various places over the last ten years, are brought together in this book. They are well arranged in four sections and there is a glossary of terms as well as an index. The articles range widely from basic philosophical concepts, such as that by Carl R. Rogers, to much more detailed studies, such as that by David P. Ausubel on the effect on learning capacity of cultural deprivation.

The book gives ample evidence of the extraordinary variety and richness in the contemporary American scene, with the well-known problems of race, rioting and delinquency, and with the lesser known studies, projects and efforts to understand and care for young people at the crucial stage of adolescent development.

Carl Rogers giving a clear account of a Humanistic conception of Man, goes deeply into those specifically human qualities, all except the fact that Man, because of his self awareness, has always to live with the knowledge of his own eventual death. Many contemporary adolescents would find Rogers' liberal optimism too easy, and pre-occupation with death is by no means an uncommon feature at this stage of life.

But to study adolescence is to become aware of the state of society, for as the Albemarle Committee's Report said, adolescents are 'the litmus paper of a society' and here these Readings cover a large perspective, dealing with the concept of alienation, drug-taking and unemployment. The continuing effects of social injustice, from birth onwards are documented, and the Coleman Report on educational opportunity is discussed in an interesting account by James K. Kent.

Contributions by Leon Eisenberg, Erik Erikson, Paul Goodman and William C. Kravaceus enrich the volume and it makes for a collection of papers which should be of value to many people who wish to understand the bewildering variety of problems associated with young people against the background of rapidly changing technological/industrial society. For those professionally concerned, it emphasises how such a study must be multi-disciplinary, and requires the drawing together of much complex material.

W. H. Allchin

Interaction: nine studies
Ed. by Paul de Berker
Faber & Faber, 40s.

This is a short and reasonably priced symposium by eleven people, all actively engaged in some aspect of group work. The groups considered comprise small training groups; therapeutic groups in consulting rooms; a group of boys and girls; a Dutch prison, a hospital for sociopaths; a new long-term English prison; group work in training school teachers and in industrial management training; communication in a large multiple store; and, finally, the interaction between immigrants and an indigenous population. The contributors include psychologists, psychiatrists, sociologists, a journalist, a lay psychotherapist, a professor of education and a prison governor.

The sorts of interaction described vary from intense introspection, to thoroughly pragmatic considerations; from a group of six meeting a few times, to the evolution of staff-management interaction over a period of 53 years in a firm employing 16½ thousand people; from a therapeutic group for neurotics to the adjustments of whole sections of a city. The aims of the groups are equally varied: the academic objective 'to study the behaviour of the group and the individuals in it'; exploring self-awareness for therapeutic ends; increasing group efficiency, known.