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STAFFING REQUIREMENTS - SELECTION - TRAINING

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By P. Voirin

Character and limitations of this study

If we consider the nature of the functions exercised and the diversity of techniques called into play by all entrusted with the treatment of juvenile delinquents, we must make a distinction between the specialist group and the personnel properly called educational.

The educators are, it is true, youth experts. Their entire training and activity in education are directed towards the young person. But they are not specialists; they are not practitioners of a major science in the same way as a physician or a psychologist who practises the techniques which emerge directly from such a science. While the function of the specialist is well-defined, so that his selection and training do not set problems of principle of a really serious nature, the functions of the educator of young delinquents may be understood in various ways and remain ill-defined. They vary from country to country, and training for these functions may proceed in different directions and at different levels.

We shall be especially concerned in this study with the educator's function as it has gradually emerged from French experience, and with the training suited to the mission of the educator in French territories. We are aware that experience gained in such a field could not become an export article. It is the product of the spirit, needs, and means of a nation. Any borrowing from such experience must necessarily be subjected to transpositions and adaptations if it is to produce good fruits in another field. It is not inopportune to recall, on this point, item 3 of the recommendations made by the First United Nations Congress on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders: "In developing programmes and policies, due attention should be given to the developments in other

countries, with a view to the possible selective adaptation of those features that may be used effectively. In this regard it is desirable especially that the more positive elements of the programmes of other societies be selected and that a country should avoid the adoption of measures that are inappropriate either intrinsically or because of cultural differences".

That is why, at the end of this study, a discussion is envisaged which should make it possible to extract from experiences abroad those elements likely to be helpful in the selection and training of educators for young delinquents in various African countries.

Another preliminary observation relates to the idea of young delinquents itself. In law, it is a very clear idea: it denotes the minor who has broken the penal law of his country. But in reality there is often little in common between the accidental delinquent and the persistent offender between the young person whose mental and moral make-up remain healthy, despite the misdemeanour and the one in whom there is serious mental and moral deterioration. The youth expert must go beyond the convenient but rigid legal categories and make an effort to keep in touch with the real human being, and not separate him from the experience he has lived through. From this point of view, the young delinquents with whom we have to deal must be carefully distinguished from the young people who, put to the test by passing difficulties arising from their surroundings, have in many cases become delinquents in spite of themselves. The offence offers one advantage in this category, and that is to reveal the grain of sand between the cogwheels; the machine goes on working, but runs hot. Frequently, life itself sees to it that matters are put right at little cost, with the help of specialized counsellors, in a considerable proportion of these young people; and action by which they are put back on their feet is to a great extent a matter of prevention.

It is the same with those whose offence is in no way the sign of an acquired twist, but the result of a passing influence exerted by companions or surroundings. There is no doubt that this influence is a direct menace to their spiritual and moral integrity; but its neutralization by suppression or removal is still to some extent a matter of prevention. The important fact in both groups of delinquents is not the offence, but the nature of their malady: one type is simply lacking in self-confidence, the other under a passing threat.

They have nothing in common with those adolescents who have been perverted by long contact with surroundings which produce criminals, who are traumatised by mental shocks which imperil their basic equilibrium. Delinquents of this type require the lengthy and difficult treatment which is provided by the artificially constructed atmosphere of specialized institutions. These are the real delinquents. It is they who determine the selection and training of the educators produced by practical experiments in France.

Traditional functions of educational personnel
responsible for treatment of young delinquents

Nowadays no-one questions the rule that the selection of educators must be strict and their training of a high standard. A full and precise comprehension of these requirements calls for a consideration of the various functions of the educator.

Some of these are well-known because they are to some extent traditional. It is traditional today to say that the educator is the head of a household. In the premises where his pupils live, he sees to it that there is cleanliness and orderliness; and his ingenuity and imagination will add a human note to this. He knows that a sound, clean, and ordered setting plays an important part in the treatment of those in whom thought, feelings, and behaviour are dominated by confusion.

He is a leader of men, trained in the practice of human relations, and knows how to temper kindness with firmness, persuasion with authority; he observes and regulates the tensions which arise within groups; he knows how to bring the wills of young opponents into line with his own, yet is able to bring his own into line with theirs if the result is that their anarchic tendencies are fused into a common will and effort.

He collaborates with the specialists. He obtains information from the social worker about living conditions and surroundings, and he is capable of intelligently applying a certain number of medical prescriptions or the advice of a psychologist.

He is a prime mover in the field of leisure activities. Here he is called on to fight the tendency of young anti-social people to seek enjoyment in shoddy diversions and pleasures. He shows them how to discover activities which discipline the body, and the intellectual and human interests which they can incorporate into their lives and their view of the world.

He is, in fact, a man who takes a personal interest in the deprived and cowed delinquent, just as much as in the tough and domineering type. According to the case in hand, he is capable of reassuring and offering security to the one, or of mollifying and reconciling the other.

But the difficulty for him is how to decide, among the various types of service he gives, which the young delinquents are most in need of. We have, perhaps, yet to discover the real character of the educator they want, or so it would appear from the questions they ask on the subject. What does he want of them, this man who lives side by side with them, organizes and watches over their life, gives orders, rewards and punishment, directs their work and takes part in their play, who is connected with their judge while being no policeman?

The educator, for his part, is in no less a perplexity. What do these lads want? Their universe seems to him to be strewn with ambiguities. They have often been involved very early in a course of events beyond their control and responsibility. They have borne their fate as an injustice or

as misfortune. This modern world, too big, too complicated for them, seems to them to be a lottery with incomprehensible rules. Hard to some, sweet to others, it invites them to resort to means which are the more effective the more firmly they trample scruples of conscience and moral values under foot. When their removal to an institution follows on intervention by the law, it is often a bitter defeat for them. They pay the penalty - for that is how they understand the efforts made on their behalf. To lift them out of this misconception and confusion, there is only one possible course: that a man go to them whose attitude toward them is clear, whose yea shall be yea and his nay shall be nay, a man who knows their problems and who is there to solve them.

This, in fact, seems to be the particular task of the educator.

Specific function of the educator

The classic functions of the educator are more or less directly dictated by the practical needs of running the boarding-school and organizing groups. His specific function is to apply a course of treatment in the technical sense of the term.

But what are the ills of which the young delinquent is to be cured? We shall distinguish three.

The young delinquent of western countries is, more generally than is realized, a lonely person. Not only has he, like any adolescent, achieved his slow changes in physiology and feelings in a certain inner retirement, but he has gone further: he has broken off contact with the society of adults. He has fled those who might reproach him for his conduct, denied his natural educators the right to concern themselves with his life, and protected his youthful liberty against their incursions and checks; he expects no good of contacts with those who represent, in his eyes, social conformity. It is this break which lies at the bottom of his refusal, mixed with a savage desire for liberation and emancipation. Adults come to represent to him a distant or hostile caste; it is pleasant to stand up to them or to have revenge on them.

The result of this process is a loneliness which is long masked by artificial or passing friendships, but it appears in the delinquent in full force at the moment when the apparatus of the law falls on him. This is a dangerous moment, great revolts or profound collapses occur; but it is also a moment of advantage if the educator can break the loneliness by again introducing another person. He can do this by making himself accessible, and available to all in need. His aim is not to impose his presence, but to make it wanted. His authority will in no way express his desire for power, but will make plain his wish to re-establish contacts. To frightened, bitter, or violent spirits he will bring reasons for confidence and hope. Such is the treatment that these young people crave.

This mute need is not the only one. They suffer another ill which is not sufficiently recognized. Bad teaching has done harm to the development and refinement of their intelligence; or their sensitivity has become hardened in conflicts of all kinds, through contact with premature experiences; or else, if they were by nature generous, and susceptible to ideals, no-one has ever come to ask for their help in such matters, apart from the code of honour of comrades or gang. The confused notion they have of themselves corresponds to the common reference to them as "unfortunates".

The function of the educator is to combat this particularly humiliating form of poverty, by revealing to each one the capabilities he had and which are dormant, because they were never developed. The action of the educator here, too, is an effective form of treatment. Any natural talent which is not developed in the child is corrupted by bad practices or dries up; other capabilities which cannot flower properly except in an atmosphere of abundance are in their turn perverted in their development or application. To give back to a young delinquent assets he thought he had lost, to prove to him by experiment that he can recover their use at the cost of some effort, that he is "more capable" or "better" than he thought is to help him to regain his self-respect. And this self-respect is the basis and condition for the reception of cultural and moral values. It is for the educator to reveal it.

But the way in which these young delinquents generally feel they have most suffered is in injustice. This feeling may well be entirely subjective, but it is deeply anchored in their spirits. The educator should therefore appear in their eyes as a just adult who will run through again with them, and for them, the administration of justice. For this purpose he will use the communal life of the institution: a microcosm in which are experienced, on a restricted scale, all the situations subject to sanction in society by human justice. It is a community in which clemency or pardon can be exercised, and whose foundations, conventions and motives can be easily discussed in private. It is a test-bench on which the young man can, if guided with benevolence and equity, work out his apprenticeship to a justice which guarantees rights but also demands of everyone the performance of duties. He must re-learn the meaning of the justice due to others, and perhaps also heal the sensitive wounds caused by those who, in the past, have shown injustice to him. He cannot do it alone.

Most of the influences which make criminals have their origins in society; but they do not drive the individual to crime unless they have first destroyed requirements and aspirations which formed as it were the foundations and motives of life. The ability to communicate which forms a bond to others, the assessment of oneself as a bearer of values and gifts, respect for a justice which implies a dignity common to all: these are the main-springs which move all men. The expert on juvenile delinquency finds these springs broken or warped in most of those he is called upon to help. The educator's specific intervention in the treatment of young delinquents must be applied at the level of this fundamental repair. He is neither called upon, nor equipped in knowledge, to give medical or psychological treatments. But beyond those necessary courses of treatment and therapies which are based on exact sciences and technical means, the work of the educator directly touches the zone of lonelinesses, artificial or undeserved poverty, and more or less congealed resentments in which most young delinquents keep their lives walled up.

At this point in our study two observations must be made. The experiments in training as conducted in France and which are now to be described apply to an educator whose function is permanent. In French practice, the educator remains educator to the end of his career. The work is organized in such a way as to provide for a hierarchy of grades in which a rise to a grade immediately above guarantees a more effective use of the experience gained in the lower grades. That is why the processes of selection and training which prepare people for this career may appear exacting when viewed in the light of circumstances abroad.

But there is another reason for these strict demands. It lies in the importance of a function which, in addition to the part it has to play in providing leaders and to practical convenience, must reach a specific level at which it will be equivalent to an actual course of treatment. It was with a view to the later, more highly developed forms it was to take that the training was organized at the National College for Educators (Ecole d'Etat d'éducateur) of the Department of Protective Education (Direction de l'éducation surveillée) in Paris.

The second observation takes the form of a question. Is it necessarily true that the characteristics observed in the delinquent youth of one European country are also the characteristics of the corresponding young people in other countries? In this connexion one wishes that systematic studies in differential psychology could be made among young delinquents belonging to different ethnic groups. We do, however, believe in basic needs common to all men. We believe that a young delinquent is, in some way, wherever he may be, a separated being; that at the deepest level he aspires once more to walk with his head up, and take his place one day among the adults of his people. In the same way, whatever the latitude, any poverty is hard to bear. The type of poverty which is the result of not developing existing talents or letting them run to waste is everywhere felt to be one of the worst, because it is the result of deficiencies which maim what exists and transform young people into assets with negligible value. So it seems that under whatever skies, these young people feel the same desire that justice should be done them.

To conclude this analysis, it seems to us that in describing the methods used in a selection and training designed to meet the fundamental needs of a particular group of young delinquents, we may hope that some general principles will emerge, applicable to the treatment of delinquents in other countries.

What follows is properly speaking the technical part of this study.

Estimating requirements in educational personnel

No estimates can be studied in depth unless based on a plan for manpower. This plan is drawn up to meet the needs of a specific body of juvenile delinquents; it lays down the nature and number of the services and establishments necessary for their treatment; it is limited by the ceiling of expenses budgeted for carrying it out. If there is no basic plan, the risk is that staff will be recruited according to the needs of the moment. They cannot be subject to any sort of serious selection if recruited under the pressure of immediate needs. There can be no worthwhile training if the first consideration is to supply the numbers required for staffing the establishments.

A second consideration enters into the evaluation of the educational personnel to be selected and trained for the future. How many educators are necessary to assure the treatment of a given number of minors? An estimate has been made by the administration of the Direction de l'éducation surveillée, taking into account the experience gained over twenty years. By a series of approximations, the conclusion was reached that one educator is required for 7 or 8 delinquents. In this average number we should include the heads of service who exercise educational control over one or more groups of minors, but not staff who give school lessons or physical instruction.

As an indication, the theoretical standards worked out for three establishments of different sizes may be set out in the following table:

Size of establishment	60	120	180
No. of service heads	2	2	3
No. of group educators ...	6	14	21
Total	8	16	24
No. of school teachers	2	3	5
No. of P.T. instructors ...	*	1	1

* P.T. instruction provided here by group educator.

There are, of course, theoretical norms always subject to a progressive and coherent policy, based on continuity of practice. However, they are worth bearing in mind, although the temptation is to ignore them when undertaking a basic manning programme which is bound to be unwieldy and costly. Experience has shown that if the staff of educators is overburdened because they are too few, not only is the educational treatment of the young offenders no longer assured, but many worthy candidates for the service are discouraged. On the other hand, one result of experience was to set up, within the educational staff, a category capable of reasonably good work in re-education - supposing that such people exist - and not to recruit highly specialized workers capable of carrying out educational work at the level defined in the first part of this study.

Preliminary selection

The object of this is firstly to eliminate obviously unsuitable candidates, and secondly to discard those who do not possess the qualities needed for the continuous practice of the profession. It is well known that the career of educator attracts, in addition to qualified people, a certain number of those who are merely curious and a certain number of

people who have not properly adjusted themselves to society. Candidates for the profession of educator are required to have passed the second part of the baccalauréat. But we must go further: this first hurdle takes no account of either the human values, or the positive aptitudes which make the real educator. For this reason, before being admitted to the competitive examination proper, candidates must pass medical and psychological examinations.

The object of the medical examinations is to discover whether the candidates meet the conditions demanded in physical suitability for entry to the public service. The medical examination proper is conducted by a sworn medical general practitioner and a T.B. specialist. The aim is to give evidence of any weaknesses or ill-health which would render the candidate unsuited to the profession of educator, and to discover the general level of physical fitness.

The psychiatric examination is directed towards discovering any neurotic disorders which are incompatible with the functions of the specialized educator. It comprises a clinical neurological examination, an interview, and a study of the normality of the general behaviour. Results are recorded on a card (under headings: normal, with peculiarities, with exaggerated peculiarities, neurotic), and also the degree of suitability for the work (very suitable, fairly suitable, unsuitable). Only the conclusions as to suitability are communicated to the administration. In this way all mention is avoided on the official record of any personal observations.

The essential aim of the psychological examination is to sort out the unqualified candidates. As many guarantees of objectivity as possible have been included. Only the basic tests have been chosen, whose value is unassailable, with bearings on the most varied aspects of personality. The maximum objectivity is attained by the convergence of the probabilities resulting from a large number of tests. The help of specialists in basic

tests is drawn on, and each one is restricted always to one and the same test, which he makes knowing only a few personal characteristics of the candidate, excluding the results of the other tests. Subordinate tests are analyzed by the psychologist chief of the team, who assumes the responsibility for drawing up the conclusions.

But the contacts which the educator must establish with the young delinquent, whether in his traditional or his specific functions, provide some delicate problems for the selectors.

These contacts have to be made in a form of relationship which is both very individualized and dominated by responsiveness to affection. In such exchanges, there is a great risk that if the adult who provides the functioning authority is at grips with personal problems arising from failures to adapt himself, he will transfer the load to the personality of the adolescent entrusted to him. The result is biased judgements, mistaken assessments, interventions based on subjective motivations, and unstable attitudes which run counter to the assurance which the young delinquent requires above all from the adult. Psychological techniques reveal these deep tensions.

The examinations are conducted in various regional centres, according to the geographical distribution of the candidates.

Favourable assessments are expressed in terms of the necessary professional discretion: not very suitable, unsuitable. Unfavourable verdicts are expressed in the same sober manner by the single word 'suitable'.

The competitive examination

After selection according to academic standard, represented by success in the baccalauréat, followed by the preliminary screening just described, the candidates for the School of Educators are sorted out by a competition in the true sense of the word.

They are submitted to a test in real situations in the course of a fortnight's trial in a public institution for supervised education (Institution d'éducation surveillée) for delinquent minors. During these two weeks they are put increasingly in contact with the realities of life in the profession and note is taken of what aptitude they show. This test is in itself selective: it often happens that the candidate decides of his own accord to withdraw, either because he has realized his unsuitability or else because he finds the contact with the young delinquents too much for him.

The actual competition consists of a written test, lasting four hours, on a subject which provides evidence as to the candidate's general culture and to the technical knowledge gained during the training period.

The oral test consists of questions on the psychology of young offenders, on the problems they have set during the course, and on the reactions of the trainees to these problems.

Finally, tests of physical ability conclude the competition.

The candidates who have reached the pass standard are listed in order of merit until the number of places available is reached. Every year 120 students, of whom 30 are women, are admitted to the School. There they are given a training which corresponds point by point to the various aspects of the work as described above.

Training the educator

The course lasts two years. The first, concerned with cultural aims, is spent at the School, the second, devoted to practical work, is spent in an establishment to which the student is attached as a trainee.

The year at school

The first concern here is to give the student the opportunity to study the adolescent's personality, the special problems he faces, and the causes of his failure to adapt himself to his environment and of his delinquency. With this in mind, the courses are varied in accordance with the distinctions now accepted between the various branches of the humane sciences. They are organized as follows:

- somatic factors in the personality;
- general psychology;
- psychology of the child and the adolescent;
- social psychology;
- sociology of work and leisure;
- urban sociology;
- a study of neuro-psychiatry; and
- factors in juvenile delinquency and the forms it takes.

The necessarily abstract character of these studies is tempered by the fact that all the instructors are, in varying degrees, active in the youth welfare organizations, so that the teaching they offer is based on actual experience.

However, they give their instruction in the form of a lecture to a whole class at a time. A difficulty here is the risk that the students will not be able to establish with their teachers the direct personal relations increasingly expected of teaching today. Something has been done to get over this difficulty by organizing, at the end of each course, a series of meetings in which each instructor is at the disposal of a small number of students.

This arrangement is the more important in that it is undesirable to allow the knowledge gained from a series of lectures to crystallize in the mind of the student as an accumulation of theoretical or abstract knowledge. If the future work of the students required them to play merely auxiliary

parts among the young delinquents, they would need to acquire only a smattering of knowledge. But given the essential role which they must play in the treatment of the young offender, there must be continual reference in their study of the life and sciences of man to the practical exercise of their future functions. Hence the serious level of their studies in psychology, sociology, and criminology, and the technical need to organize personal discussions with their teachers, who are also practitioners in maladjusted or delinquent youth.

These studies are not, however, limited to the science directly related to a knowledge of the young offender's personality and to a study of the causes of his various maladjustments. Since the educator has to spend his whole working life within the court and institutional organizations of his country, and in close contact with their officers, he must be familiar with them.

As far as court organization is concerned, he is an assistant of the juvenile court judge, taking part in the training of the minors whom the law has placed under the protection of that officer. He has a statutory position as part of the management of the services which co-operate in the legal protection of young people. This is why courses are given on the legal protection of young people and on penal law. Common law is not forgotten, because young offenders are often in confused situations which it is the task of the educator to sort out in family or professional surroundings. Finally, as a civil servant he must be familiar with civil service regulations and the modes of operation of administrative law.

The knowledge of social institutions acquired by the student at the School is necessary because the institute in which the young delinquent is trained is his doorway to the outside world.

When he leaves the institution, the young person has still to be protected; and the educator will be there beside him to assure, in open surroundings, the last stages of his protection by the court, but also to organize his social integration. Here the educator has to call on the

resources or take account of the directions of such administrative bodies as the Ministries of Health and of Education, the High Commission for Youth and Sports, the Ministries of Labour, of Social Security and so on. Regulations are many and confusing. Not a few young delinquents, still at the stage of convalescence, have relapsed into maladjustment because of this complexity. The educator must be there to serve as a support. That is why he is given an extensive and thorough course of instruction in the various institutions of the country.

Training includes a third section, concerned with the methods and techniques of observation and re-education as applied either in an institution (observation centre, approved school, or open institution) or in the natural surroundings, where the delinquent goes on living in accordance with a court decision (that is, a centre for guidance and education under the system of supervised freedom). But the chief concern of the first-year studies is to see that they proceed in contact with experience and life. All that the student has in the way of educational reality is the recollection of a brief fortnight's encounter with the pupils in an institution. He might well be inclined to the view that mere theory is a necessary evil and that only practice is creative. And it is right that the realities of his future calling should at all points enter into the sciences and skills imparted to him.

It might be thought a good thing to have one or more institutions in use as training schools for the educators of the future. The idea was rejected, because it is not a good thing to entrust the care of difficult young people to trainees at this stage. That is left to the instruction periods of the second year, when the knowledge acquired and the direction taken by a designedly practical training will have familiarized the trainee with the problems of his calling.

The concern for realism is shown in the fact that instruction in the basic disciplines relating to the sciences are taught, as we have said, by men and women who are in close and direct contact with the protection of

of minors. Similarly instruction in the methods of observation and re-education is entrusted to the inspectors of the Department of Protective Education, (Direction de l'éducation surveillée), and to the heads of the institutions. Finally, the presence of several heads of training permits the formation of teaching groups.

These are chosen, on the basis of certain personal and technical qualifications, from among those who have become heads of sections, and will probably become heads of establishments later on. In the teaching groups they organize they deal only with the difficulties encountered in the profession. In the form of practical work, a study is made of the files relating to young people in the various centres of observation, re-education or supervised freedom. Discussions and fruitful exchanges of views are based on real situations in education, of a delicate or complex nature, experienced either with groups or with individuals by working educators, who have themselves analyzed them before handing them for study purposes to their colleagues. We should add that the teaching groups are visited by certain educators passing through Paris; and these represent a source of first-hand knowledge about work in other establishments. In this way the influence of the inmates and services permeates the instruction given at the School.

Training would not be complete or really alive without its many profound contacts with life in the modern world and social reality. A specialized culture is indispensable; but that does not mean that a subordinate role should be assigned to that other culture which the educator acquires by keeping his eyes and ears open to his times. To this end, lecturers on technical matters and sciences periodically talk on their special fields to the students: history, biology, the theatre, atomic science, and automation have provided and will go on providing talks which, in forms and with adaptations as required, will later be eagerly received by the young people in institutions.

It is for their benefit, too, that their future educators take part in a session of educational and cultural activities. A whole month is given over to information and practice in the fields of music and singing, the cinema, reading circles, the dramatic and plastic arts, photography, and audio-visual techniques. Of course, these skills will be used in the institutions to provide evening entertainment, but they are intended more than anything else to acquaint the young delinquents with the varied popular forms of leisure activity from which they will be able to select in their later life. And in order to extend the range of leisure activities open to them to those in which Nature offers the healthiest relaxations, the student educator, regularly trained in sports, takes part in ten days' camping in the open air, where he is acquainted with sailing, climbing, cave-exploration, and hiking. These resources will stand him in good stead later, particularly when he has to organize his pupils' holidays.

There are still two aspects of his training to be noted, which are aimed at making him a practical man; they represent a training in the objective evaluation of situations and people and teach him to see the facts as they are in real life. These are the writing of monographs and a period of factory training.

The production of monographs is carried on throughout the year under technical and pedagogic direction. The subject is, in each case, taken from surroundings where the dominant facts of life are those with which the social and psycho-social sciences are concerned. Or it may be related to the institutions and services concerned in one way or another with the administrative or judicial protection of the young delinquent. The work involves investigations and interviews. The final result is a report which comprises:

1. A statement of the subject chosen;
2. an indication of the field of enquiry covered;
3. description and application of the techniques used;
4. results obtained; and
5. the pedagogic conclusions drawn from the enquiry.

This monographic work is an opportunity for the student to immerse himself in the realities of life. Its value is measured by the effort made to synthesize and master a certain complexity. The knowledge and judgment shown are evaluated in terms of the practical conclusions to which they are shown to lead.

The Factory training period, which lasts two weeks, is prepared for by a week of visits to various shop-floors. This is an introduction to the life of workmen, which is unfamiliar to most of the students. The preparatory visits, under the guidance of the instructor in work-sociology have, up to the present, been the following: a vocational rapid-training centre, a precision engineering works, a steel works, a printing and binding works, a mineral water plant, a co-operative furniture factory, the Renault car factory, an electrical assembly works, an aviation engineering works, the Orly airport, a youth club, and a centre for socio-cultural and medico-social work.

The actual training consists of two weeks of practical work. The student finds himself a job, works according to the factory rules, and receives the normal pay of an unskilled worker.

The fourth week, which completes the course, is spent in visits to managements of commercial firms, to the social services, and to large trade union, employers', and workers' organizations. With their experience behind them, the students are at liberty to ask any questions they wish. They draw their own conclusions from the course, under the direction of their instructor.

The sole aim of this training, apparently so diverse and scattered in form, is not merely to make the future educator a practical man, but to give him a real cultural background. But the only true culture is that which originates in life and leads back to life; and this is what the educator must acquire. Sometimes he is inclined to regard abstract knowledge as a laborious and unnecessary acquisition, or else to wear it as a crown. The aim is to prevent him from falling into either of these dangers by basing his training on the precise understanding of the treatment he is later to impart and of the means he is to use in it. The practical training of the second year is entirely based on this double requirement.

Second-year training courses

Full qualification cannot, of course, be given to a student in one year. He must learn gradually to take over correctly the responsibility for a group (this is the traditional function), learn how to treat young delinquents in the ways described (his specific function), and in general he must learn all an educator in an observation and re-education centre must know for the effective practice of his calling.

Training in a boarding establishment

In the training courses in the second year the accent is placed on the work of the educator in a boarding establishment. This is the best-known type of work, and is carried out in well-organized surroundings. Moreover, it is becoming common practice to assign the educator at the beginning of his career first to a boarding establishment, before entrusting him with the much more delicate responsibilities of the observer or educator in open surroundings. For these reasons, the main training course lasts seven and a half months, and is conducted in either an observation centre or a public Educational Guidance Institution (Institution publique d'éducation surveillée).

The entire technical organization of the training period is centred on a study of actual cases and on the practice of group leadership. The traditional and the specific functions of the educator are closely intermingled, and the trainee encounters both at the same time through the various aspects of his service in the course of one and the same day. His programme is progressive. The trainee becomes acquainted with the services which function within the establishment (direction and administration), the organization of school, vocational, and leisure activities, and the time-tables and division of duties of the educational staff. He gets to know educators and groups by spending several days with each. This course lasts a fortnight. Next he enters into actual practice, after having been attached to particular group. Throughout the whole period, which varies

between two and three months, he never takes on any personal responsibility unless in the company of the instructor responsible for the group. This period of progressive initiation may be prolonged by several weeks. It is followed by a period of at least three months, in which he takes charge of the normal services. His freedom to take responsibility is extended, and may go as far as any aspect of the service and even to specific forms of treatment for the young delinquents.

A departmental head responsible for the training of the students in each establishment closely follows the evolution of the trainee's work, keeps a check on the results obtained and is responsible, in assessing their value, to the head of the establishment, who is officially the director of training.

It might be argued that the trainee in a boarding establishment lacks a close knowledge of the living conditions from which the young delinquent comes. The main aim of the second course of training is to acquaint the trainee with them. This course is necessarily conducted within the services concerned with the treatment of maladjusted minors in an open institution.

The training course in an open institution

This lasts three months and may be conducted at an establishment for supervised freedom or at an educational guidance and action centre (Centre d'orientation et d'action éducative). The first concentrates on re-education, the second on observation, but both are in close contact with the families, schools, places of work and leisure activities of the delinquent where they are, by decision of the court, left in their natural surroundings. The trainee, in the company of the head of these services and of the educators attached to them, makes such visits or takes such steps as are necessary because of the young delinquent's personality or of the needs of re-education. In this way he is introduced into all sorts of surroundings. He applies in person, but under controls, the techniques of open institution observation and of supervised freedom to the cases of several young people. He produces a report on each case studied.

It is in the second training course that he is instructed about the organization and functioning of a children's court, the social service attached to it, and the police services more particularly responsible in the town concerned for the protection of children and adolescents.

In view of the requirements in experience that are appropriate to the treatment of young delinquents in their own surroundings, the need to master the techniques involved, and the human relations which must be established with the adult world (family, place of work, various administrative bodies and so on), this course cannot be regarded as sufficient training. It is continued at a point later determined in the career of the educator, when he is more mature, in the form of a special training course of a more thorough nature, distinct from the basic training.

Approval of training results

The two-year course of training is sanctioned at each stage by a series of special tests.

At the end of the first year, they take the form of actual examinations comprising written and oral tests, the first on the main basic fields of study, the second on the methods and techniques employed in the observation and re-education of young people.

At the end of the second year an assessment card on the trainee is prepared by the director of training, with the help of the head of training in the boarding establishment and the service head in the open institution, each for his own field.

The examination board which considered the tests on the first year's work adds its comments to the assessment card on the training courses. There are also appreciations of the monographs and work done in the educational and cultural courses. All the test-assessments together constitute the results of the examination on the candidate's fitness for the profession, and it is analyzed in the following table:

NATURE OF TESTS	MARKS OBTAINABLE
1. Tests on general knowledge: written	40
oral	20
2. Monographs	40
3. Course on educational and cultural activities	20
4. Practical second-year courses	100
Total:	220

Appointment to the grade of educator is granted to all who gain a total of at least 110 marks on the whole series of tests and at least 50 marks in the practical courses.

Those who fail are either authorized to take the year of practical training again, or are dismissed from the School.

A training experiment with African educators

An interesting experiment was conducted from October 1963 to July 1964 in the National College for Educators (Ecole d'Etat d'éducateurs) in Paris. Six students had been sent to the College from French-speaking African countries: 2 from Dahomey, 2 from Cameroun, 1 from the Malagasy Republic and 1 from Somalia.

The Director was concerned about one point: the theoretical part of the training was chiefly a matter of instruction in the sciences of man. These sciences were taught by French instructors used to teaching French trainee-educators intended for young European delinquents. Would trainees of African origin feel disconcerted by such instruction?

In fact nothing like that happened. Out of the six students, four reached the pass mark with something to spare, one just managed to pass, and one narrowly missed. In the examinations their performance was just like that of their French colleagues.

The reason was that the preliminary selection had been well done. If they were to work with French trainee-educators, it was necessary that their general cultural level should be comparable to theirs, in other words comparable to the baccalauréat. This was generally the case, in fact, two of them were school-teachers.

Another factor was that all of them had a perfect knowledge of French, both written and spoken.

In the course of interviews which they had with the director of the School, they made comments of great value for the future course of the training. They said that the instruction given by the college was in itself of great cultural and human worth and that it should not be modified in order to suit it to students in other countries. In the form given, it fulfilled their expectations and entirely satisfied them.

However, it became apparent that there were certain problems. Four of them lacked even a moderate knowledge of the youth of their country. The knowledge imparted to them in the course, and which was well assimilated on the intellectual level, must have suffered by the lack of this preliminary knowledge and experience, which would have allowed a deeper and perhaps more effective absorption. Should every course of training abroad be preceded by a year of contacts with reality among the youth of the student's own country? Should these contacts take place as part of school activities, or leisure? Should they be organized at the level of prevention or of actual delinquency? We can only ask these questions, not answer them.

Following up another line of thought, it seems that adaptation of the course to another country would be easier if it were carried on, not entirely in scholastic surroundings, but, at least to begin with, in an institution for young delinquents. Relations there are not conditioned by concern for studies and examinations; life is austere there, and freer, and consequently more favourable to adaptations.

Moreover, a knowledge of conditions in specialized institutions which at least covered the ground with some adequacy would allow the student to assimilate the theoretical instruction more easily. The instruction as a whole, as we have described it, will perhaps lose some of its value if the student is not familiar with the specific work he will have to do in his own country. This consideration sets before us the problem of the specialization of African trainee educators when they return from abroad. It is not for us to give the answer to it. Requirements in another country may be peremptory: it may be that they cannot be modified to fit purely technical needs. It is, however, worth while observing that any training is more directly understood and assimilated when the trainee knows the field in which the knowledge gained is to be applied.

Finally, the training of specialized educators requires that the candidate be granted a bursary for two years, or at least eighteen months. If it is limited to one year, it is inevitable that important aspects, essential to the candidate who has chosen to devote himself to the treatment of young delinquents, will be neglected.

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