1957

The Role of the School in the Prevention of Juvenile Delinquency

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Recommended Citation
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THE ROLE OF THE SCHOOL IN THE PREVENTION
OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

by
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A Thesis Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School
of Loyola University in Partial Fulfillment of
The Requirements for the Degree of
Master of Social and
Industrial Relations

February
1957
VITA

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INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this thesis is to show the role of the school in the prevention of juvenile delinquency. This is done by contrasting the failure of the school to meet the complex causation of delinquency on the negative side; and the procedures of the school to counteract these complex causations on the positive side. The study emphasizes the positive approach including the cooperation of the superintendent, the teachers, the school psychologists, the sociologists, the visiting teachers, doctors, nurses, parents, and community agencies who are working to help each individual child assume an increasingly beneficial role in society. In this process, interest is focused on the part played by the classroom teacher. This core of workers, along with indoctrination in Christian Social Living, enables the school to help prevent the rising tide of juvenile delinquency.

The historical research method is the one which has been used in the writing of this thesis. The Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature, the Educational Index, the files of the University of Chicago, Loyola University, Memphis Public Library, Public Library, Clarksdale, Mississippi were the sources for my readings of pamphlets, periodicals, and texts.
The first part of Chapter I of this thesis defines juvenile delinquency, its causes, and the problem which the school faces—(1) failure to detect behavior disorders; (2) retardation; (3) curriculum; (4) mass education; (5) juvenile delinquents reaction to the school problem by hostility, truancy and withdrawal.

In the remaining part of this chapter each research writer—Glueck, Kvaraceus, Healy, Bronner, Barron and Tappan—gives his view on the school problems listed above.

Chapter II relates the techniques for identifying and diagnosing children with behavior problems. Once the predelinquent has been recognized the school should make adjustments in its program, so that the child will achieve a measure of success in keeping with his abilities. If the school is not able to care for the needs of the child, it should become an effective referral agency.

Chapter III describes a general program for the school in meeting the delinquency problems, with the superintendent as the key individual. In this chapter there is a coordination of the school staff—superintendent, principal, teachers, visiting teachers—working with parents and community agencies.

Chapter IV relates the concrete cases of outstanding community programs of delinquency control in Passaic, New Jersey and Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. Both utilize the school effectively and imaginatively.
Chapter V shows that a return of our schools to Christian Social Living would solve many of the problems of our delinquents in this Godless world. The virtues of self-discipline, respect for authority, love of God and love of neighbor must be paramount in our educational program.
CHAPTER I

FAILURE OF THE SCHOOL TO MEET THE COMPLEX

CAUSATION OF DELINQUENCY

What does juvenile delinquency mean? Many definitions of the term "juvenile delinquency" have been offered. Probably the one most commonly accepted is the legal definition that juvenile delinquency constitutes any act which if committed by an adult would be crime. That means a child who has violated any law of his community, state, or nation would be a delinquent. A psychiatrist suggests:

Juvenile delinquency is a pattern of behavior manifested by a youth below the age of eighteen that is contrary to the laws of the land, and the accepted mores, and that is antisocial in character. This may be brought about by environmental deprivation, conflict within the domestic situation or psychiatric difficulties in the youth or child.\(^1\)

This definition was given by a midwestern educator:

"Juvenile delinquency might be defined as anti-social behavior, outside of the patterns of normal misbehavior, which is so

\(^1\)Benjamin Fine, One Million Delinquents, (Cleveland, 1955) p.31.
extreme as to endanger society and the delinquent.²

In their study of delinquents, Eleanor and Sheldon Glueck conclude that:

Delinquency refers to repeated acts of a kind when committed by persons beyond the statutory juvenile court age of sixteen are punishable as crimes (either felonies or misdemeanors)—except for a few instances of persistent stubbornness, truancy, running away, associating with immoral persons, and the like.³

A careful study by the writer of the research literature of the past twenty-five years in the field of causation and treatment of delinquent behavior yields the following concepts and generalizations:

1. Children who develop delinquent behavior are usually confronted by prolonged and severely frustrating conditions which deny the fulfillment of basic needs. These frustrating factors make it difficult, if not impossible, for the child to achieve normal growth and development.

2. Delinquent behavior is always adaptive behavior from the point of view of the child. Most delinquents are trying to solve difficult and serious problems which confront them. The

delinquent behavior frequently represents for the malbehaving child, the only solution possible and one which usually gives at least temporary relief to the frustrated child. Reacting to the stresses and strains around him, the delinquent child works out for himself the best and sometimes the only solution to his problem.

3. Delinquent behavior is not a twenty-four hour malady. An unbroken thread of continuity in behavior exists from the early post-natal experiences to the child's present expression. In the classroom setting, in order to understand the present conduct of the pupil the teacher frequently must go back to the earlier life of the youngster. The distinction between precipitating causes and developmental causes in the genesis of undesirable behavior, must be made. Too frequently the teacher becomes engrossed with the precipitating or immediate factor, that produces truancy.

4. The delinquent act is usually not the act of a lone child. Less than one-fifth of delinquent acts represent solitary behavior. Since delinquent behavior represents a form of group behavior, study and treatment should take into account the psychological factors of group conduct and behavior.

5. Children frequently give many signs of delinquency proneness. These may be seen either in the personality makeup of the child himself, or in his home, family or neighborhood setting. Early detection of these symptoms makes preventive
measures possible. The teacher is in a strategic position to note these signs of delinquency proneness.

6. Many stresses and strains are placed on the child in the classroom. These frequently aid and abet the development of delinquency. This is particularly the case when the individual is burdened with unrealistic and highly verbal situations which may beget continuous confusion and failure and insecurity.

7. Most delinquents are normal individuals. They are more similar to than from their fellow socially adjusted classmates. The differences between delinquent and non-delinquent children are more frequently accidental rather than essential.4

Of the millions of children who have gone through our school system, most of them have acquired practical and useful education, and the school experience was satisfactory. But there are some problem areas. Some children have unsatisfactory school experience, or they are decidedly maladjusted in school. They may be maladjusted individuals, and the problems which they create in school are simply a part of the general problem of adjustment. Sometimes the serious behavior difficulties begin in school.

Teachers and school officials have at times failed to detect behavior disorders. The retarded or failing students need attention; otherwise they drop out prematurely and create

various other problems. When children are adequately dealt with during the early stages of maladjustment, the problems can ordinarily be more easily solved than later in the process. The problems encountered are numerous, for personality conditions and environmental pressures sometimes make it difficult for schools to overcome their detrimental effects. Furthermore, schools are not always equipped to deal with problem cases. The curriculum is sometimes not adjusted to the needs and interests of pupils, teachers are inadequately trained for the work, buildings and equipment are meager, classrooms are overcrowded, and many schools are not equipped to deal with special types of maladjusted children, including the behavior problem cases.

It is difficult to correlate the precise relationship between school experiences and delinquency. Investigations of delinquents have revealed many of them dislike going to school. Since nearly every child in America goes through a public or private school, the school has a special responsibility to create a wholesome atmosphere and a constructive program of education. Deviations from normal behavior should be observed by teachers and school administrators, especially by the counselors, and the school system should provide the child with corrective influences that lead to normal social participation.5

Poor attendance may be a direct result of the experiences of the child in school or of its imagined effects, which are often equally bad. Schools are becoming aware of the effects of school work that is too hard or too easy for the mental status of the children. Bright pupils have sometimes been considered truant when they have stayed out to read in libraries books which were more interesting than their required assignments.

The children who are slightly below average in intelligence are more apt to be truant. The school program is a little too difficult for them; they do it poorly, repeat many grades, receive poor marks, and under such circumstances can hardly be expected to be happy and enthusiastic about school. Many of the modern school systems of large cities are attempting courses of study and methods of instruction to meet the various mental levels so as to secure greater interest and better attendance by mentally slow children. There remains much to be done to make this type of adjustment better understood and really effective. It is true that, unless these adjustments are made, schools are directly or indirectly responsible for the loss of interest and for truancy. Schools generally offer aid and inspiration for the majority of pupils, but they should not hesitate to go to any limit to meet the needs of duller children. One of the reasons for the undesirable attitude of many slow
children is the lack of an understanding teacher.

Whenever truancy begins, children find companions who sympathize with them. They get comfort and understanding from one another and perhaps form a gang against their homes and school. If their record at school has been poor and they have no particular goal in school, they find it is easy to lose interest and stay away. Often a change to another school where their records are unknown or where trade, technical, or vocational education is offered may arouse interest again. Some schools have facilities for recommending and effecting such transfers.

There is an old adage that "nothing succeeds like success," which may have its converse, also true, that "nothing fails like failure." Regardless of the merits of the school work for any pupil, the student with poor marks considers himself a failure.

The mentally slow become the victims of poor marks because they are often judged by the standards set for the average or the mentally superior. They feel the injustice of being required to attain a goal beyond their ability. However, it must be said to the credit of most modern school systems that they are solving this problem by adjustments in grading policy.

From five to ten per cent of all children fail or repeat grades each year. The child who is a failure in school finds it easy to become a failure at home, in play, or in any other

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life activity. Poor scholarship may become a major cause of
general maladjustment, along with other causes. 7

The causes of poor attitudes toward school are many. If
a pupil has failed for several semesters, or if there has been
a long series of school marks below average little real enthu-
siasm for school may be expected. If he has sought ways of en-
tertaining himself in school instead of doing tasks which were
beyond him, the ill will of the teacher is gained. Good morale
depends on a satisfactory marking system. Grading is one as-
pect of the more fundamental problems of evaluation, a problem
of educational philosophy and administration.

It may seem that there is a wide gap between a class room
situation and delinquency, but there is not. The child who can-
not recite the answer to a question and is passed over by the
teacher may never acquire the information (or skill) needed for
the next step in the learning process. He is unable to do his
homework or the next assignment. He lags behind the class with
a feeling of neglect and frustration. From being unprepared
with his homework is but a step from staying away from school.
While out of school with nothing to do, he is likely to find
opportunities to do the wrong things and companions with whom
to do them and end as a delinquent or be apprehended as a truant.

It is essential that the teacher recognize the major indi-
vidual differences among children and adjust curriculum and

7 Ibid., 324.
methods accordingly. It is also important that the school challenge the gifted and understands the limitations of the slow. If too great a burden is placed upon a child, if standards are set so high that he cannot meet them, he may rebel or withdraw into a world of fantasy. It may be totally unreal world into which he escapes to avoid the difficulties of life in general and of his home environment in particular. Such a child is in danger of becoming a pathological dreamer—even a schizophrenic.\(^8\)

Teachers sometimes insist that their pupils imitate their classmates, their brother or sister, or some other child. They are eager to have them conform, not for their own benefit, but for the teacher's. They may even want to wear their children like medals, to show them off to their children to fulfill their frustrated needs and wishes and dreams. But in doing so, they often warp the very lives they would encourage. In trying to make the child conform to their views, proper as they may be, distorted as they often are, they are harming him beyond measure.

Our schools stress mass education. Our classrooms, are generally too large. On a nationwide basis there is an average of thirty children for each teacher. In order that each child receive the attention he requires, it would be ideal if a teacher had no more than twenty-five pupils. How can one expect

\(^8\)Fine, One Million Delinquents, p. 158.
a teacher to develop the potentialities of all her pupils if she has at most five or ten minutes to give to each child during the course of the day?

Unless this particular situation is remedied, those boys and girls who now dislike school to the extent that they stay away, are in danger of becoming confirmed truants. They will get their first contact with the police and then later with the courts as truants.⁹

Glueck⁹,⁹a A study was made of a thousand cases of delinquents sent by the Boston Juvenile Court for examination by its clinical adjunct, the Judge Baker Foundation. Light was sought by this study on (a) the manifestations of early danger signals of delinquency and the consequences of failure to recognize them or to pay them adequate attention; (b) the significance of the criminal act as a symptom merely of the more inclusive, and often more significant problems presents by the entire personality of the actor in his environment.

These inquiries were in charge of Professor Sheldon Glueck of the Harvard Law School in collaboration with Dr. Eleanor T. Glueck, his wife.

School retardation is related not only to the mental makeup of our juvenile delinquents, but also to their school attendance

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⁹Ibid., 161.
⁹a See Appendix II.
and behavior and to the great mobility of their families. Of 935 cases in which the extent of school retardation was known, only 145 boys (15.5 per cent), not retarded in school; 219 (23.4 per cent) were retarded one year; 261 (27.9 per cent), two years; 228 (24.4 per cent), three or more years; and 82 (8.8 per cent) were in ungraded classes. Thus, 790 juvenile delinquents among a total of 935 were at least one year behind in their school work.\(^8\)

In an official study of children in the elementary schools of Boston made in 1925, it was found that 37.8 per cent of the school boys were retarded. In a research made by the Massachusetts Department of Education in 1927, it was disclosed that 12 per cent of boys attending schools in Massachusetts were retarded. Even making for the allowance of great mobility of the families of the delinquents, the boys were considerably more retarded than the general school population. This was not compensated for by any appreciable incidency of advancement in grade, as shown by the fact that only fifteen (1.6 per cent) children in the entire group were advance one year, and two (0.2 per cent) were advance two years.\(^9\)

Judging the differences in scholarship and achievement of the delinquent and non-delinquent groups of boys, first, by

\(^8^{Glueck, Unraveling Juvenile Delinquency, 135.}\)

\(^9^{Eleanor and Sheldon Glueck, One Thousand Juvenile Delinquency (New York, 1955), p.88.}\)
their actual accomplishment during their last full year of
school, the Gluecks were able to ascertain from the school
records that 41.4 per cent of the delinquent boys, compared with
but 8.2 per cent of the non-delinquents, were very poor students,
as reflected by marks of D and E in most or all of their subjects.
Only 1 per cent of each group of boys excelled in their studies,
as indicated by an almost-A record. While the bulk of the non-
delinquents (90.8 per cent) were average pupils (the B and C
group), only 57.6 per cent of the delinquents attained this sta-
tus.

There can be no question, therefore, that despite the es-
sential similarity of the delinquents and non-delinquents in
age and intelligence quotient, and taking into account the
greater irregularity in school achievements were far below those
of the non-delinquents.12

Eleanor and Sheldon Glueck in their study of delinquents
and non-delinquents brought out the importance of learning as
much as possible about the school experiences of the two groups
of boys; for though education may not completely account for
the structuring of character and the motivation of conduct, it
can give the student a sense of emotional satisfaction in the
achievement of skills, can arouse socially acceptable ambitions,
can put him into contact with persons whom he can strive to

12Gluecks, Unraveling Juvenile Delinquency, 140.
emulate. On the other hand, it can leave scars in the psyche of the growing child which may well be related to the development of antisocial attitudes and an ultimate defiance of authority.\textsuperscript{13}

Slower progress through the grades, poorer scholarship, few preferences and more marked dislikes for certain school subjects, as well as variability in their performance, all point toward greater antipathy of delinquents for school. This is borne out not only by their teachers, who found the delinquents to be far less interested in school, but also by the revelations made by the boys to the psychiatrist. Many a delinquent would spontaneously state, "I hate school because I am always held back," or, "I want to go to work," and so on. Only one in ten of the delinquents readily accepted schooling, as compared with almost seven in ten of the non-delinquents.

The reasons the delinquents gave for their marked dislike of school, apart from intellectual authority, are largely reflective of temperamental and emotional difficulties, inability to learn, lack of interest, resentment of restriction and routine.

The greater dislike of school on the part of the delinquents is further evidenced by their academic and vocational ambitions. The psychiatrist sought from each boy an expression of his desire for further schooling, and found that, although 15.6 per cent of the delinquents and 8.1 per cent of the non-delinquents had

\textsuperscript{13}Ibid., 135.
not as yet given any thought to whether they wished to stop school or continue into high school, a far higher proportion of the delinquents (43.5 per cent: 6.5 per cent) wanted to stop school immediately.\footnote{14}{Ibid., 144.}

In questioning the boys about the kinds of pursuits in which they would like to engage in after completing their schooling, the psychiatrist found that many more delinquents than non-delinquents (29.3 per cent: 18.1 per cent) had vague, childish, or superficial notions about what they wanted to do. The delinquents declined rather more to adventurous occupations, such as aviation, going to sea, joining the Armed Services, and so (20.9 per cent: 12.2 per cent), and to work that did not require much training (5.1 per cent: 1.4 per cent). Correspondingly, a lower proportion of the delinquents than of the non-delinquents expressed a desire to learn a trade, either semi-skilled or skilled (4.13 per cent: 58.2 per cent), or revealed a preference for intellectual pursuits (1.2 per cent: 6.4 per cent) or for an aesthetic or artistic calling (2.2 per cent: 3.6 per cent).

From their academic and vocational ambitions, it is clear that the delinquents had less desire than the non-delinquents either for formal schooling or for trade training, and that they had, in fact, given less thought to planning their futures.\footnote{15}{Ibid., 145}
Most of the delinquents (94.8 per cent) had been truant at one time or another during their school careers, while only 10.8 per cent of the non-delinquents had been truant, and then only occasionally. Of the 474 delinquents who were truants, a third were truant persistently.

It is clear, therefore, that social maladjustment expressed itself throughout the school careers of the boys, especially among the delinquents, largely by truancy, that is, by running away from difficult or unpleasant social situations and obligations or toward more absorbing activities.

In a rather old but official report, (School Document, Nov. 12, 1925), which stated the reasons for withdrawal of Boston school boys from the elementary schools, the causes of withdrawal, though not in form to make a ready comparison possible, showed that proportionately twice as many of the juvenile delinquents as of Boston school boys withdrew from school because of economic necessity and seven times as many because of inability to do school work.16

Kvaraceus.16a In Passaic, New Jersey where William C. Kvaraceus had been assistant superintendent of schools the rate of juvenile delinquency had been high. It was his opinion that juvenile delinquency could be reduced if the schools collaborated with community agencies. Through his efforts the school with

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16 Ibid., 140.
16a See Appendix II.
its principals, teachers, psychologists, nurses, doctors, counselors, and visiting teachers worked with juvenile officers and other community agencies.

Since Kvaraceus has started this program in February, 1931, juvenile delinquency has been greatly reduced in Passaic, New Jersey.

The New Jersey Juvenile Delinquency Commission figures showed 55 per cent retarded one or more years, 33 per cent retarded two or more years including those in ungraded classes.

The Passaic figures show 43.5 per cent of six hundred sixty-one delinquents as having repeated one term (one-half year or more in a semiannual promotion system). This compares unfavorably with a study of retardation in the city wherein 17 per cent of the total school population in Grades 1-8 was found to have repeated one or more terms.

It is only to be expected that the child who is continually kept back with younger children will develop a feeling of insecurity, inferiority, and dislike for the total school program. Lacking any legitimate school satisfactions and being the oldest and usually the largest pupil in the class, the repeater will adopt aggressive behavior of various types and degrees to demonstrate some superiority or gain some satisfactions, even though in a way which gains the disapproval of adult society.

The very marked and significantly high frequency of repetition among the delinquents is undoubtedly related not only to
factors such as early school leaving, dislike for school, and truancy, but even to delinquency. In studying factors associated with early school leaving, writers have found that holding back a child in the early grades broke the morale of pupils, and led, significantly, to their leaving school at an early date in later years. This same early leaving is noted for the delinquent sample.

Schools and parents universally place great emphasis on grades and marks. In the eyes of the school and the outside world the pupil who received certain "low marks" is regarded as a failure and treated accordingly, regardless of whatever other assets he may have of whatever satisfactory growth he may achieve in lines other than the academic. As implied in the non-promotional files, the marks received by delinquents were inferior and most unsatisfactory. 17

It is recognized that certain unfavorable physical or socio-economic factors which also predispose a child toward delinquent behavior outside the school may also tend to predispose him in the direction of school failure and promotion. Yet when one considers the total school picture, with the marked summer fall-off in delinquent referrals, the active part of the school in frustrating these youths cannot be denied easily. Habits of failure and inferiority characterized the Passaic delinquents.

17Kvaraceus, Juvenile Delinquency and the School, p. 140.
It is no wonder that these pupils resorted to rebellion and flight from the classroom.\textsuperscript{18}

When we observe the unhappy and frustrating school picture in which the delinquent finds himself, it is no wonder that the incidence of dislike for school personnel characterizes most of the delinquents. In the Passaic group, 67 per cent of the total number gave some expression which pointed to a strong dislike for school, school principal, or teacher. This percentage appears considerably higher than that found in other studies of delinquents and non-delinquents.\textsuperscript{19}

Thirty-four per cent of the delinquents literally took the law in their hands and fled from the school, as a direct release from an unbearable situation. One must wonder about the aggressive responses of the remainder who were in a similar plight. Did these take the form of aggression against persons and property as suggested by the more prominent referral complaints? Is it not possible, for example, that the tremendous cost of replacing broken windows which is paid annually by the schools in Passaic and elsewhere is nothing more than the result of an antagonism and rebellion on the part of school-frustrated youth who take this direct mode of aggressive behavior in retaliation?

The study which examined the largest number of records, that of the New Jersey Juvenile Delinquency Commission, found truancy reported in 6,000 of the 21,200 juvenile courts examined, which

\textsuperscript{18} Ibid., 144.
\textsuperscript{19} Ibid., 149.
is 29 per cent. Since only 40 per cent of the juvenile-court records examined made mention of school attendance, truancy was reported in approximately two-thirds of the cases in which reference was made to school attendance. Hence, the Commission concluded that the true incidence of truancy was somewhere between 29 per cent and 66.6 per cent and was probably nearer the latter figure.20

Hence, here again is constructive evidence that Passaic is reaching children in the less-advanced stages of delinquency as well as of the extent to which children will go to escape from a situation which is terrifying, frustrating, and demoralizing.

If the school drama is full of tensions, defeat, conflicts, and frustrations for the delinquent group, as demonstrated by the Passaic data, we should expect the delinquent boy or girl to waste no time in leaving school as soon as they are sixteen. This is actually the case with most delinquents. Very few children handled by the Passaic Bureau went on to high school. Of those who did attend the tenth grade, 17 per cent left in quick order. More than half, 52 per cent left the junior high school, and 7 per cent left from the grades below the seventh.21

The salutary effects of the school experiences are ordinarily taken very much for granted by most parents, teachers, principals and others. For most children who attend schools, this, no doubt, is true. In the case of the Passaic delinquent sample of

20 Ibid., 145.
21 Ibid., 145.
school children who were manifesting aggressive-delinquent behavior, however, much of the school data point to a multiplicity of unwholesome, unsatisfactory, unhappy and frustrating situations in which the delinquents were enmeshed. These data suggest that the school may be full of predisposing stimuli which elicit aggression responses on the part of the maladjusted child.

Literature in the field of juvenile delinquency reveals, on the whole, rather unsatisfactory school adjustments for most children who fall into difficulty with the law. Retardation is unusually high, low school achievement and poor marks predominate, truancy is frequent, dislike for school and teachers is the rule rather than the exception, and early school leaving is very often the delinquent's own solution of an unsatisfactory situation. 22

That the school plays an active role in the causation of delinquent aggressive behavior is denied by some authorities. Boynton, for example, minimizes the relationship that exists between the school and delinquency as follows:

The school's most frequent relationship to delinquency is a passive rather than an active one. 23

Healy and Bronner. 23a Healy has made a study of the Individual Delinquent. In Personality in Formation and Action he

23a See Appendix II.
shows that there are many faulty mental functionings which are only revealed in minor personality deviations or maladjustments, or in undesirable behavior. In his book *New Light on Delinquency* he presents findings and formulations that have significant values for those who officially or otherwise deal with delinquents for those who are engaged in programs of prevention and for all students of the problems which delinquency presents.

The following paragraphs will show some of the observations that have been made by these two research writers.

While the school may reproduce some of the features of the home, it also, of course, constitutes a social setting in which new types of experience are inevitable. It may off-set or increase the hurts arising in family life; it may give the child valuable or harmful new experiences. Thus, it may be a means of combatting or preventing tendencies to misconduct, or it may be a means, albeit unwittingly, of creating them.

The school may be a haven to the maladjusted or unhappy child; the teacher may be the first adult figure to typify kindness, patience, fairness. On the contrary, the teacher may adopt unfortunate attitudes similar to those already encountered by the child. He may be, or seem to the child, unreasonable in demands, harsh, dictatorial. He may appear to discriminate between children, to "play favorites," to be inconsistent or intimidating.

The vast majority of delinquents begin their school careers with unsatisfied needs and a background of demoralizing experi-
ences. Frequently already rebellious and resentful of authority, they are not easily managed. So, when a teacher has won such a child, he has achieved much more than quiet in the classroom; he has achieved a moral victory and has perhaps opened new vistas to a young skeptic.

Again, the school may or may not satisfy the fundamental need of the child to feel adequate, worthy, accepted by his fellows. Because in the classroom, on the playground each child finds himself among his peers, there are naturally comparisons and competitions. Feelings of inadequacy or adequacy are bound to arise. From the latter grows the inferiority complex, which is expressed in withdrawal and discouragement or in compensatory activities. Healy can testify that unconsciously aimed endeavors to compensate for inferiority sometimes result in delinquency.

Inferiority feelings develop from several types of handicap.  
1. Some of the toughest and most defiant behavior problems that have been encountered were largely reactions to the jibes encountered in school life by youngsters with physical disabilities and deformities.

2. A much more frequent handicap causing inferiority feelings and hence related to the appearance of delinquent trends is found in the mental equipment of the child. The feeble-minded child who has bright siblings or is wrongly placed in school, the dull child who finds himself among the normal or superior—each is frequently unhappy, senses his inferiority and seeks and
finds satisfaction in delinquency. Although the definitely defective do not form a very large percentage of delinquents as a whole, the number of defectives among delinquents is four or five times as great as among the general population of their age groups. Since classes more commonly exist for the feeble-minded than for merely dull and retarded children, the latter, badly placed academically and socially, constitutes a real hazard as potential misdoers.

3. The personal relationship between pupil and teacher can have disturbing elements. The social atmosphere may become heavily charged with emotion. Slurs, taunts, cutting remarks, evidences of social and racial prejudices may arouse or accentuate feelings of inferiority which, in turn, are reflected in reckless antisocial behavior.

In the light of modern studies of motivation, one may fairly ask whether a prescribed disciplinary measure does not sometimes reflect more of the emotional background of the one who orders it than any real consideration of what the effect on the child will be. Delinquent behavior has largely stemmed from a youngster's feeling that harsh, unfair disciplinary treatment has been meted out to him mainly because someone in authority has power.

While many faults and weaknesses existing in schools have been pointed out, there are as many instances of responsibility
being shouldered admirably and with splendid results. 24

Much could be said about the potential importance of school situations for the structuring of personality. For example, one may sometimes note the admiring imitation of a teacher by a pupil; indeed, perhaps an identification develops that may play a considerable part in establishing a manner of life or even a career. Or the opposite, as when an unfortunately exhibited attitude by a teacher has caused a persisting revolt against all schooling and this has had a far-reaching influence upon personality growth. 25

Personality characteristics indicate potential weaknesses and should be observed by teachers. Great restlessness or over-activity is frequently reported by parents, teachers, and others to be an habitual characteristic of the delinquent. This has led educators to examine carefully their records for this kind of behavior manifestation as exhibited to degree clearly above the norm for childhood or adolescence. Educators are forced to agree with some other students of behavior problems that hyper-activity on the part of children is strongly related to the appearance of delinquency. It was stated that no other single


personality characteristic is found in any exaggerated degree so frequently.26

Healy states that in his study of delinquents less than forty per cent expressed a marked dislike of school and thirteen per cent said they hated some one or more of their teachers. In the light of such a discovery as this delinquency still remains a great challenge to school people.

Healy states among the one hundred forty-three delinquents accepted as cases for treatment major emotional disturbances were discovered to exist in one hundred thirty-one instances (92 per cent). His studies show:

1. Feelings of being rejected, unloved, or insecure in affectional relationships.
3. Marked feeling of inadequacy or inferiority in some situations or activities.
4. Emotional disturbance about family disharmonies, discipline.
5. Great persisting sibling jealousy or rivalry.
7. An unconscious sense of guilt and feeling of need for punishment.27

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26 William Healy, *New Light on Delinquency and Its Treatment* (New Haven, 1936), p. 44.
27 Ibid., 49.
About 60 per cent of the delinquents were out-and-out truants, with evasions of attendance running as high as one year in one case. The scholarship record was of course affected by this. Definitely poor scholarship was registered for 34 per cent.

About 40 per cent of the delinquents expressed marked dislike for school in general and 13 per cent marked dislike for some teacher. 28

As part of the psychical environment educators must very properly reckon with the factor of school irritation, although in the study of the individual the prime cause would undoubtedly be the personal peculiarity which leads to the irritation. Healy finds the specialized defective, for instance, developing antisocial tendencies because he was kept with small children, although in many respects he had mental powers corresponding to his age. Others, on account of nervous trouble or physical ailments including uncorrected sensory defects, are irritated by the confinement of the school-room. Conditions of hearing, which are more difficult to correct than vision, may cause great irritability and recalcitrancy. Then one might cite the case of the boy who, as educationalists say, was not book-minded. His traits required that he do things with his hands; his delinquency was the result of impulsions which arose in this way. Attendance at school where there was poor teaching and poor

28 Ibid., 61.
discipline, or where language was taught that was not the general language of the community—have all figured as causes.²⁹

Barron, ³⁰a The central theme of Barron's, The Juvenile in Delinquent Society is implicit in its title. It is that the problem of juvenile delinquency can best be understood on the one hand and reduced on the other in a comprehensive, societal frame of reference. When juveniles live in a delinquent society, juvenile delinquency becomes a major problem of that society. By the same token, the solution of the problem, like that of other social problems, depends on an orderly modification of the American social structure, and some of the values and functions of American society.

A statistical profile of delinquent cases in presented along with a summary of the known characteristics of delinquents.

It is well known that teachers occasionally rid themselves of pupils of low achievement by promoting them into the next higher grade, thus making room for those below who are moving up. In this manner children are sent on to upper grades when they are still unable to cope with subjects taught in the lower grades. Forcing children from class to class when they cannot keep up with the scholastic requirements is frequently emotionally disturbing to them, leading to feelings of inferiority and


³⁰aSee Appendix II.
compensation by aggressiveness both in and out of school.  

The course of study is aimed at the acquisition of verbal and literary skills more than manual skills. In large part this is because of the origins of formal education the preparation of professional aspirants for theology, law, and medicine. In the school system there is an obvious incompatibility when children with a "manual" type of intelligence and "slow learners" (who may not be inferior in intelligence but too disturbed emotionally to be able to learn) strive for success in a "lingual" type of school environment. Some analysts have strongly suggested that by creating social failures this actually contributes to delinquency. The insistence of schools in teaching children subjects in which they cannot succeed often damages self-confidence, leads to rejection by teachers and classmates, and makes them vulnerable to neurotic and delinquent behavior. As a matter of fact there are several empirical studies, comparing delinquents with non-delinquents, which conclude that the former are on the whole less skilled in the use of verbal symbols and have greater reading difficulties than the latter, but have a higher manual or mechanical aptitude.  

Many of the problems encountered by the adolescents (as well as by delinquents specifically) are centered around the fact that they cannot see why they are in school. They do not per-

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31 Ibid., 177
ceive school as something that will help them achieve the values important to them. Indeed, to many of them, school is actually detrimental as far as the achievement of many important values is concerned. An interesting variation has been applied to the education of girls in American high schools. Some of the problems encountered by adolescent girls are thought to result from the subservience of their education to masculine values, more specifically, the values of those boys who are preparing for college and professional schools.32

The literature on juvenile delinquency consistently refers to the unsatisfactory school adjustments in the background of the majority of adjudged delinquents. Retardation is unusually high; there is a preponderance of low school achievement and poor marks, a high incidence of truancy, and an intense dislike for school and teacher. Leaving school early is frequently the end of a most unsatisfactory situation. It has been said that while the delinquent child may be an inescapable headache for the school, at the same time it is also true that the school is frequently an even greater headache for the child. Some of the major factors of omission and commission in the school which are thought to contribute to the etiology of delinquency are as follows:

A long-standing suspicion is that unwittingly many teachers help make delinquents. For example, in the second decade of

32Ibid., 171.
the twentieth century Wickman ascertained the attitudes of teachers in Cleveland and Minneapolis schools toward behavior problems in children. These were set against a norm composed of the judgments of thirty professional mental hygienists. The teachers consistently regarded as serious those forms of behavior which they interpreted as an attack on the established order or as a frustration of the immediate purposes of teaching. On the other hand, they consistently rated as insignificant in importance the withdrawing or submissive forms of behavior. These judgments were virtually reversed by the mental hygienists.

A review of the experiments by Haggerty, Mc Clure, and Yourman yields similar findings; namely that teachers tend to identify the problem child as one who is antagonistic to authority (presumably theirs), who fails to make stringent application to imposed schoolwork, and who violates the teacher's social conceptions and moralities. On the other hand the same studies show that teachers tend to ignore or underestimate the personal problems of children, such as shyness, timidity, and dejection, because these do not interfere with classroom order.

Some school board members are so politically minded that they fail to act in the best interests of the children. School administrators frequently do not care to assume increased responsibility in the problem of juvenile delinquency, at the same time discouraging originality and initiative by the teacher
or principal. 33

Knowledge seemed to be power and the school set out to provide all children with the same kind of knowledge and intellectual training which had formerly been reserved for the chosen few who were going into commerce or the professions. In other words, the school was set up to load and train the child's mind on a mass-production basis. Thereby the school became the prisoner of an extremely limited purpose: to cram into the heads of all children the same conglomerate mass of information at the same speed. Preoccupation with that narrow goal tended to blind the school to the differences in the mental capacities, interests, and speed of development of different children. It functioned as though it were preparing all children for white collar jobs. It paid little or no attention to the fact that the child is a physical being, an emotional being, and a social being, as well as a mental being and that he does not park outside his anger or his hunger or his undeveloped and uncoordinated muscles or his shame for his poverty-stricken home or his need to belong and to be competent while he carries only his memory like a bucket into the classroom. In general the school saw only its chosen mass of facts to be learned and the pupil only as a mind to be stuffed. Moreover, for its mass-production job, the public school developed authoritarian methods of instruction—

33 Ibid., 174.
the regimentation of grades, the imposed silence, repetition, and a destructive competition that for the duller children was often cruel. 34

Tappan, 34a Tappan in his book Juvenile Delinquency attempts to make available to students of sociology and social work, to lawyers and laymen, an up-to-date and comprehensive analysis of the major developments and problems in dealing with the juvenile delinquent and the adolescent offender.

Throughout this volume the approach is one of sociological and legal realism. His effort here is to picture practices as they are, not as someone may believe they should be. The author believes that, however strong may be one's sentiment toward children, the analysis of juvenile delinquency by sociologists, social workers, or lawyers should be clear sighted and unsentimental.

One of the commonest characteristics observed among delinquent and unadjusted children is the dislike of school and teachers. It would seem that any real solution to this problem lies not in penalty classes or special schools with long hours but in vigorously attempting to adapt the educational process to the needs and interests of children. The docile rote learner—and the nonaggressive but apathetic conformist, as well as the

34 Ibid., 171.
34a See Appendix II.
resistant problem child, could all profit by a vitalized education. If classroom organization, program of study and teaching methods are planned to meet the interests and needs of children and adolescents at their level of development, with rich and varied opportunities for the expression of diverse abilities and sufficient elasticity to allow the individual some freedom in adaptation, there would be far less aversion and passive indifference to school. Again it should be noted that flexible programs and good teaching are largely a matter of adequate budgets and careful selection. As one advocate of a liberalized educational process visualizes a good school system, it should have value in preventing delinquency.

When the educational program is so planned that it considers the individual child and his total needs, the school environment is attractive and a source of pleasure to the child; his interests are aroused and he is stimulated to attack the tasks before him rather than to be discouraged by them. He is able to build up part of his feeling of security through the satisfactions derived from his accomplishments. He feels that he is a worth-while member of his group since he is able to take his place alongside his associates as a contributing member. He is able therefore to identify himself with the other boys and girls with little or no feeling of being different. A child does not like to be different. His emotional responses are of a healthy and constructive nature, and consequently aid him in all his activities at work, study, and play. As a result of this satisfying type of educational experience, his emotional, ethical, and social potentialities are helped to mature in a healthy direction, together with his body and intellect.

Under these conditions the teacher, who represents authority as well as instruction to the child, is looked upon not as an unfair critic and feared disciplinarian but as a friend and helper.

This assumption of responsibility for the complete child has contributed markedly to the reduction of unnecessary failure and truancy, and cannot fail to ultimately manifest its far-reaching and positive effects in reducing the incidence of delinquency and mental disturbance.36

Delinquency is, in general, the resultant of no one conditioning factor but of a number of factors so interrelated and interconnected that their diagnosis and disentaglement require the most careful and most painstaking considerations and analysis.

Intelligence, although a contributory factor of some importance in the case of the few suffering from definite intellectual deficiency, is not the all-important factor in the case of many. With the latter, even where verbal and abstract intelligence may be lacking, there is often present a superior mechanical ability which offers opportunity for direction and treatment that must not be ignored.

The influence of the home is frequently paramount, and no procedure for eradicating delinquency can fail to take this factor into account. Bad companions and vitiating neighborhood influences also take their toll.

The school is contributory to delinquency to the extent that (a) it fails to detect delinquent tendencies before the anti-social conduct patterns have become fixed; (b) it fails to

36Ibid., 508.
adjust its curricula and methods to fit individual needs and interests; (c) its teachers are not adequately trained to recognize and to treat constructively behavior difficulties that arise in the classroom; (d) it fails to encourage habits of conduct and attitudes in keeping with the accepted mores.

While the juvenile court has spared the delinquent much of the notoriety attendant upon hearings in the regular courts and has made some effort to treat incipient criminality, it has, however, failed to realize the maximum of its potentialities.

Child guidance clinics, with their careful, scientific diagnosis and individual treatment, offer the greatest promise for the future.

Any effective program for delinquency prevention necessitates the pooling of all community resources in the interest of the individual.37

After viewing these authors, it is readily seen that the field of juvenile delinquency reveals, on the whole, rather unsatisfactory school adjustments for most children who fall into difficulty with the law. Retardation is unusually high, low school achievement and poor marks predominately, truancy is frequent, dislike for school and teachers is very often the delinquent's own solution of an unsatisfactory situation.

Unless schools realize that it is their responsibility to recognize the early telltale signs of delinquency, adjust their program to meet the needs of these children who show signs of maladjustment, be flexible in their curriculum planning and make an honest attempt to include some experiences in which every child can participate satisfactorily, the tide of juvenile delinquency will continue to be a problem.
CHAPTER II

IDENTIFYING THE CHILD WITH PROBLEMS

Juvenile delinquency indicates failure in some aspect of living—in the home, in the school, or in the community. This thesis is primarily interested in developing some of the important relationships between the school and delinquency.

The whole school program is planned to develop boys and girls who will be happy and efficient citizens of a democracy. Everything a school does, in every grade and in every class, has implications for personality and character development. No two children will respond to the classroom experiences in exactly the same way. The causal factors for juvenile delinquency will never be the same for any two children. Therefore, the problem of preventing juvenile delinquency is extremely complex and challenging.

Before initiating any specific plans to combat the problem it is important to enlist the cooperation of all the school staff. It is advisable that suggestions be elicited from the teachers, that systematic observations of behavior problems be made, that community resources be studied, and that faculty meetings be systematically and democratically planned in refer-
ence to an action program.  

There is a proposal that elementary schools prevent delinquency by having the teachers detect early signs of maladjustment. Inasmuch as virtually all children attend elementary school, the classroom is the logical place to screen children for symptoms of behavior deviation. The classroom is also useful because it permits (a) detection of mental defects and social maladjustment; (b) observation of infractions of rules. Every school system, it is urged, should have the facilities for a thorough investigation of the child in the first school years, with regard to physical make-up, aptitudes, disabilities.

One of the best known attempts at pre-delinquency detection in the schools was made by Williams in a survey of ten medium-sized cities.\(^2\) Of 55,995 children surveyed with the assistance of teachers 2.4 per cent were identified as "pre-delinquent". These were found mostly among thirteen-year olds. About four times as many boys as girls were listed, the proportion being almost the same as that found in juvenile court cases throughout the country. The pre-delinquent boys were described as resisting authority more, engaging in misconduct in school and annoying other children more than did the girls, whereas the

\(^1\)State Education Department, Schools against Delinquency (New York, 1944), p. 17.

pre-delinquent girls were reported as being subject to feelings of inferiority, and overdeveloped physically.

Since delinquent behavior does not develop overnight, the teacher who comes in contact with his pupils over an extended period of time has an unusual opportunity to look for and identify these children who are potential delinquents.

William C. Kvaraceus gives these telltale signs:

1. Absence of success in a school subject or subjects.
2. Failure in a school subject or subjects.
3. Nonpromotion because of failure in a school subject.
4. Lack of aptitude for academic subjects.
5. Intense dislike for school subjects or teachers.
6. Transfers from one school to another.
7. Truancy or quitting of school.
8. Signs of neglect or residence in a high-delinquency neighborhood.

These characteristics have been found to be frequently associated with delinquency behavior and for the basis of the "J.D. Proneness Check List" by William C. Kvaraceus. Not all of these signs are necessarily *causes* of delinquent behavior. They are, however, external signs that usually precede or accompany delinquent patterns of behavior. This list may be used with caution and reservations. It should not be applied mechanically nor used as a basis for official "typing" of pupils as predelinquent. It may be used as a rough guide in determining which boys and girls might be selected for further study and subsequent treatment in a planned, specific, and individualized program of delinquency prevention and control.³

The following techniques are recommended for identifying and diagnosing children with behavior problems:

1. For locating children with behavior problems, teachers may be asked to use a modification of the form devised by Dr. Olsen, "Juvenile Delinquency Control",\(^4\) in making a problem-child survey. This is done by recording the names of one or more children who require the largest amount of attention because of undesirable conduct in the classroom. As Dr. Olsen points out, this plan makes it possible to secure a list of the more serious cases in an economical manner.

2. In order to locate children who teachers believe should be studied and treated as "problem" children a checking device called "Information Blank for Report on Problem Children" by Herbert D. Williams is recommended.\(^5\)

3. The "Haggerty-Olsen Wickham Behavior Rating Schedules"\(^6\) may be used for obtaining a clear picture of the child's weaknesses and abilities. These schedules are designed specially for use in studying children with behavior problems. They furnish a basis for reconstructive education of such children.

4. To determine the home background of the behavior child, it is important that the homeroom teacher visit the home of the

\(^5\)Williams, pp. 163-174.
\(^6\)Willard C. Olson, The Haggerty-Olsen Wickham Behavior Rating Schedule (Minneapolis, 1930), p. 64.
child. For use in recording the home status of children, the "Minnesota Home Status Index" by Alice M. Leahy is suggested.

5. The child's school record should be carefully examined. If the record is of a cumulative nature and records for several years the child's standing in school subjects and, in addition, such items as attendance, tardiness, attitude toward home, school, and community, it will be very helpful in analyzing the cause of the child's behavior.

6. In the study of the problem child anecdotal records are valuable. A series of well-planned, detailed observations of the child in the school, his relations to his teachers, and classmates in the classroom, in the assembly period, on the playground; his conduct on the street, in the home, in the club, in any other situation in which he is observed, afford a much more concrete picture—if made by an impartial observer—than the interview alone, or scattered, fragmentary observations.

Most teachers can identify symptoms such as have been mentioned if their attention is directed to watching for specific evidences. Perhaps many of the children will need a more specialized diagnosis of their difficulties and more attention than the teacher is able to give them. Resources for supplementing the school program will very greatly from community to community.


and from school to school. Some schools have psychologists to whom such children can be referred; some have counselors or attendance supervisors, visiting teachers, or school nurses with specialized training in dealing with certain problems. Always there is some central office for finding the community agency most appropriate to aid in a given case.

The greatest shortcoming of pre-delinquency detection in schools is that very few school systems can answer "yes" to any of the following questions:

a. Is the school organized to evaluate individual differences of its pupils?

b. Are the teachers concerned not only with the academic progress of their pupils, but also with their attitudes and behavior patterns?

c. Are the teachers trained to know the signs of pre-delinquency?

d. Is provision made for visiting teachers, psychologists, school physicians, and other specialists?

e. Does the school system assign its best teachers to classes in areas of high delinquency rates?\(^9\)

The member of the staff having the responsibility for seeing that the child gets to the right agency should be able to

\(^9\)Donald Du Shane, "The School and Juvenile Delinquency," *Journal of the National Education Association*, XXXVI (February 1947), 100-101.
make good contacts with people and should become acquainted with the personnel and the machinery of the agencies in the community through which medical, social, recreational, or other services may be secured. He should know the school records about the child including his home background. 10

Once the school has identified the potentially delinquent child, it should make adjustments in its own program so that the child will feel wanted and will achieve a measure of success in keeping with his abilities. The school should see that the child has a feeling of belonging and a sense of personal realization. Too often the school rejects and makes insecure potentially delinquent pupils who have already been rejected in the home, neighborhood, and community.

Since the school is not built to care for all the needs of the child, it should become an effective referral agency. Thus each child who is in particular need of the experiences and opportunities provided by other community agencies is brought under the influence of the appropriate agency.

The school superintendent often can, and should, take the initiative in calling together other youth agencies in order that they may become better acquainted and work out a systematic two-way referral system. Only when each community agency understands the aims and functions of every other agency and only when these

10 (New York) State Education Department, pp. 19-20.
agencies develop among themselves a systematic referral is the child maximally benefited, preventive measures having been used.

Some children are in need of clinical help. A very large majority of maladjusted pupils at the junior and senior high school levels have no well-defined vocational interests. Many of them are merely drifting and therefore have no particular motivation in school or outside activities. Educational and vocational guidance are helpful not only from the standpoint of direction, but as therapeutic measures as well.

It should be obvious from the brief statements regarding the extent of the maladjustments and some of the more obvious sources of conflict in adolescents that the secondary schools must safeguard the mental health students through special staff and through both curriculum and methods. No one can say how many of those who reach the courts, how many of those who are almost serious problems, and how many of those who appear well adjusted need the aid of specialists. Many would profit from such help. Unfortunately, few reach our clinics and psychologists until they are involved in some overt difficulty, at which time assistance is either very difficult or even too late. We have too long acted as though youngsters could manage as simply in our complex, adult-fashioned, tense society as they once could in a

simpler, more natural, and more relaxed scene. It is no more strange that children today need psychological protection than it is they need safety zones for crossing the street or fire escapes on their school buildings.

It is probable that the widespread appearance of "delinquency" a form of maladjustment which involves the courts and officers of the law, including truancy officers, has focused attention on mental health. It is, however, a problem far wider than that and one which involves all phases of mental illness. The school, therefore, which focuses attention on delinquency is merely looking at acute symptoms and not at what is likely to be a broadly unwholesome situation. Recently, the National Education Association has brought out a pamphlet reporting efforts made by a number of cities seriously concerned with problem-youth. The bulletin reports on the programs of child guidance clinics, churches, recreation agencies, community co-ordinating councils, and youth councils. Many of these programs are excellent, although in many cases, they appear to be corrective rather than preventive.

A program which assumes that mental health is a matter of all-day, daily experiences has been undertaken by the Detroit schools with the aid of certain departments of Wayne University.

and the University of Michigan. The report\textsuperscript{14} deals with the use of specialists, materials (films, recordings, mental health plays, books) and evaluation. While the Detroit schools were perhaps especially fortunate in having superior assistance, many of the materials are easily accessible to any school interested in improving its approach.

Study of mental hygiene under trained instructors or staff members is desirable, and more attention to this matter by teacher training institutions is needed. Much can be gained, however, by an intelligent reading and discussion. If textbooks seem too general and remote, groups can be asked to see and discuss some of the many excellent films dealing with mental hygiene. Such a film dealing with mental hygiene. Such a film as, "The Quiet One," raises important questions and is easily available from bureaus distributing films to schools, and in the Chicago Public Library.

Fiction such as Catcher in the Rye (Salinger), Ricky (Calitri), The Wind and the Rain (Burke), The Wanderer (Fournier), and Cross Delahanty (West) would enrich teachers in many ways and increase understanding of adolescents. Such books might also help those faculty members who are in need of some understanding of self.\textsuperscript{15}

\textsuperscript{14}Paul T. Rankin and John M. Dorsey, "The Detroit School Mental-Health Project," National Association for Mental Health, Inc. 1953.

One of the most profitable means of helping teachers to understand problem children better is the case conference method. Even if there is no one well trained in conducting such conferences, teachers who are willing to cooperate can learn much from each other about the ways in which a given child will respond to different methods of approach. When well conducted it is a most valuable means of in-service training. It is vital, however, that all who participate understand their obligations to respect confidential information. The value of the case conference is greatly increased by the availability of experts, and schools should move as rapidly as possible to secure such services. Case conference groups must constantly guard against overlooking serious behavior problems which need the attention of specialists.  

Information gathered with the help of the child-study resources in the school and community—data on the child's personal make-up, his school experiences, his family and home background, his early developmental experiences—can be brought together in case conferences. Here are gathered the school doctor, school nurse, visiting teacher, counselor, school psychologist, psychiatric worker, teacher, and any other person who may be concerned in the study of the subsequent treatment of the child. The case conference is a "focusing of minds" in an attempt to discover causative factors in the behavior sequence and to plan a therapeutic program assigning specific responsibilities to various in-
dividuals. The case conference thereby serves a three-fold function: (1) it contributes to a better understanding of the child; (2) it evolves definite and specific plans for treatment; (3) it serves as a valuable learning experience for all who participate.

The conference may be held in the school building, at a central administration office, or in the headquarters of some out-of-school agency which maintains a close contact with the child. It is always desirable that the child's teacher be present at these conferences, for it is he who has closest and most constant contact with the pupil. In this way the classroom itself can become a strong therapeutic force in the study-treatment program. As often as possible, the superintendent should attend the case conferences. Out of school agency workers representing the Boy's Club, Y.M.C.A., Boy Scouts, C.Y.O., church and other organizations can contribute much in the way of after-school contacts with the child; by inviting their participation the school will insure effective use of community services in the study and treatment of those who have the greatest need for them. The case conference may serve as the hub of the individual-centered school-community program for the prevention and control of undesirable behavior. 17

While all community resources should be utilized in obtaining a diagnosis of the needs of these problem children, assistance in treatment or "rehabilitation" should include contacts with home, church, medical services, recreation, and youth serving agencies. Nevertheless, the limitations as to what schools can do and the points at which this basic jurisdiction should pass to other agencies need to be made clear. Some of these limiting conditions may be itemized here as suggestions. Variations may be found in different kinds of communities. The basic responsibility of the school is modified:

1. When repeated efforts to secure adequate responsibility on the part of parents are without result. At this point the court and the social welfare agencies should take over and assure a child the minimal essentials of parental care.

2. When parents, although cooperative, are incompetent or unable to provide the necessary family situation to keep the child in school, either because of failure to provide needed medical care, adequate food, or clothing for adequate parental control. Such cases require home assistance, which is a function of welfare or social agencies rather than the school.

3. When a pupil is so atypical that his needs cannot be met by the school facilities available. Feeble-minded of the lower levels, and children who are suffering from serious mental disturbances or whose antisocial activities make them dangerous individuals cannot be regarded as school responsibilities. Large
cities may be able to provide special facilities in some cases, but in most cases such children must be cared for through state resources. It is not within the jurisdiction of the school to secure the proper disposition of such cases.

Another phase of the total program which should be made the subject of study by a staff subcommittee is the child accounting procedure and a system of records. School records should be accurate, up-to-date, accessible and used. In general, schools should avoid the collection of large amounts of data which are potentially usable but in relation to the level of the staff ability are not likely to be used at present. The first step is usually to work out procedures that will encourage teachers and other staff members to make more use of records now available—then to study ways in which the available information can be recorded for easy interpretation.18

The one way to guarantee identifying all children with tendencies toward delinquency is to make a continuous study and record of every pupil from the day he enters first grade until he is graduated from high school. This is an almost impossible task, but it is the ideal to keep in mind.

In one city surveyed by the Youth Authority19 the teachers keep a running inventory, sometimes illuminated by anecdotes, on

18 (New York) State Education Department, p. 21

19 The Youth Authority program of delinquency control and youth conservation, which is carried on in several states.
each child's intellectual ability as indicated by periodic intelligence tests; his achievements, interests and aptitudes as revealed by appropriate tests; on his emotional reactions, behavior, attendance, and work habits; his health and physical limitations as revealed by medical examinations; his ability to get along with others; his particular assets and difficulties, and his remedial weaknesses, such as difficulty in reading; his participation in sports, recreation, and other extra-curricular activities; his occupational goals and employment experience. The record also contains essential information on his home situation, including his relations with his parents, and economic factors that might affect his behavior, such as poverty or overcrowding in the home. Neighborhood influences and gang affiliations, if any, are likewise included. To protect the confidential nature of the information, the school records much of it in code. However, to carry out this program effectively, clerical assistance must be provided.

Apart from the value to the school, continuous study of the individual child can in time give the child perhaps the most useful of all knowledge—knowledge of himself, and that should be its ultimate purpose.20

CHAPTER III

ADJUSTING THE SCHOOL PROGRAM TO MEET THE NEEDS
OF THE PROBLEM CHILDREN

The school has been inclined to place the blame for student maladjustment entirely upon parents and extra-scholastic phases of life. On the other hand, the recent trend is for the community to place more and more responsibility for more and more things upon the schools. Although the school is correct in its answer that ultimate responsibility rests with parents, the school is in a peculiarly favorable position both as a preventive and as a corrective agency in the matter of juvenile delinquency.

Donald Du Shane, executive secretary of the National Education Commission for the defense of Democracy through Education states: "Schools of this country could reduce the delinquency rate seventy per cent if adequately staffed, equipped, and coordinated with other community agencies. This sensational claim was substantiated by reports on accomplishments of a number of

1Rev. Joseph G. Cox, "What Are We Going to Do with the Behavior Problem Students?" National Catholic Education Bulletin XLIV (August 1947), 426-431.
Competently staffed schools constitute the most effective agencies for prevention of juvenile delinquency. In spite of many efforts in other directions, this problem cannot be met adequately without the full help and cooperation of our school system.

The writer is conscious of the fact that the present teacher shortage makes it difficult to screen personnel. Special training of teachers in understanding and correction of delinquency, limiting of teacher appointments to those who are interested in children, who look upon education not merely as the learning of subject matter but as real experience in living, who adjust their methods and subject matter to the individual needs of children—these would bring about a marked decrease in the present delinquency rate. Effective work in this field cannot be done if classes are so large that individual attention to each child is impossible.

It is necessary that the schools understand the vast range of individual differences among students and provide all children—particularly those with mental, physical, or social handicaps—with work that will enable them to have a measure of success and satisfaction out of the school program. This means that the school should make a continuous study of every child, using the

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scientific means that have been developed in recent years.

It is most important that the school program should adjust itself to the needs of the problem children.\(^3\)

There are many ways of classifying children's needs. The headings which follow overlap but they are sufficiently different to make them useful categories in considering the basic needs that are related to personality development.

1. A Feeling of Belonging. Every person needs to have the security that comes from knowing that regardless of what happens he will be loved and wanted. The home should be the primary source of such security, but for many the schools will have to provide a major source of this type of satisfaction.

2. Experience of Success. Some delinquent children are delinquent in part because their school experiences resulted almost entirely in failures. The school must provide the kind of opportunity that will enable these children to enjoy success. This is not a matter of watering down content or lowering passing grades, but a genuine relating of the children's tasks to their interests and abilities. Pseudo-success is not the antidote for failure.

3. A Chance to Make Significant Contributions. This need involves the recognition that practically all children want to grow up, want to do hard things which they see older people doing. The school should study the opportunities for pupils to contribute

\(^3\)Ibid., 100-101.
to home, school and community living in a way commensurate with ability and with the resultant feeling on the part of the children that they have made important contributions. This result comes not by having adults tell them they have been important but from the experience of planning and participating.

4. Opportunities to Participate in Creative Activities. Many children have lived all their lives in such meager environments that they have never experienced the satisfaction of participating in creative activities—music, drama, sports, arts. Because of cultural deprivation of the environment, special attention needs to be given to this phase of living for the group.

An important part of school experiences for the problem children is the learning of the common skills and knowledge required to be a member of society. These children often need special help and, as was indicated above, the expectancies for them should take account of their abilities; but they still need to acquire some competence in the basic subjects of the curriculum. The term "curriculum" is used here to designate the subject matter content of the program and not its broader aspects.

Many of these children have already had a poor school record in regard to their assignments and therefore have deficiencies which further handicap them. For example, a study of boys at the New York State Training School as Warwick showed boys who were retarded three years or more in reading and arithmetic. The school should review its provision for remedial help, particularly in the area of reading. For certain other of these children
their special interests and abilities will require supplementary work.

The needs of this group make important the reconsideration of the whole approach to standards. No single standard for determined success can adequately take account of the wide range of these children's abilities. Careful analysis should be made of goals for each child, allowing the pupil to cooperate in the process.

It is sometimes possible that the delinquent is a child with rather specialized interests, not covered by the regular school program. The possibility of supplementary opportunities will need to be explored in such cases. For others, it may be desirable to work out arrangements with out-of-school agencies to supplement what the school is able to do.

The child will often be helped if he can see the relationship of what is being taught in the classroom to activities in which he is interested outside the school. Many do not take readily to abstract material and opportunities to use what they are learning in concrete situations. This should be particularly emphasized. The kind of opportunities provided in the larger cities through the more imaginatively programmed continuation schools or by other work-school relations should be considered.4

The superintendent of schools occupies the key position in

4State Education Department, Schools against Delinquency, pp. 23-25.
a school-community program for the prevention and control of juvenile delinquency. Through his teaching staff and special school services, the administrator has close and continued contacts with every child and youth in the community for an extended period of time. The school receives the child early in life and aims to assist him directly in becoming a well-integrated and socially useful citizen as well as to help him achieve self-perfection. Because the schools have all the children, because they have trained personnel to deal with youth and youth problems, because their objectives call for developing socially acceptable and personally satisfying behavior, the superintendent finds himself at a tactical advantage, enjoyed by the head of no other agency concerned with the prevention and control of juvenile delinquency.\footnote{National Society for the Study of Education, \textit{Juvenile Delinquency and the Schools}, p. 126.}

The role of the school should be considered as central to a well-planned community program, not as supplementary and incidental. By detecting delinquent tendencies in children at an early age, referring such children to agencies that can give them the special help they need, and providing desirable experiences for them in its program, the school can contribute much to the prevention and control of juvenile delinquency on a community-wide basis. Instead of considering the schools as an isolated agency whose sole task is to teach verbal skills and knowledge remote from life, the superintendent and his staff
should evaluate their school program in terms of desirable change or modifications in the child's everyday behavior. Unless they do this, the schools unwittingly aid and abet the development of undesirable behavior patterns. The superintendent can either stimulate or stifle the concerted community attack on juvenile delinquency. He is often the spearhead of the attack.6

The superintendent can concern himself with the problem of juvenile delinquency control and prevention on two levels: (1) on the community level by stimulating and co-ordinating community action through joint thinking and planning on the part of all youth-serving agencies; (2) on the school level by improving the effectiveness of the educational institution as it deals with all children and by giving special attention to the deviate child who frequently develops delinquent patterns.7

On the community level, the superintendent's responsibility will vary with the degree of over-all community planning and co-ordination that has already evolved. At a minimum, the superintendent should be an active participating member of any group in the community that is concerned with the problems of all children and youth; at a maximum, the superintendent might initiate the organization of such a group, if no co-ordination exists or if better co-ordination is needed.8

6Ibid., 126.
7Ibid., 127.
8Ibid., 127.
On the school level, by continually improving his own agency, the school administrator provides a more effective program for all children. He does this by making a better selection and use of teachers, by helping them to know and understand their pupils, by obtaining and using special services to aid the teacher in understanding and adjusting children with severe problems, by building curricula and revising them so that they will meet the needs of all pupils, and by setting up and maintaining an effective liaison with other agencies in the community. It must be emphasized that the major responsibility of the superintendent for the delinquent and the potentially delinquent is the same for all children.9

One of the most effective ways in which the local school can combat delinquent behavior is to make sure that it wholeheartedly accepts all children who enter its doors and particularly that it provides a secure environment for those children who may have been rejected by their parents, their friends, or their communities.

Educational discrimination against any part of the community or any minority group encourages delinquency. This acceptance and understanding must be a part of the philosophy of the classroom teacher and the school administrator. The teacher who genuinely accepts the child for what he is and who can objectively evaluate the effect on child behavior of such factors as a sordid

9Ibid.
home background, an overprotective parent, or lack of emotional security, can help to establish an environment which will provide the security essential to the development of positive attitudes. This teacher will be interested in carefully observing her children, not only in the classroom, but on the playground, at home, and in the community. She will not be threatened by outbursts of aggression. She will be concerned when a child fails to participate or is isolated or rejected by his classmates. She will be flexible in her curriculum planning and will make an honest attempt to include some experiences in which every child can participate successfully and will not base the evaluation of her charges totally on academic achievement.

The teacher and the administrative officials will also encourage the inclusion of a number of special services. They will make every effort to understand fully the functions of these services and to participate in them whenever the need arises. The work of attendance officers must mean more than just dealing legalistically with truants. Here is a resource that can represent a direct link between the home and the school and through which many home-school problems can be resolved. The visiting teacher and social worker can provide valuable information about youngsters and if they are made an integral part of the educational team can help in making the school program meet children's needs.

Many schools have special classes. These classes are func-
tional only if their objectives are clearly understood by all school personnel and if they meet the needs for which they were designed. Too often these classes are islands within the school and their programs considered second-rate by both the teachers and the students. For example, classes for retarded students sometimes have been stigmatized and students who do poor work have been threatened with the possibility of being transferred to them. Acceptance of retarded children in regular classes has been resisted, and the special classes have been considered as the best placement for the "undesirables." Only when special classes are given normal social prestige are they of real service.

More and more, schools are providing more nearly adequate guidance and health services. These again are services which can help the teacher in the understanding of her pupils and in aiding her to provide a wholesome and developmental school program. It is not enough to refer a youngster to the health service, guidance clinic or counselors. These services cannot solve problems; they can only assist in their solution. The child as a member of any teacher's classroom group spends most of his school hours with the teacher; therefore, the teacher must make classroom adaptations in the light of the known health problems of any particular child and must work closely with the psychologist and guidance worker on the treatment of specific behavior difficulties. Frequently a teacher must adjust his classroom seating plan to provide for the children with faulty vision or hearing.
Thus the teacher is placed in a position of great responsibility. Unless she assumes that responsibility no amount of special services the school may provide will be as effective as it should be. It is the understanding teacher in cooperation with the school administrator who must provide the key service for the child who needs help. This service should be provided before society has the opportunity to label a child a delinquent. It should be provided for the youngster who has already been labeled.10

Teacher Training. If the local school is to be staffed by teachers and administrators prepared to deal with problems of delinquency, it becomes the obligation of the teacher education institutions to give some emphasis to the problem in their curricula. Basic to this problem and to all teacher education is the selection of teacher candidates. Careful selection of prospective teachers proves difficult today when the nation faces a large teacher shortage. Nevertheless, the fact that teachers with poor personal adjustment find it difficult to work with children and at times actually encouraged delinquent behavior cannot be ignored. If colleges think it necessary to recommend doubtful candidates, particularly those with severe adjustment problems, they should make every effort to help these students

resolve their difficulties before recommending them for teaching positions.

Study of the problem of delinquent behavior should be more than a text-book orientation for the student who plans to teach. It should be an integral part of functional courses in child development, mental hygiene, group methods and sociology. Extensive opportunity should be given to observe and work with children both in and out of the school setting. This should include some contact with delinquent children. Social agencies and the courts can provide ample resources. One college requires that all students spend at least fifteen hours during their first semester of teacher training in working with children in a community agency. This field work is correlated with courses in education and psychology, and helps to develop understanding of the problems children face outside of the school itself. Many teacher-training institutions are also increasing their emphasis on the study of the child. If future teachers enter the classroom with an awareness of the wide range of behavior patterns they are going to meet and understand how to attack specific problems, the school will more and more be able to cope realistically with the problems of latent and overt delinquency.

Some colleges and universities have inaugurated specific programs to train teachers to work with delinquent youth. Representative of these is a cooperative project between a college
and the State Youth Authority, which involves a period of internship for the students in a juvenile institution. Here the students are able to work with delinquent youth in school, in their work and recreation programs and in their living quarters. Opportunity is also given students to visit the homes and the communities of a selected number of cases. The majority of the students completing this program are employed by the public schools and have been exceedingly helpful in working with children with behavior problems. As teachers they also have been able to interpret the program of the Youth Authority to the school faculty and the community and to assist in the adjustment of youth returned to the community from Youth Authority institutions.

Recreation has a recognized place in the juvenile delinquency prevention program and the committee should see that a full program including a variety of activities if provided for the most vulnerable. The term "recreation" is used to cover the whole range of activities—sports, games, dancing, dramatics, music, reading, and other arts. Such provision is particularly important since many of these children come from homes and neighborhoods in which provisions for leisure time activities are very inadequate. Qualified personnel is necessary to make the program effective. With adequate supervision much use can be made of

11 S.Y. Authority explained in footnote. See Chapter II, Footnote 18 for explanation.

12 Ibid.
volunteer leaders who have had special training. Suggestions for the development of the recreation program are found in the New York State Education Department bulletin, Play and Recreation for Children and Adults.

The regular school recreation program offers excellent opportunities for children to succeed and to get a feeling of group membership. The wise use of such opportunities should be given special attention by the teacher. The interest groups, frequently called extra-curricular activities, should be used fully for these vulnerable children and the occasional requirement that such activities are open to persons making certain marks in subject matter courses should be waived.

The school facilities should be made available as completely as possible in order to provide suitable activities for the vulnerable children. If school finances are inadequate to provide for additional expenses, it may be possible to secure the cooperation of community agencies. The pattern of recreational direction varies from community to community, but in every case the school should work to secure full use of the best facilities and development of an integrated program for the community.

A development that is widely used in connection with combating delinquency is the youth center. This may be located on school property; often it is elsewhere. The important thing seems to be to give the young people themselves wide scope in planning, setting up and manning the center. Adult supervision
is necessary but must not dominate.

Supervised centers where dancing is possible can help to combat the trend towards increase in delinquency among younger girls. Cooperation between school, home, and youth-serving agencies in giving these girls acceptable outlets for their desire to serve is vital.

The need for supervised recreation with adequate facilities and leadership is even more vital during vacations. The committee should analyze the prospects for each of the children and should see that proper provisions are made. The school's function here will be twofold: (a) to see that these children are placed in contact with provisions furnished by other agencies, and (b) to supplement these when they are inadequate. Supervised playgrounds, day camps, opportunities for dramatics, music and other arts are all services that schools have provided in certain communities. Recent legislation permits schools to run summer camps. Federal funds are available for certain types of services in blighted areas. 13

Too much stress can not be placed on the close and intimate cooperation between the home and the school if the problem of juvenile delinquency is to be met with any degree of success. The home has the final responsibility for the development of the child, but the school should be in a position to offer a trained

13 State Education Department, Schools against Delinquency, pp. 28-29.
and understanding personnel to supplement the home efforts. It is of the greatest importance that the parents know and appreciate this relationship in order to participate intelligently in the diagnosis and to provide the preventive and curative treatment. In other words, the better the parent understands the program of the school and the better the school knows the situation which obtains the home life, the greater the chance of success in striving for good mental health of the pupil.

The parent should be informed constantly of the school's program through all available avenues. This information to the parent should not follow the public relations technique, for the delinquency-prevention program must touch more intimate and vital areas than any presented in the public relations program. Information of this sort can not be presented to parents "en masse," save in the general education of all parents through parent-teacher courses of study and similar means, which method offers initial opportunities only. To help parents of incipient or actual delinquents, the school should set up a system of personal and individual conferences, often using the home as a basis of operation rather than the school. It must be remembered that some psychiatrists refer not to "delinquent children" but to "delinquent parents," stressing that the parent may well be the delinquent party in the relationship.

Many schools use the visiting teacher plan as the basic informational approach to parents. Smaller schools, unable to
employ visiting teachers, may have each homeroom teacher visit the home of each pupil as soon as possible after the opening of school. Attendance workers may also be used for this purpose.

It may be the special problem of the school administrator to acquaint parents with whatever over-all program the school may set up to combat juvenile delinquency, but the responsibility for acquainting parents with special resources of the school rests with the guidance department, the school nurse and every teacher. Too few schools have used the resources of their faculties in understanding the problems, and the average school administrator will be amazed to note the willingness with which teachers attack the situation if it is forcefully brought to their attention and they are given adequate information. The "home room" plan of organization lends itself particularly well in mobilizing the particular resources of the school.

There are many reasons why parents may not be filling their function adequately. Some of these are emotional weaknesses in one or both parents, inability to provide basic necessities, insufficient time at home on the part of the parents, and ignorance. These categories are not mutually exclusive. The first two are primarily dealt with by social agencies. The school's responsibility is to see that the need is brought to the attention of the agencies. The school may help more directly on the other two points.

In the case of the homes where outside duties of parents
prevent them from supervising children, the school should work with such parents to make the most adequate possible arrangements. In some communities the school has extended its program before and after regular school hours, using appropriations for this purpose. In other communities or in areas where such provisions can not be made, some arrangements will need to be made on an individual basis or in small groups. Parents may be helped to work out sharing arrangements somewhat along the line of car pools. The main thing is to help them work out definite plans to cover the periods when they themselves are not available.

The parents who want to help are a real challenge to the schools. The Bureau of Child Development and Parent Education of the State Department will be glad to be of assistance and invites requests and suggestions. Parent-teacher organizations and child study groups can also be of assistance. The school can arrange special meetings from time to time on behavior problems. Films followed by discussion are often effective, particularly for parents who have difficulty with printed materials. In special cases it may be possible to arrange individual conferences for parents, using specially qualified staff members and any experts who may be available in the area. Colleges and universities may be a source of help in this connection.

Several communities have used joint staff and parent committees to develop statements on current problems such as the use of leisure time, spending money, the use of the family car, boy-
girl relations and others. The development of a position on questions of this kind which can be generally used in a community is very helpful as children are sensitive (as are adults) to variations in standards between families. 14

As in every situation of this kind, sooner or later the school may be discouraged to discover parents who give no evidence of cooperation. These are the real "delinquent" parents and they should be dealt with not on the grounds of expediency but with considerable force and dispatch. Naturally, every effort should be made to enlist the aid of any parent. If it becomes evident, however, that the parent has no real desire to cooperate, the situation is not one for the school but for the courts, because in such parents lies the seed continued and growing delinquency for the child. Albany and other cities have found that "school courts" or prehearings at school help arouse the parents to the seriousness of the problem thereby reducing referrals to the court. Such prehearings should be followed up with steps to settle the difficulties if the most effective results are to be achieved. 15

In summarizing this chapter one can note that it is necessary for the schools to understand the vast range of individual differences among students and provide all children - particularly those with mental, physical, or social handicaps - with work

14See Chapter IV.

15State Education Department, Schools against Delinquency, pp. 28-29.
that will enable them to have a measure of success and satisfaction and of the school program. This success is found in the collaboration of superintendents, teachers, counselors, psychologists, social workers, and health officers uniting in one common goal - the good of the child.

This Chapter leads to Chapter IV where the cases of three community programs show the favorable results of the cooperative work of this personnel.
CHAPTER IV

OBSERVING THE CASES OF TWO COMMUNITY PROGRAMS
WITH THEIR FAVORABLE RESULTS

The trend in the handling of children's misconduct is away from the formalized procedure of arrest, detention, trial and conviction. More and more individuals have reached the conclusion that the whole problem of juvenile delinquency revolves around the educational processes. The schools, therefore, they reason, should take over the management of local resources for combating delinquency.

For most communities, however, this train of thought remains in the realm of speculation. Few school systems are ready to accept this responsibility. Not many police departments and other juvenile agencies are ready to admit that the schools can do a better piece of work than they have done. The techniques of guidance and school social service have not yet been standardized to an extent that schools everywhere would be equipped to take over all direction of community efforts to control juvenile delinquency. Passaic's experiment, therefore, has much significance as precedent for other communities.

Organization. The Passaic Children's Bureau was organized in 1937. It was one of the many endeavors improvised by cities
in all parts of the world to cope with juvenile delinquency apart from the atmosphere of the police station and the criminal courts. The Bureau is now an integral unit of the Passaic school system under the general direction of the Board of Education. This status was contemplated from the start, although it was not finally achieved until the agency had been in operation several years. It investigates all cases involving misconduct on the part of children whether they arise within or without the school's jurisdiction. It oversees attendance and guidance services in the individual schools. It arranges psychiatric, psychological, and other clinical studies. It provides social treatment for children in need of guidance and direction, excepting where institutional care or severance from family ties may be indicated. All complaints involving children received by the Passaic police department are referred to the Bureau. Children apprehended by the police are referred to the Bureau for study and treatment.

The staff of the Bureau consists of a director who has the title of assistant superintendent of schools in charge of guidance, research, and curriculum; a psychologist; a psychiatric social worker; two attendance officers; and a unit of four police officers, including one policewoman, who are assigned by the chief of police to serve in the Passaic Bureau.

In addition, a number of clerks complete the office staff. Cooperative relationships are maintained with the state mental-hygiene clinics, clinics at local hospitals so that diagnostic
study and treatment of high professional quality can be assured the children dealt with in the Bureau. The Bureau also works closely with the city recreation department and with voluntary group work organizations and with civic organizations in the development and application of preventive efforts. Close attention is paid to the religious needs of the children referred to the Bureau. The clergy of all denominations have been consulted and relied upon to aid in the treatment of children who receive Bureau care.

The Children's Bureau exists to deal with the problems of truancy and juvenile delinquency. Its purpose is to eliminate the causes of these offenses, to prevent their occurrence, and to make desirable adjustments for children who have offended. The emphasis of its activities is always upon prevention and readjustment rather than upon correction and punishment.

In order to accomplish its purpose, the Children's Bureau works in active cooperation with schools, courts, homes, churches, and social agencies. The Bureau strives more to make it unnecessary to invoke the law, than to enforce the law.

The Passaic Bureau strengthens and supplements but does not replace the regular guidance program in the individual schools. The larger schools have either full-time or part-time guidance workers who act as liaison officers between the school and the Bureau. The high school employs two full-time counselors. Each of the junior high schools has a full-time guidance counselor.
In the smaller elementary schools the principal takes over the responsibility for some of the guidance functions.

The school guidance program is built on the premise that the teacher, the principal, and guidance counselor must first know the child if the school is going to achieve its objectives. For this reason extensive individual histories are maintained in a file-folder type of cumulative record card. This card follows the child from the date of his entry in the kindergarten until he is absorbed into the adult life of the community. These cards cover all phases of the child's personality, including his home background, physical history, test scores, school marks, interests, attainments, behavior, description, etc. Needless to say, these cards are always available when a child is referred to the Bureau and constitute a rich resource of information on the nature of the child and his problem prior to any investigation of the part of the Bureau personnel.

Considerable group and individual testing is carried on within the school at any time and at any grade with groups that have particular problems on which test results may shed further light.

No choices as to curriculum, subjects, or occupational fields of endeavor are made without a thorough analysis of the cumulative record by the counselor or principal and the pupil. The counseling procedure is such that the child and his parents study the necessary data concerning the child, his interest, his aptitudes,
and achievements. The final decision rests with the child and his parents, although every effort is made to guide the parents and the child in the direction of realistic and promising decision. The purpose of the school guidance program is always self-guidance on the part of the individual pupil.

Some headway, especially in the junior and senior high schools, has been made with group guidance programs wherein common educational, vocational, and social problems are discussed as to modes of conduct and desirable behavior and action. At the same time, classes in English, social studies, and other fields are heavily weighted with real-life problems of a guidance nature and are considered an intrinsic part of the school guidance program.

The guidance worker and the principal are an important and vital link between the Bureau and the schools. Through them are channeled many cases which begin to show behavior signs of initial maladjustment; with their assistance the therapeutic program is planned and carried out. In short, one supplements the other in such a manner that the study treatment program becomes a joint affair of give and take, requiring frequent conferences within the school, where case materials are discussed, plans for action listed, and specific responsibility for carrying out various phases of the adjustment program is fixed. The teacher is always to be included in these conferences, since she is literally a classroom mother to each child and exerts a powerful influ-
ence on the child's behavior. Often, the Bureau's findings and recommendations are relayed to her via the guidance counselor or by the principal. The ultimate success of any program such as the one sponsored by the Bureau depends on the extent to which the classroom teacher can be enlisted in the Bureau's study-treatment program as an active, cooperating prophylactic force.

This description of the Passaic Children's Bureau indicates the extent to which collaboration between school and police is possible in the typical middle-sized American city, where the authorities are willing to approach the problem of juvenile delinquency from an over-all point of view, without regard for "departmental prerogatives."

The initiation of the program with personnel already employed in the school system and in the police department, combined with training on the job and the fulfilling of vacancies with the specialists whose services have been proved by experience to be needed, has perhaps made progress far more rapid than would have been possible had the establishment of the Bureau awaited the employment of qualified specialists by the police and the school systems.

The "crime rate" for Passaic, it was found, decreased by twenty-five per cent from 1937, the year the Bureau was founded, to 1941, the year in which the school system made its decision to take over the responsibility for the Bureau.

The reduction in Passaic's crime rate in contrast to the
slowly rising trend in the national and state-wide crime rates may plausibly be credited to the operations of the Bureau and to the coordinate activities in the recreational field, although, of course, other factors may be operating.

The keynote of the whole Passaic plan is one of cooperation of all agencies, centered around the school as the strategic agency and the focal point of attack. One can readily see a great deal of merit in this particular approach in solving a community problem.

1William C. Kvaraceus, "Juvenile Delinquency and the School Organization of Bureau of Special Service, pp. 25-26."
CASE OF PHILADELPHIA

In January of 1949, Dr. Hoyer, superintendent of Philadelphia public schools, organized a committee to review the cases of seriously maladjusted children.

He asked the top-level administrators of the public-school system to be members in order that the Committee would carry maximum weight in the schools and in the community. With Dr. Hoyer as chairman, the group was composed of the directors of the divisions of Pupil Personnel and Counseling, Medical Services and Special Education, plus the assistant to the Board of Superintendents.

The Committee went into action by inviting the principals of Philadelphia's two hundred thirty-two schools to submit for consideration the case histories of "potentially dangerous" pupils. In less than a week the group was hard at work reviewing information from principals, teachers, attendance officers, counselors, school nurses and psychologists.

From the very start the Case Review Committee met a full morning each week from September through June, 1949. It handled three hundred eighty-four cases, some of which required weekly consideration over a period of months.

Each child whose case came before the Committee was given a complete physical examination unless he had had one recently.
The Division of Medical Services had an intensive program employing the skills of ninety-eight doctors, forty dentists, one hundred ninety-five nurses and twenty dental hygienists. This division, plus other medical facilities in the community, cooperated effectively with the Case Review Committee.

The Division of Pupil Personnel and Counseling was also in the picture right from the start. In fact, children who came before the Committee were generally already known to one of the counselors. This division administered a program involving one hundred four attendance officers and two hundred fifty fulltime counselors.

One of the functions of the Committee was to serve as a connecting link between the home and the school and the hundreds of welfare agencies in greater Philadelphia. The Committee worked closely with the Family Service Agency, since it found that in many cases tensions at home were a basic cause of juvenile maladjustment. Often the parents needed to get straightened out at the same time as the child.

Committee member Hans Gordon, director of Special Education, with a staff of psychologists and supervisors, was responsible for advising the superintendents about the special needs of physically, mentally or emotionally handicapped children and of operating special classes to take care of them. This division provided individual instruction for two hundred fifty homebound children, and had thirty-six speech-correction teachers to help
youngsters with speech defects.

Boys referred to the Case Review Committee outnumbered the girls three to one. The ages ranged from seven to seventeen, bulking heaviest at adolescence. Causes for referral included temper, sexual aggression, rape, arson, hallucinations, brain injury, indecent exposure, attempting to choke another child, shooting, attempted suicide, and terrorizing with a knife.

A specific case is that of a thirteen year old boy who though formerly friendly and normal had become eccentric and violent. On behalf of the Case Review Committee, the school counselor talked with the boy's mother and persuaded her to take him to a psychiatric clinic. Subsequently he was admitted to a psychiatric hospital where he made a splendid recovery.

There were many similar cases that required psychiatric treatment or other special referrals. However, in many other instances, special effort on the part of school personnel accomplished wonders.

In one case an adolescent girl's behavior was intolerable. She used profane language, was constantly fighting and boasted of stealing. After six months in a school which had done outstanding work with special class pupils, the girl's manner changed and she became a friendly and trusted student.

This marked change was due to the influence of her teacher from whom she soon learned that only a certain type of behavior was acceptable. The teacher's firmness gave the girl security,
her understanding meant adult friendship, and her interest and honesty gave the child something to which to cling.

In this case the Committee's effort involved no direct action beyond encouraging the school to continue working and promising to relieve the situation if the child's behavior did not improve. Just having the awareness of the Committee's interest and backing was enough to change the picture. The teacher exerted renewed efforts knowing that her services were recognized by the "higher echelon" and that if there were no improvement, she wouldn't be obliged to cope with the violent behavior problem indefinitely.

Sometimes though not frequently, the Committee feels called upon to take authoritative action. In one case when parents refused to have proper psychiatric care for a schizophrenic son, the Committee advised them that a petition would be filed for his placement because they refused to take voluntary action. Before the existence of the Committee such a case would probably not have come to the attention of authorities unless or until tragedy struck.

There are a number of reasons why the Case Review Committee was so well suited to doing a really effective job.

First of all, it had contacts with far more children than any other agency since it was in two-way communication with every public-school in the Philadelphia area. It also had information about children in private schools as well. The attendance
workers served parochial and private as well as public schools.

Furthermore, the Committee maintained at least indirect contact with many youngsters even after they had left school. When young people passed beyond its jurisdiction, the Committee acted as a vital link between the school and community by giving all information at its disposal to the Crime Prevention Association and to the Juvenile Aid Bureau of the police.

Secondly, the Committee was able to work swiftly and without red tape. This was important. Until additional sessions were arranged recently, the Juvenile Court of Philadelphia was so tied up with a backlog of cases there was often a two-to-five-month delay in obtaining a hearing before a judge. In that length of time many children who might have been rehabilitated if treated promptly, had become hopelessly entrenched in a delinquent career.

Lastly, the Committee was in a position to look at the total picture and call attention to serious deficiencies.

The activities of the Case Review Committee have resulted in a continuing evaluation of the job being done by the school system itself. Experiences of members of the Committee have reinforced a number of convictions, which include the following:

(1) The more that is learned about behavior by studying seriously maladjusted children, the greater is the insight developed in understanding all children. A far greater emphasis needs to be placed on the understanding of human growth and development in teacher-training and upon a more careful evaluation
of personality fitness in the selection of teachers.

(2) The teacher must be emotionally mature - a person who is not out of stride at the slightest evidence of nonconformity.

(3) The emotional atmosphere of the school is the key to its success or failure in helping children achieve social maturity. The climate of the school should be friendly and permeated with a genuine respect for each child as a unique individual with special interests and abilities.

(4) Attention should be given to refining further the grouping of children with similar interests and abilities. Although a tailor-made program for each child cannot be provided, the smaller the class and the greater the number of groupings geared to different abilities, the greater the prospects of helping children find themselves.

(5) There is a general need for expanding the special services rendered by attendance workers, counselor, doctor, nurse, psychologist and psychiatrist. Although teachers are alert to signs of illness or personality maladjustment, they cannot be expected to possess the special skills necessary to alleviate them or the necessary knowledge of the vast health and welfare resources available in a large city.

(6) Teachers need the encouragement of knowing that administrators are aware of their problems, mindful of their efforts and eager to find ways and means of lightening their burdens.

(7) The school needs parents as partners in the business of education.
(8) The school achieves its maximum effectiveness to the extent that it is attuned to its community, reaches out to tap its many resources and welcomes close working relationships.

Schools can be a major factor in turning the tide of juvenile delinquency. Nearly all children are reached by schools in a daily and intimate relationship for from eight to twelve of the formative years of their lives. By early and appropriate treatment teachers can enhance the prospects of the normal child and in most cases prevent maladjustment in children.

There can be no easy answer or shortcut. Hope lies in sharpening insights and skills, expanding educational, health and welfare agencies and acting together to provide constructive help for the troubled child.

Robert C. Taber, "Before It's Too Late," The Journal of the National Education Association, XLII (December 1953), 542-544.
The identifying of the child with his individual complex social problems and the adjusting of the school program to meet the needs of the problem child are a "must" in our complex social order. However, no program, no matter how well planned, will be a success unless it teaches the individual child the two great commandments: the love of God and love of neighbor. The program which instills the knowledge and love of God along with the principles of Christian social living will, indeed, be a vital aspect of the program that solves the problem of juvenile delinquency.

In Christian social living, religion is paramount. When it is stated that religion is the soul of the curriculum it means, as the late Monsignor Johnson so eloquently expressed it, that: "Religion is of the very warp and woof of life, and consequently it must be of the very warp and woof of education." It means what has been authoritatively stated by the Vicar of Christ on earth in the encyclical on The Christian Education of Youth: The mere fact that a school gives some religious instruction, does not bring it into accord with the teaching of
the Church on sound education or make it a fit place for students. To be this, it is necessary that all the teaching and the whole organization of the school, and of its teachers, syllabus and textbooks in every branch, be regulated by the Christian spirit, under the direction and maternal supervision of the Church; "so that religion may be in very truth the foundation and crown of the youth's entire training; and this in every grade of school, not only the elementary, but the intermediate and the higher institutions of learning as well. . . . If this is wanting. . . . little good can be expected from any kind of learning, and considerable harm will often be the consequence." ¹

The term "curriculum" can mean "the systematic arrangement of a number of courses into a unit group for differentiated groups of pupils", as Karl Ray Douglass, contributor to National Education Journal, author and co-author of college textbooks on education defines it, or it can mean the total school experience of the child. It is used in the second sense here. Accepting the curriculum, then, as the total school experience of the child, one can define the positive values of the curriculum as those elements of that experience which because of their inherent perfection contribute to the welfare of the child. Using this definition, one can say that religious values in the curriculum are those elements in the school experience of the child which

because of their inherent quality and perfection will bring the child closer to God.²

In fact it must never be forgotten that the subject of Christian education is man whole and entire, soul united to body in unity of nature, with all his faculties natural and supernatural, such as right reason and revelation show him to be; man, therefore, fallen from his original estate, but redeemed by Christ and restored to the supernatural condition of adopted son of God, though without the preternatural privileges of bodily immortality or perfect control of appetite. There remain, therefore, in human nature the effects of original sin, the chief of which are weakness of will and disorderly inclinations.

'Folly is bound up in the heart of a child and the rod of correction shall drive it away.' Disorderly inclinations then must be corrected, good tendencies encouraged and regulated from tender childhood, and above all the mind must be enlightened and the will strengthened by supernatural truth and by the means of grace, without which it is impossible to control evil impulses, impossible to attain to the full and complete perfection of education intended by the Church, which Christ has endowed so rightly with divine doctrine and with the Sacraments, the efficacious means of grace.³

It is the purpose of this chapter to consider some implications of this directive. First, the teacher cannot possibly obtain for the child every religious value, but must strive to attain for him and with him those which will benefit him most. Second, in selecting these values for the child the teacher must


be guided by the perfection of the experience, the needs that arise from the nature of the child, and by those needs which arise from his environment. Third, the teacher must realize the importance of the environmental factors. In traditional religious programs the first two sources of value have been emphasized, namely those derived from the inherent perfection of the experience (the use of the means of grace, the knowledge of essential doctrines and moral principles, the practice of theological virtues) and those based on the fundamental nature of the child (that he is a creature composed of body and soul, born in original sin, destined for eternal happiness); but the importance of the environmental factors as determinants of the religious values which the child should attain have not been sufficiently stressed.

The zeal of Holy Mother Church has prompted her at all times to take such action as was necessary to safeguard the faith and the spiritual welfare of her children. It is in the same spirit and in response to the same divine concern that the encyclicals of the Holy Fathers have been issued.4

It is in accord with this long-standing policy of the Church in mind that the religious experiences which teachers arrange for their boys and girls should be those which will help them develop into true men and women of character, as the Holy Father says in

4Ibid., 383.
the encyclical, those which will help them to live Christlike lives now, in our crowded cities, amidst paganism, materialism, moral filth that will surround them. The great majority of our young people will pass their lives in such circumstances. Teachers want them to do so as saints, and it is their duty to give them adequate guidance.

Teachers should take note of this. It is an old principle of warfare that the first requisite of a military leader is to know his enemy, to learn his whereabouts, his strength, his plans, his point of attack. With this information a general can decide upon the armament, the equipment, the devices he needs for his own defense, and also his own plan for an offense. Similarly, in planning a religious program, teachers must note the moral and spiritual dangers which will confront their students, and then give to them the spiritual values, the armament, the training which will prepare them to live Christlike lives in spite of those dangers.5

If teachers ask themselves what is the greatest hindrance to Christlike living today, what is the number one enemy of the souls of their children here and now, they would have to say it is naturalism, worldliness, which pervades so much of thinking and living. It shows itself by the emphasis placed on material values, by the craving for material comforts and pleasures, and by the measurement of progress by material standards only.

5Ibid., 384.
That naturalism has spread its poisonous influence even into schools is evidenced by willingness to imitate methods, programs, procedures that are saturated with naturalism, to use uncritically textbooks written from a naturalistic view of life. It is the desdening influence of the Zeitgeist, the world spirit, that their students will encounter at almost every turn of their lives. To live close to Christ in a world that has forgotten Christ—that, with the help of education, is the task that lies before them.

Here then, is the first great value that teachers must strive that their boys and girls attain—an understanding and appreciation of supernatural living. This can be done not merely by shooting at the enemy, condemning it, not by only pointing out the dangers inherent in it. No, teachers must give to these boys and girls a motivating force, philosophy of life, a spirit which is the opposite of the materialistic spirit of the age. They must give them a keen consciousness of a personal God, an appreciation of their relationship to that God, a realization of the importance in their lives of grace, prayer, eternal salvation, sense of sin. Somehow they must develop in them a supernatural outlook of life, a supernatural interpretation of the universe, a supernatural evaluation of success, possessions, achievements, a supernatural code of morals that applies to every deliberate act.  

6 Ibid., 385.
This is not easy to accomplish. It is not done just by mastering a body of content; it is not a question of developing certain habits; it is a way of life which can be acquired only by living, acting, thinking in a supernatural atmosphere over a period of years. Such an atmosphere the school must provide. The first requisite for this is a faculty imbued with a supernatural philosophy of life. There is no surer inducement to Christlike living than daily contact with men and women whose every thought, act, interpretation is a reflection of a Christlike point of view. Given this attitude on the part of the faculty, it will follow that curriculum, content, textbooks, methods, activities, the whole atmosphere of the school, will provide for the child the experience which he needs to develop a truly Christian character.

Another obstacle to spiritual progress is the tendency to subjectivism which is rampant in so much of the religious thinking of today. This shows itself in various ways: (1) the tendency to question any absolute truth and any external authority in religious matters, (2) the tendency to make personal likes and dislikes, advantages or disadvantages, the criterion of right and wrong, rather than to accept an objective moral standard. Outside of the Catholic Church, at least here in the Western world, the idea of God is a hazy, indefinite one; it tends to be a man-made God, a projection from within in response to man's longing for peace, comfort, security, and nothing more.
While it is true that Catholics may not be in danger of abandoning the idea of a personal God, there is danger that they may be tainted by the effects of subjectivism, namely, the tendency to question authority, to make religion an emotional outlet, to make themselves the measure of right and wrong.

The faculty must lead the way by rooting out all traces of subjectivism in themselves and then by a sustained plan of action to free their students from it. If teachers wish to become practical about meeting the challenge of the day, they must be concerned with will-training and realize the relationship between strength of motive and strength of will. They must reach tomorrow's parents today by training today's youth in the ways of self-discipline. If they train the children and teen agers of 1956 to be good parents, then the parents of 1966 and 1976 are more likely to give good children to the nation. In practice teachers must reject the false theory of some persons that "character is just a product of circumstances, that delinquency and crime are simply other names for conflict and maladjustment, that criminals are sick people like the insane to be treated as individuals without reference to what is done to other criminals." Teachers have the responsibility of training youth in

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7 Ibid., 387.

attitudes, motives, and practical exercises of self-discipline that will lead to consistent self-control.

Judge Perkins, for thirteen years Justice of the Juvenile Court in Boston, said, "If they are to correct their faults, they must do it by self-discipline, and that involves systematic and persistent effort by them." 9

The first step in training to self-discipline is teaching proper attitudes. Teachers must win their students to a "desire" to live well. Surely if this were being done in America's classrooms, so many youth would not be convinced that lying, cheating, thieving, and self-indulgence are compensations for the real happiness that living in accordance with a clear conscience affords. Nor would the F.B.I. report an increase in crime.

To win youth to this attitude and thence to worthwhile living, the teacher must understand how the personality matures. The years from twelve to eighteen are confusing. The youth does not know what to do in many circumstances. He cannot analyze many of his worries. As Rudolph Allers puts it: "To understand a boy we must stand under him, that is, bear his burdens, share his views." He may be difficult to approach, but that's no excuse for the teacher not doing so. The teacher must gain his confidence, take his ideas seriously, listen to him, and radiate the spirit of the sympathetic Christ, if he would gain entrance to his young heart. To quote Judge Perkins again: "Deep in the

9Ibid., 421.
heart of mankind is an element of vigorous life that responds and quickens when it comes in contact with fine character." If conditions are to get better, it must be by personal influence, by the effect of men and women of fine quality, integrity, and devotion working in the unhealthy communities.

After we have fostered the right attitude, we must bolster it with strong motives. Teachers have many motives to offer their pupils. They can stress the Mystical Body of Christ of which the boy is a part. They can teach the evil effects of sin, the beauty of divine grace, the eternal rewards and punishments to be determined by their lives, the happiness to be found in doing right. They can illustrate from the lives of Francis Xaviers, Little Flowers, Don Boscos, and Mother Cabrinis, or hild up to them those ideal models in the Holy Family. They can stress in a down-to-earth way the need for good living. The newspapers offer practical examples of ruined lives because other youths refused to learn to control their passions, only to become their own victims, condemned to live in prisons and in shame. Also they can point out the valiant men and women of our day whose self-discipline is reaping rich fruits. Above all, in addition to forming attitudes and supplying motives, teachers must promote opportunities for exercising self-control. In his recent masterly study in 1945, Self-Revelation of the Adolescent Boy, Doctor Urban H. Fleege points out that forty-two percent of the cases studied admitted lacking will power.
Every adolescent has a need for exercises in self-denial. They are as important to his character as are physical exercises to his body. Here again teachers have a ready tool in the spirit of mortification taught us by the Church. A youngster who has learned how to mortify himself knows how to bear hardship cheerfully. As Reverend Raphael McCarthy, S.J., puts it: "Training in small restraints over the years generates habits that facilitate self-control in later years." 10 Father Ernest R. Hull, S.J., in "Formation of Character" reminds us: "The child, the boy, the youth must take himself in hand if anything worth having is to be attained." Trainers of the young ought to put the matter to themselves in this light: "My work is to help this boy to train himself. For it cannot be realized too keenly, even in the earliest stages, that all training is self-training: and that habits enforced from without are worthless except so far as they are responded to by a process of self-formation within." 11

In our classrooms teachers can win the pupils to this mode of self-conquest. They must convince the youth of the value of having a strong will and suggest, for instance, that they restrain their eyes when the door opens, obey the rule of silence for tongue-control, restrain a tendency to laugh at another’s mistakes, attend to non-interesting material, or keep their lunch unNibbled until recess.

10 Ibid., 422.
11 Ibid., 422.
An adolescent already trained in self-discipline can easily be led to appreciate the need for acknowledging and respecting authority. As Father Raphael McCarthy puts it: "Self-control fosters an attitude of submission to legitimate authority wherever it is found." If the youngster is shown that life is really based on God's authority, from which all other authority is derived, and if he knows how to control nature's tendencies to the soft life, obedience is simplified. He can easily agree with Father John Cavanaugh of Notre Dame University in the Notre Dame Bulletin, Volume XXXIV, No. 1 that "Authority is the golden ladder whose lowest round rests upon earth and whose top is bound to the great white throne of God." He can agree with the same author that the lesson of obedience is written in letters of fire all over the universe: "Obey law or die." For a youth understands that laws and rules ought to be obeyed. And he longs for authority even if on occasion he resents it.

Since youth is eminently practical, authority to him is not something abstract. It takes the form of the individual parent, teacher, employer, or policeman who exercises this authority most directly over him. And for this reason, if teachers are to train law-respecting and not law-despising men, those who wield authority must be worthy of the privilege. Here a middle course is safest. The teacher, for instance, must not descend to the same level as the youth, but must draw the youth to himself. Authority must hold up its prestige, yet not sternly rebuke the
subject. Therefore the personality of the teacher is important. A gracious, penetrating teacher who loves the nobility of youth and yet trudges patiently the hard road of daily character formation, must be a model of forbearance, a thorough psychologist, humble enough to admit mistakes, and lofty enough to elevate the heart of the student.

Teachers cannot inspire respect for brutal authority. They cannot be extravagant in their demands and obtain true obedience. Yet if they can correct and cajole in almost the same breath, if they can convince the boy that nothing matters to them but his welfare, if they can win his heart, then they will be true educators—"drawing out of the rough marble of a young human being a masterpiece to adorn the galleries of heaven."^{12}

If teachers can inspire confidence they can teach the true dignity of obedience. They can show Christ obeying Joseph and laying His Body on a cross at the command of a rough soldier. They can be sure never to do the young man or woman the injustice of sacrificing principle. Ordering only what is proper, reasonable, and worthwhile, the true educator can unflinchingly require obedience and get it. He can develop a respect for earthly authority by showing youth the Lawgiver. Thus having developed by proper attitudes, motives, and practical exercises that self-discipline that Christ's young soldiers love when they learn it; having pointed out and eradicated by some definite plan the weeds

^{12}Ibid., 424.
that would choke off the fruitfulness of these tender plants; and having inspired, taught, and demanded respect for the authority which is the basis of all sane living, they can do their share in the post-war world to remove from schools any charge that they have not met the ringing challenge of the day—the moral hunger of youth. 13

And what must the qualified teacher do in the classroom? He must first teach by "doing"—by the living example of his own life and conduct. Good example, good Christian social living example, has always brought about wonderful results. Such was Christ's system of education: "Jesus did and taught" as it is stated in the Acts of the Apostles. The children will learn the ideals of the teacher more quickly than the lessons which he presents. If the teacher is just, patient, friendly, honest, or if he prays with sincere devotion, the pupils will be impressed by it and will be more easily led to the proper understanding and practice of Christian social living. Likewise if the teacher understands, loves, and helps, the home, the Church, and community benefit. If, therefore, the teacher is Christlike and socially minded in his conduct, he will have a deep and lasting influence in the Christian social living of his pupils, of their parents, and upon the society in which he so zealously gives himself for God and country. 14

13 Ibid., 425.
In its program of Christian social living, the Commission on American Citizenship of the Catholic University of America has furnished the chief ingredients for the literary diet of every boy and girl—eternal laws, eternal values, and eternal charity. This program has re-emphasized a religion which will act as a powerful catalyst for all the accumulated knowledge of an intellectually hungry world. Readings based upon such a program will meet every test of great literature—in their conception, in their effectiveness, and in their permanence.

Frequently a teacher may resort to bibliotherapy, a curative measure whereby the problems of children are solved by means of books. The most intensive piece of work done in this field is Character Formation Through Books in 1952, an annotated and character-indexed list of titles by Clara J. Kircher of the Catholic University Department of Psychology. Emphasis throughout this compilation is on the positive—the building of character and the implementation of ideals into the mind that will keep the child "loyal to the royal" that is in him—rather than on the negative aspect—the elimination of the undesirable.

The resurgence of Catholic educators to a school program implemented totally by Catholic thought, Catholic goals, and Catholic textbooks is a potent protest against the liberal, secularistic educative code of the day. A Catholic mind is the bulwark against the tide of materialistic indifference.\(^{15}\)

\(^{15}\)Ibid., 426.
By means of classroom discussions the child learns the importance of love and sacrifice in the home; develops an attitude of sympathy for other families who are poor or hungry or ill treated; learns how to practice charity in speaking to his family about others inside and outside the house; grasps how to promote the spiritual and physical welfare of members of the family; understands how to take part in family recreation by showing consideration for others and by willingly joining in activities chosen by others. However, these attitudes will never be achieved by treating of generalities. These must be carefully planned lessons on the role of each member of the family, the rights and duties involved. For home life is the testing ground for his broader life in the school and in the community. In the intimate family environment the child consciously or unconsciously acquires the attitudes which motivate the relationships with others outside the home circle.

School life presents many specific learning situations in which the right attitudes toward others can be inculcated. Here the child can practice the "truth in charity" by observing school laws; by showing respect for all persons connected with the school; by speaking kindly of members of the class, especially those who learn slowly, those who are poor, or who differ in race or nationality; by cooperating with his classmates in doing class projects; by being active in class government; by playing fair in competitive activities. These are but a few of the many
opportunities in school life which can be used to overcome pre-
judice based on color, creed, or nationality.

Every teacher must first learn "to practice the truth in
charity" before he attempts to build Christian attitudes in
others. If the charity of Christ animates every action of those
in authority, Christian attitudes of love and respect for others
will be quickly emulated.

In this chapter we have noted that teachers train their
children to live close to Christ in a world that has forgotten
Christ. They do this by training them to know their enemies -
secularism and communism - and by giving them a keen conscious-
ness of a personal God, an appreciation of this relationship to
that God, a realization of the importance of prayer, eternal
salvation and sense of sin.
SUMMARY

The findings of the research writers - Glueck, Kvaraceus, Healy, Barron and Tappan - show that the complexity of the school program is one of the causes for juvenile delinquency. The course of study is aimed at the acquisition of verbal and literary skills more than manual skills. In the school system there is an obvious incompatibility when children with a "manual" type of intelligence and "slow learners" (who may not be inferior in intelligence but too disturbed emotionally to be able to learn) strive for success in a "lingual" type of school environment. These writers have strongly suggested that by creating social failures this actually contributes to delinquency. The insistence of schools in teaching children subjects in which they cannot succeed often damages self-confidence; leads to rejection by teachers and classmates, and makes them vulnerable to neurotic and delinquent behavior.

The statistics of these men manifest a consistently high per cent of retardation among the juvenile delinquents. The retarded or failing students need attention; otherwise they drop out prematurely and create various other problems. When children are adequately dealt with during the early stages of maladjustment, the problems can ordinarily be more easily solved than later in the process. The problems encountered are numerous, for personality conditions and environmental pressures sometimes make it difficult for schools to overcome their detrimental effects. Furthermore, schools are not always
equipped to deal with problem cases. The curriculum is sometimes not adjusted to the needs and interests of pupils, teachers are inadequately trained for the work, buildings and equipment are meager classrooms are overcrowded, and many schools are not equipped to deal with special types of maladjusted children, including behavior cases.

Before initiating any specific plans to combat the problem it is important to enlist the cooperation of all the school staff. It is advisable that suggestions are elicited from the teachers, that systematic observations of behavior problems are made, that community resources are studied, and that faculty meetings are systematically and democratically planned in reference to an action program.

There is a proposal that elementary schools prevent delinquency by having the teachers detect early signs of maladjustment. Inasmuch as virtually all children attend elementary school, the classroom is the logical place to screen children for symptoms of behavior deviation. The classroom is also useful because it permits (a) detection of mental defects and social maladjustment; (b) observation of infractions of rules. Every school system, it is urged, should have the facilities for a thorough investigation of the child in the first school years, with regard to physical make-up, aptitudes and disabilities.

The footnotes on pages thirty-five, thirty-six and thirty-seven list sources of material which help the teacher to identify the child with delinquent tendencies.

Once the school has identified the potentially delinquent child, it should make adjustments in its own program so that the child will feel wanted
and will achieve a measure of success in keeping with his abilities. The school should see that the child has a feeling of belonging, and a sense of personal realization. Too often the school rejects and makes insecure potentially delinquent children who have already been rejected in the home, neighborhood and community.

One of the most profitable means of helping teachers to understand problem children better is the case conference method. Even if there is no one well trained in conducting such conferences, teachers who are willing to cooperate can learn much from each other about the ways in which a given child will respond to different methods of approach. When well conducted it is a most valuable means of an in-service training. It is vital, however, that all who participate understand their obligations to keep confidential information confidential. The value of the case conference is greatly increased by the availability of experts, and schools should move as rapidly as possible to secure such services. Case conference groups must constantly guard against overlooking serious behavior problems which need the attention of specialists.

Information gathered with the help of the child study resources in the school and community—data on the child's personal make-up, his school experiences, his family and home background, and his early developmental experiences—can be brought together in case conferences. Here are gathered the school doctor, school nurse, visiting teacher, counselor, school psychologist, psychiatric worker, teacher, and any other person who may be concerned in the study of the treatment of the child. The case conference is a "focusing of minds" in an attempt to discover causative factors in the behavior sequence and to plan a therapeutic program assigning specific responsibilities to
various individuals. The case conference thereby serves a three-fold function: (1) it contributes to a better understanding of the child; (2) it evolves definite and specific plans for treatment; (3) it serves as a valuable learning experience for all who participate.

The conference may be held in the school building, at a central administration office or in the headquarters of some out-of-school agency which maintains a close contact with the child. It is always desirable that the child's teacher be present at these conferences, for it is he who has closest and most constant contact with the pupil. In this way the classroom itself can become a strong therapeutic force in the study-treatment program.

While all community resources should be utilized in obtaining a diagnosis of the needs of these problem children, assistance in treatment or "rehabilitation" should include contacts with home, church, medical services, recreation and youth-serving agencies.

Special training of teachers in understanding and correction of delinquency and limiting of teacher appointments to those who are interested in children, who look upon education not merely as the learning of subject matter but as real experience in living, and who adjust their methods and subject matter to the individual needs of children would bring about a marked decrease in the present delinquency rate. Effective work in this field cannot be done if classes are so large that individual attention to each child is impossible. And educational discrimination against any part of the community or any minority group encourages delinquency.

One of the most effective ways in which the local school can combat delinquent behavior is to make sure that it wholeheartedly accepts all children
who enter its doors and particularly that it provides a secure environment for those children who may have been rejected by their parents, their friends, or their communities.

There are two cases given in this thesis which show a community organized program centered around the school - Passaic, New Jersey and Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. These have accepted the trend in the handling of children's misconduct. It is away from the formalized procedure of arrest, detention, trial and conviction. They have reached the conclusion that the whole problem of juvenile delinquency revolves around the educational processes. The schools, therefore, they reason, should take over the management of local resources for combating delinquency.

The identifying the child with his individual complex social problems, the adjusting of the school program to meet the needs of the problem child is a must in our complex social order. However, no program, no matter how well planned, will be a success unless it teaches the individual child the two great commandments: the love of God and love of neighbor. The program which instills the knowledge and love of God along with the principles of Christian Social Living will, indeed, be the program that solves the problem of juvenile delinquency.

APPENDIX I

THE SCHOOL FACES JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

In face of the present serious problem of delinquency reflected by a general increase of 29 percent between 1948 and 1952 in the occurrence of delinquency across the Nation and by the fact that the bulk of the delinquents come from the age range 10 - 17, a group that will be 42 percent larger in 1960 that it was in 1951, it is imperative that the schools immediately begin to expand their programs and services in order to deal more effectively with the prevention and control of delinquency. Since the schools get the children first and keep them longest, they are the Nation's first line of defense against this growing problem. The schools are also in the most strategic position to do a job of prevention, beginning with the kindergarten years.

Major Recommendations

We recommend that:

1. The teacher-pupil ratio be reduced as rapidly as possible as a preventive to juvenile delinquency. The teacher-pupil ratio should be considered in terms of the number of children who must compete for the attention of one teacher. We consider 25 children as the ultimate goal.

2. Teacher-training programs (preservice and inservice) be strengthened so that teachers are better equipped to understand the motivations of human behavior and thus be more able to recognize and work with individual differences in children.

3. A staff of guidance counselors, school social workers or visiting teachers, school psychologists, and attendance personnel adequate in number and preparation be maintained to assist the classroom teachers and the administration in providing services of a specialized nature to pupils of all ages, in order to assure early identification, referral, screening, diagnosis, and treatment.

4. Long-range plans be made by State and local school systems to anticipate financial needs that can be achieved over a period of time. This will require creative leadership of the superintendent and other school staff and the participation of community groups.

5. Federal aid be given the States and Territories to
guarantee adequate pupil personnel services in the schools, e.g. attendance workers, counselors, school social workers, psychologists, psychiatrists.

Increased appropriations be given the Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, for the following services:

(a) Sponsorship of workshops.
(b) Pilot projects.
(c) Research in cooperation with State and local units.
(d) Research on a national level.
(e) Publication and distribution of pertinent information.
(f) Assistance to teacher-training institutions in formulating developmental, experimental pilot efforts.

6. In each community there be developed a liaison group composed of representatives of the various agencies dealing with youth, such as the schools, juvenile court, juvenile police, training schools, public and private social agencies, etc., to coordinate and integrate the necessary programs to meet the needs of maladjusted youth. Such a program could reduce the number of children who fall into gaps and go without services. It will help teachers and other school personnel to know community resources and what help can be expected, as well as the limitations. This liaison can be achieved through local community groups, such as boards of education, local coordinating community councils, or youth boards. It is a step that can be taken immediately.

7. Youth participation programs be developed. Opportunities should be provided for youth to plan not only within the school but also as school representatives in the community on such problems as recreation, library facilities, etc. Youth organizations within the schools should have opportunities to carry out the purposes for which they are organized.

8. Attention be given the exchange of information on individual children among agencies having responsibility for them. Use and release of information will depend on the extent to which confidence among agencies is developed. The problem of confidentiality is an issue to be worked out in each community, with the end result depending on the degree to which mutual confidence among agencies is achieved.

9. Greater community understanding and active support of sound school programs geared to the needs of each child be achieved. To accomplish this, each school system should designate a competent person to interpret the total school program to the community, providing information about the activities of the school, teachers, and pupils. Both school staff and the general community could profit from interpretation of the need
for pupil personnel services.
10. Greater emphasis be placed on offering family life education in the schools both for students and parents.
11. There be periodic evaluation of all our efforts to reduce juvenile delinquency.

Other Recommendations

We further recommend that:
1. In order to improve staff relations, each school or school system develop a recognized procedure for handling complaints and grievances. There should also be provision for joint planning among teachers, administrators, and boards of education. Teachers serving on such a planning group should be chosen by teachers themselves.
2. A curriculum be developed that is geared to the needs of the individual child and the community.
3. Participation of qualified law-enforcement officials in school curricula be utilized for the purpose of helping students understand law, law enforcement, and their personal responsibilities as citizens. Where such a program has been developed, students have been able to understand and cope with many different problems, such as those caused by the differences in State laws. Police-student conferences are particularly helpful on such subjects as teen-age drinking, teen-age driving and vandalism.
4. There be extended use of school facilities. School boards and municipalities should have formal agreements by which school facilities are made available for recreational and social purposes.
5. In order to help teacher detect and identify child maladjustment, each school maintain cumulative records on each child from his entrance into kindergarten. In addition, school systems should develop a manual of instructions for teacher so that they understand what to record and how to record. Attention should be given by all school personnel as to the how, what, and why cumulative records.
6. To meet the needs of those children who cannot adjust to the regular school program, the following programs and services be developed:
   (a) Special groupings within the regular school program permitting a pupil to be involved in the regular school program while receiving special attention. This would require special-education teachers.
   (b) Supervised work-school programs in all types of communities to meet the needs of the slow learner, the potential school leaver and the older youth. These programs should be planned so that they survive periods of labor surplus.
   (c) Residential treatment centers under public school
auspices on a 24-hour basis for those children whose home conditions or personal problems make this type of care necessary.

(d) Exploratory and adventurous programs that appeal to youth. These programs are needed by children whose attention spans are short and who have difficulty in learning through abstract generalizations. Research has demonstrated that young people who move from experience to experience within the school program stay in school longer and develop greater affection and loyalty for the school. Many aggressive delinquents get more from these experiences than from regular academic learning. These young people learn the skill subjects through activities related to their special interests, such as conservation, fishing, etc.

(e) A work-learn outdoor experimental school for teenagers. Camp experience has resulted in improved group attitudes and behavior where this has been tried.

### Essential Characteristics of a Sound School Program to Prevent and Control Juvenile Delinquency

**A. Staff**

1. Teachers:
   - (a) Personal qualifications: self-respect and a warm, understanding, responsive nature.
   - (b) Good physical and mental health
   - (c) Training (preservice and inservice) for better understanding of:
     - (1) Personality development and the emotional, physical and social needs of children.
     - (2) Individual differences among children.
     - (3) Constructive use of authority.

2. Pupil personnel services for early identification, referral, screening, diagnosis, and treatment (if these services cannot be made available within the school system, services within the community should be utilized properly):
   - (a) Guidance counselors.
   - (b) School social workers or visiting teachers.
   - (c) Attendance workers.
   - (d) Psychologists.
   - (e) Psychiatrists.
   - (f) Health service workers.
   - (g) Rehabilitation services for the physically handicapped.
3. Administrators who will:
   (a) Foster respect for teachers.
   (b) Be responsible for proper working relationship between all school personnel.
   (c) Promote a team approach between home and school.
   (d) Assist teachers with their physical or emotional problems.
   (e) Help to create proper attitudes within the school to foster healthy development of children.
   (f) Support consistent discipline.

B. Program

1. A broad and flexible school program, including rich and varied opportunities for learning.
2. Community focused, with the community as a laboratory.
3. Designed to fit the abilities, potentialities, and total development of each child:
   (a) Normal, gifted, or slow mental capacity.
   (b) Typical or a typical physical capacity.
   (c) All behavior patterns.
4. Experiences in good citizenship.
5. Recreational activities under competent leadership.
6. Adult education:
   (a) Training for better understanding of children.
   (b) Programs for young adults who have left school.
   (c) Programs for parents.

C. Emotional Climate

1. The school should be characterized by an atmosphere of kindliness. Activities should be interesting and challenging.
2. School experiences need to be interesting and stimulating. The school, in classroom activities as well as in administration, should emphasize democratic practices and the development of responsible action, and how to share with others. It means defining limits for children within which there is freedom for decision and action.
3. The school buildings need to be adequate and attractive places in which to work and live.

D. Community Understanding, Participation, and Active Support of the Goals of Education and the Program through Which These Goals Will Be Met

Urgent Needs

1. To help the teacher create a wholesome, happy learning situation and develop those skills in human relations that will promote personal security and, insofar as possible, meet the
emotional needs of each child.

2. A broad, flexible, community-focused school program to provide for all pupils, regardless of mental acumen, physical state or emotional condition.

3. Adequate in number and preparation, a staff of guidance counselors, school social workers or visiting teachers, and school psychologists, to assist the classroom teachers and the administration in providing services of a specialized nature to pupils of all ages.

4. Financial support that will guarantee sufficient staff and buildings to provide the necessary program.

5. Community understanding and active support of sound school programs geared to the needs of each child.

6. Understanding and proper use of community resources for children whose needs cannot be met within the school program.

7. The need for:
   (a) Useful information to identify predictive factors in child maladjustment.
   (b) Exchange of information growing out of on-going programs relating to child malady.
   (c) Pilot studies.

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APPENDIX II

Gluecks. Professor Sheldon Glueck is from the Law School of Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts. He has been assistant professor of Criminology in the Law School from 1929-1931, Professor, 1931-. Glueck has been consultant to Justice Robert H. Jackson, chief of counsel, Nuremberg Trials. His chief work has been in criminal law and procedure; causes of juvenile delinquency and crime; results of various forms of punishment; war criminals; relation of law to psychiatry; mental disorder and the criminal law; crime and justice.

Kvaraceus. Professor Kvaraceus was an assistant psychologist, Avon Old Farms, 1937 - 1938; educational consultant of schools, Brockton, Massachusetts, 1938-1941; assistant superintendent of schools in Passaic, New Jersey from 1941-1945. Since 1945 he has been professor of education at Boston University. He has belonged to the Massachusetts Division of Mental Hygiene; consultant of the State Department of Education, Maine. He has been a civilian consultant, a Civilian Research Subject. This professor belongs to the Education Research Association; Psychological Association; Phi Delta Kappa. His particular interests are in juvenile delinquency and the school; measurement and child psychology; statistics.

Healy and Bronner. Dr. William Healy is the director of the Judge Baker Foundation of Boston. He has been director of the Juvenile Psychopathic Institute of Chicago, 1909-1917; chairman trustee of Boston Psychopathic Hospital. He belongs to the American Medical Association, Psychological Association, Neurosis Association, Psychiatric Association, Psychopath Association. Dr. Healy is noted for the research work he has done on mental tests, social offenders, causation of delinquency, psychology of testimony, educational and personality problems.

Dr. Augusta Bronner, Mrs. William Healy, collaborated with Dr. Healy of the Judge Baker Guidance Center, Boston, Massachusetts. Dr. Bronner has been a teacher, and a clinical psychologist. She has done much research on juvenile delinquency, personality problems, educational psychology, mental tests, comparative study of intelligence of delinquent girls.

Barron. Professor Barron is in the Sociology Department of Cornell University, Ithaca, New York since 1948. He has been
noted for the work he has done in intergroup relations; retirement problems of old age; people who intermarry; the juvenile in delinquent society.

Tappan. Paul W. Tappan has been professor of sociology at the New York University. He belongs to the Prison Association, Probation and Parole Association; International Society of Criminology. The professor has been noted for his work of delinquent girls in court; juvenile delinquency; the habitual sex offenders; social problems; contemporary correction.
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PERIODICALS


