TECHNICAL TRAINING COMMAND

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MANUAL

FOR

FLIGHT COMMANDERS

IN

YOUTH SCHOOLS

FOREWORD

BY

AIR OFFICER COMMANDING IN CHIEF

TECHNICAL TRAINING COMMAND

AIR MARSHAL SIR ARTHUR Mc DONALD, K.C.B., A.F.C.

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PREFACE

In a Service whose main aim is to hit an enemy hard from the air, supporting roles lack glamour particularly to those who join to fly and to fight. They not only lack glamour but often require special aptitudes, interests and training far removed from those of aircrew.

Posts such as Flight Commander at an Apprentice or Boy Entrant School are seldom sought after and are often viewed with apprehension. The newly appointed Flight Commander may know little about adolescents except that once he was one himself. Certainly he will learn by experience but will it be good experience based as it is on ignorance and will he be able to assimilate that experience if he lacks a framework of knowledge? Understanding is the illumination of knowledge by experience. This manual cannot provide experience; it tries to increase knowledge.

It has not proved easy to pick a way between a deluge of detailed information on the one hand and vague generality on the other. The aim has been to give the Flight Commander some idea of how he should expect adolescents to behave and why they behave as they do, what sort of boys he has to deal with, and what social and educational background they come from. Beyond this we have tried to give some facts which are of value to junior commanders concerning morale and leadership and some advice on interviewing.

With the ending of National Service in 1962, the Royal Air Force will again become, for the first time for 23 years, an all regular Air Force.

The problem of manning an all regular Air Force in the future will be much more difficult than it was in the period between the First and Second World Wars. First, it will be a much larger Force and many more regulars will be required. Secondly, the increased complexity of Royal Air Force equipment will demand a much more intelligent and better educated type of airman. Thirdly, the increased opportunities for well paid employment in industry will provide a strong counter attraction to many boys who might otherwise enter the Service. For these reasons it is probable that direct recruiting of adults will not be able to provide more than a proportion of the manpower requirements of the Royal Air Force of the 1960's. The Service will, therefore, be greatly dependent on the Boy Entrant and Apprentice Schools to provide a substantial proportion of its trained manpower during this period.

If our Youth Schools are to produce trained airmen in the numbers and of the quality required, they must be attractive to the type of young men we need in the Service and training wastage in them must be reduced to small proportions. Both of these things depend on the maintenance of high morale and the maintenance of high morale depends largely on good leadership by the Flight Commanders. The task of a Flight Commander in an Apprentice or Boy Entrant School is, therefore, a most important and challenging one.

Although the task of a Flight Commander in a Youth School is so important, it is outside the experience of most R.A.F. Officers and is not covered by their normal training. Furthermore, although manuals and handbooks are available which deal with most aspects of an Officer's duties, so far there has been nothing of this kind having a bearing on the task of leadership in our Youth Schools. This Manual has, therefore, been produced to fill this gap and to provide background knowledge and guidance for Officers who have been selected as Flight Commanders in our Apprentice and Boy Entrant Schools. I am sure that it covers a real need and commend it to the attention of those who are engaged in this important and difficult task.

A. McDonald

The Air Officer Commanding - in - Chief,   Air Marshal
Sir Arthur McDonald, K.C.B., A.F.C.,   inspecting the
pass-out parade of the 30th entry.   Cosford July 1958.

The key to an understanding of adolescents is an appreciation
of the processes which they undergo.   Each is dealt with in
subsequent chapters but they may be summarised here.   What follows
is largely a paraphrase from the article on adolescence by Wayne
Dennis in Carmichael's Manual of Child Psychology.

(a)   The adolescent is developing and growing physically
at his own individual rate.   His body is changing rapidly
and so are his habits and skills.   His body "image" or
"schema" is also changing but may not keep pace.

(b)   The adolescent is experiencing new sexual interests
which make his emotions and activities more complicated
and sometimes more conflicting.

(c)   The adolescent is trying to <u>find a status for himself
as an individual</u>.   He has been a child under the authority
of his parents from which he is struggling to free himself
and this typifies his reaction to all adult authority.

(d)   The adolescent is developing vocational interests and
is keen to achieve economic as well as personal independence.

(e)   The adolescent is trying to attain recognition by his
contemporaries.   Their opinion is to him of great importance
and he will tend to cleave to it in opposition to adult
opinion.

(f)   The adolescent's knowledge and interests are broadening.
Often the knowledge and skills he is being taught lack
immediate interest for him and he is expected to learn them
because they will prove useful in future.

(g)   The adolescent is developing a system of values.
He is searching for a framework of attitudes and ideals
around which he can build his life.   His self-awareness
is increasing.   He tends to experience conflict between
his youthful idealism and reality.

In discerning a pattern of growth and development common to all we
obscure individual variations.   These exist and are of great
importance and his difference from the norm may be the key to the
understanding of any particular individual.

CHAPTER I.

THE PHYSICAL AND SEXUAL ASPECTS OF ADOLESCENCE

INTRODUCTION.

1.   Anyone who has to deal with adolescents should know some of
the facts about the physical and sexual development which his
charges are undergoing.   In this chapter we shall describe some of
these developments and touch on some of the variations which can be
expected.

2.   Adolescence is a period of continuous change.   At the
beginning of adolescence is the child, at the end of it is the man.
This transition is packed into half a dozen years.   Much of this
transition - the psychological and social aspects, are dealt with
in subsequent chapters.

PHYSICAL BACKGROUND

3.   The pituitary gland secretes hormones which govern growth, and
hormones which stimulate the gonads (sex organs) which in turn
secrete sex hormones.   Both types of sex hormone (male and female)
are present to some extent in all individuals but in the normal
male the male sex hormone predominates.

4.   At puberty (about the age of twelve) there is increased activity
of the pituitary gland and a marked increase in the secretion of the
appropriate sex hormone.   This results in the beginning of primary
sexual development (growth of the sex organs and the production of
semen) and also in secondary sexual development: pubic and facial
hair, voice changes, and so on.   In turn the increased supply of
sex hormones acts on the pituitary so as to reduce its activity and
thus to slow down the rate of growth.   Full sexual development is
thus associated with a cessation of general skeletal growth.

RATE OF GROWTH

5.   Average rates of growth for the adolescent population are of
general statistical interest but average figures conceal the
astonishingly wide variation between individuals.   Not only is one
boy's rate of growth different from that of another, it may be
strikingly different from one year to the next.   An adolescent may
add anything from one inch to six inches in his stature in a single
year, possibly without anything like a comparable increase in weight.
These changes can be quite bewildering.   We are used to a static or
very slowly changing bodily structure and we are able, therefore, to
relate our actions and intentions to a stable "Schema" or mental
model.   This is important to us as upon it depends the style and
economy of our movements.   There are certain pathological conditions
in which the "Schema" is lost or in which we are unable to relate it
to our actual body.   When this occurs, movements become disoriented

and inappropriate. The rapidly-growing adolescent is under the necessity of constantly changing his schema, which lags behind his bodily changes. He is in the position of a man who is constantly changing his car for a larger one. Before he has become used to controlling it, he has a larger one still on his hands. The result is the familiar gangliness and gawkiness of adolescence. Many adolescent boys feel ashamed of this gawkiness and this adds social to physical ill-ease.

FATIGUE

6.   At the same time in which he is growing taller and heavier (and probably uglier - and sensitive about it), the adolescent is experiencing other changes: his pulse rate is decreasing, his blood pressure is rising and his oxygen consumption is increasing.   This has an effect on his pattern of bodily muscular activity.   His recovery from physical exertion is slower than what it was before and he may tire surprisingly easily.   We tend to look back on our adolescent period as one of limitless energy and endurance, characterised by an insatiable desire for exercise and adventure. Like the summers of our childhood this is for most of us a myth of selective memory.   It is impossible to lay down a maximum duration of energetic exercise, partly because we would have to be very explicit as to the exact nature of the exercise, and partly because, as with height and weight, averages would conceal very wide variations. It is enough to say that the stamina of the rapidly growing adolescent is less than one might expect and that a desire to rest is not necessarily either laziness or perverseness but compensation for earlier exertion.   Adolescents seem to have greater desire to lie on their beds at all sorts of times than do either children or adults and there is a physical basis for this desire.

SICKNESS

7.   Over a three month period, corresponding roughly to a term at one of our youth schools, something like 30 - 35 percent of boys are likely to report sick at least once.   Some of course report four or five times but the average works out at about 1¼ reports for each boy going sick.   Most sickness is straightforward enough, but there is a proportion - about a quarter of the total - where the medical officer is unable to find any organic reason for the symptoms complained of.   It is less easy for them to decide whether the symptoms have an unconscious mental origin (psychosomatic illness) or whether the boy is malingering, or both.

8.   What is certain is that non-organic sickness of both kinds reflects the morale of the flight, squadron and wing, and their incidence relates closely to other indices of morale.   The morale of his boys is to a considerable extent in the hands of the flight commander, and he should provide himself with as many indices of this as possible.   Not least amongst them is the incidence of sickness.

COMMON AILMENTS

9.   Apprentices and Boy Entrants are particularly prone to epidemic
illnesses.   Coming from home into community life for the first time,
he has had no previous opportunity to develop immunity by exposure to
the disease.   The most common are the "upper respiratory infections"
- colds, coughs, flu, tonsillitis, etc., and the "alimentary
infections" - dysentery, diarrhoea, gastro-enteritis, etc.   These
latter result from eating tainted food, one of the consequences of
communal feeding.   Boys are also prone to strains and sprains of
various kinds - mostly the result of over-exercise or too violent
exercise of a developing and incompletely co-ordinated frame.

10. Many of the common childish ailments, measles, chicken pox and
so on, which have missed the boy in the first decade of his life are
liable to catch him (or perhaps we should say, for him to catch them)
during his second decade.   They then tend to be somewhat more severe.
Some can be caught a second time.

11. Of the more serious diseases, rheumatic fever is liable to
affect this age group, but the symptoms of this condition are pretty
certain to be recognised by a medical officer.

SKIN DISORDERS

12. "Spots", or acne vulgaris, are an almost universal and
virtually normal accompaniment of adolescence;   although due to
the blocking of the sebaceous glands, it is not a consequence of
insufficient washing.   The skin of the adolescent is very sensitive
to this condition which is often the source of considerable distress.
At its wrost it is unpleasantly disfiguring and persistent, and to
the already shy adolescent it is a further stimulus to retire into
his shell.   It is best though difficult to make no reference to a
boy's spots;   it is harder still not to be repelled by a spotty
boy and it is equally hard for him not to feel that he is in some
way morally responsible for his spots.   However, unlike the leopard
he will almost certainly change them and ultimately lose them
completely.

13. Enuresis, or lack of bladder control, occurs in a number of boys.
As it can be a reaction to anxiety and homesickness it may pass off,
in a few cases, after a week or two.   More often it is resistant
both to treatment and the passage of time.   Because it is so
unpleasant to everyone, the Service is wise to terminate the engage-
ment of those so afflicted.

SEXUALITY

14. Although developing more slowly than girls, boys are generally
sexually potent at about 14 years of age.   They reach maximum
potency in late adolescence (16 to 18).   Thus there is a conflict
between potential and the realisation which society permits.   At a
time when the boy is a sexually mature male, there is no socially
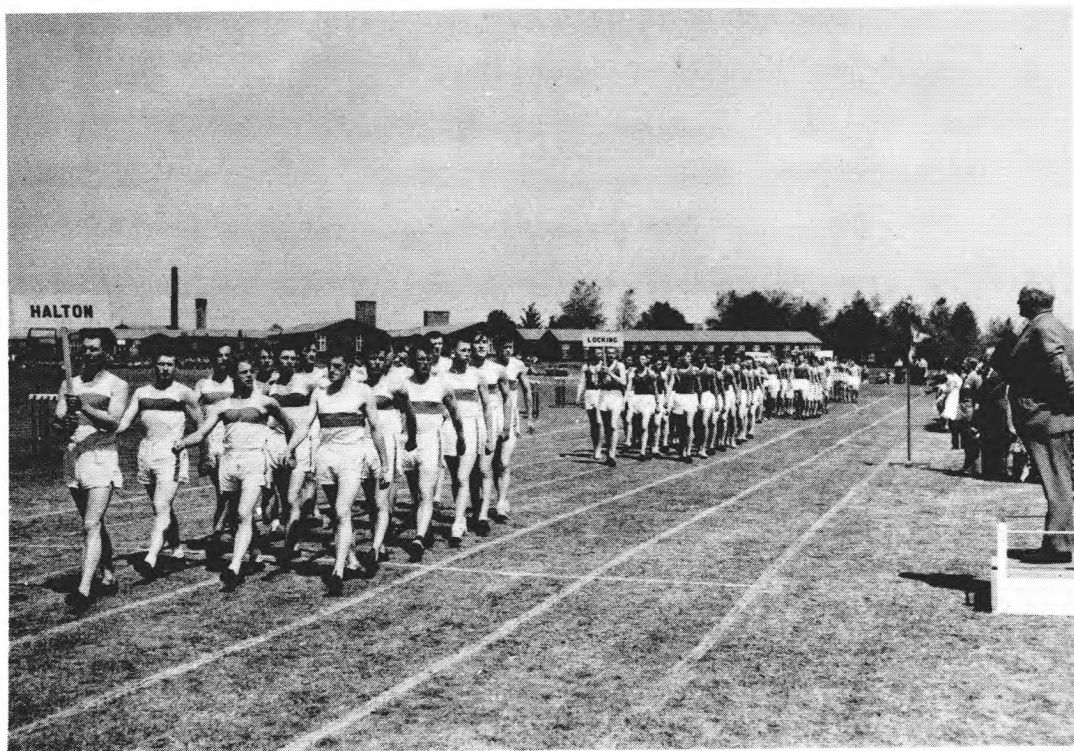
Athletics teams   march past the   A.O.C.-in-C.

Air Marshal Sir George Beamish, K.C.B., C.B.E.,

St. Athan, July 1957.

permitted outlet for his sexuality.   This not only makes it
difficult to say what is normal and what is not, but also to
establish with any certainty what an adolescent's sexual habits
are.   Doctor Kinsey in America was, of course, the pioneer in this
regard and his figures, although largely based on the current
practices and recollections of college students, are entitled to
respect.   Subsequent studies in Britain have shown differences in
detail but have tended to confirm his general observations.

15.   There are of course substantial differences between boys of
different classes, educational levels and different religious back-
grounds.   Few have regular heterosexual intercourse before the age
of 18, or so, and even after that age only commonly with a recognised
fiancee.   Probably not more than 40% of boys of this age have had
any sexual intercourse.   After the age of 18 this proportion
increases.   Promiscuity is less common than boastful conversation
would suggest.   When it occurs it is a symptom of unsatisfactory
emotional development or adjustment rather than of oversexuality.

16.   In a one-sex institution, like a boarding school or Service youth
school, some degree of homosexual attachment is common, and under the
circumstances inevitable.   In most cases this goes no further in
practice than horse-play.   Where actual homosexual practices take
place the commonest by far is some form of mutual masturbation.   But
only few boys - less than 1% - are true inverts - actually preferring
homosexual to heterosexual practices, perhaps even eschewing the
latter and preferring the female role.   These boys are those who
tend to be associated with adult homosexuals outside their schools
either elsewhere in the Service or outside it altogether.   The
Service does not in general appear to attract an undue proportion of
inverts, and owing to its policy of ridding itself of those it
discovers, probably numbers a lower proportion in its ranks than in
the population in general.

17.   We cannot go here into the cases of homosexuality but it is
pertinent to distinguish between those whose hormonal balance is
abnormal, thus inclining them to female rather than male practices,
those for whom homosexuality is a result of some abnormality of
psychological developments, and those to whom homosexuality is part
of the sexual experimentation of youth.

18.   Far the commonest sexual outlet among adolescent boys is
masturbation.   Certainly 90% probably 100% of boys masturbate at
some time or other: not a few do so regularly.   It is rarely
persistent after the age of 18 or 19.   At one time the practice of
masturbation filled medical moralists with alarm, and dire were the
results foretold.   Together with the sense of guilt and shame that
accompanies masturbation, these threats drove many adolescents to
depths of fear and despair.   It is now held that apart from the
results of fear there is likely to be no other ill-effect.   Anxiety
in adolescents is not uncommonly due to this and the boy is too full
of shame to admit to anyone the cause of his anxiety.   It is well to
be aware of this possibility.

19. Adolescent boys' sex behaviour can best be described as experimental and tentative, and heterosexual activity consists more often of showing off and mild sexually aggressive horseplay than anything else.   It is difficult to sympathise with the sex life of others, particularly when the others are adolescent.

20. The flight commander however has the responsibility of main-taining the values and standards of the Service.   This requires that he should never condone any proscribed activity which comes to his knowledge.   This is of course not the same thing as requiring him to probe or pry where he has no compelling reason to believe that harm is afoot.   Persistent rumour however is damaging to discipline and morale and however distasteful requires investigation.

21. In dealing with sexual offences the flight commander is dealing with offences against regulations but also with offences against a moral code to which is attached the strongest emotions and deepest taboos.   His first need is to maintain his own emotional balance-his second is to ensure that the same standards of proof are required to establish this as any other offence.   It is hard for the flight commander to deal sympathetically with the sexual offender. His own emotions are pretty sure to be aroused and sympathy feels like a betrayal of his own self discipline.   Disgust is often the result of this conflict and disgust is out of place both in arriving at a judgment and in offering counsel.   In these deep waters no flight commander should be ashamed at the need to seek advice from others more experienced and less close to the situation.   He should be aware of his limitations and the reasons for them.

PSYCHOLOGICAL DISORDERS

22. The general psychology of adolescence is discussed in the next chapter but we shall say a word here about mental illness.

23. Most mental illnesses are more frequently found among adults than among adolescents.   One considerable exception to this rule is a form of schizophrenia.   Originally schizophrenia was thought to be a disorder of adolescence and was called dementia praecox (lunacy of the adolescent).   When it occurs among boys it is characterised by symptoms of withdrawal.   The boy is usually shy and reluctant to meet strangers, and seldom able to join wholeheartedly in any activity.   With the onset of the disease these symptoms become more marked until the boy appears to become unconcerned about the effects of his actions.   In one instance he just failed to get out of bed in the morning and repeated punishments had no effect.   When the medical officer's advice was sought he was seen by a psychiatrist and the disease quickly diagnosed.   Once a boy is found to be schizophrenic he will certainly be discharged from the Service.

24. Mild neuroses may occur, but with adolescents psychological trouble is most likely to show up in the "psychosomatic" form mentioned earlier. Aches and pains and feelings of sickness and giddiness attributable to no discoverable organic cause may well be the result of anxiety.

SUICIDE

25. Last of all, the persistently unhappy and anxious boy may attempt to take his life. At different periods of life there appear to be different methods of exit preferred and in adolescents probably the most common means is hanging. Of course, it is a scandal if a suicide or an attempted suicide takes place at a school and this is to a considerable extent justified. It is most unlikely that a boy whose troubles are known and to whom kindly interest has been shown will feel himself so unutterably desolate and deserted as to take such a step. It is noteworthy that it is the boy who fears future failure, rather than the boy who has learned that he has failed, who tends to commit suicide. Fear of the unknown is worse than the actuality, however bitter.

SUMMARY

26. The adolescent is in a state of continual change, physically, sexually, intellectually and emotionally. In each respect his rate of growth may vary and the adolescent is unable to refer any of his activities to a stable model of himself or bodily image. Because he has not yet learned his limitations and how to organise his activities within them he is liable to overexert himself and requires a good deal of rest.

27. Most sickness is of ordinary kinds and the common infections and ailments spread very rapidly in youth schools. Sickness rates vary between wings, squadrons and flights and are indicative of the morale of these units.

28. Adolescence is a period of sexual experiment. Sexual maturity precedes maturity in all other respects and all outlets are socially unacceptable.

29. Mental illness is rarer among adolescents than adults. The very withdrawn and unresponsive boy may be suffering from incipient schizophrenia. Otherwise psychological trouble is liable to show in the apparent form of physical illness. Suicide is the act of the lonely uncounselled boy.

PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF ADOLESCENCE

INTELLIGENCE

1.   We should spend a minute or two explaining how we intend to use the word "intelligence".   Here it will mean the ability to absorb with understanding.   Absorb what?   We are all familiar with individuals whose ability to absorb mathematics is strikingly different from their ability to absorb languages.   We commonly differentiate between the person who can quickly absorb and manage practical skills and the person who is more at home with ideas and concepts.   As living is a learning process in which we absorb material from our physical and social environment and learn to manipulate or manage this material, intelligence, as defined above, informs virtually all our activities.   In so far as one person is better able to absorb and organise material from his environment than another he may be said to be more intelligent.   In our culture in which intellectual activities are given very high value and in which from an early age children are judged according to their abilities in the intellectual field, the working definition of intelligence places emphasis on these abilities.   A moment's thought will convince us that this is not necessarily the case in all cultures and the Eskimo's working definition of intelligence is likely to be different from ours.   We should, therefore, expect that the kind of intelligence test which would be devised by an Eskimo and that which would be devised by an Englishman would differ.   Each would be right for his own culture.   Does it follow that a child who could make a good mathematician if brought up in England could make a very stupid Eskimo if brought up in Greenland?   This is less likely than it sounds.   The kind of activity in which the highly intelligent person excels is determined by his interests, early training and his other capacities, physical and psychological;   and intelligence develops in the fields in which it is used.   One striking feature of this is the effect of "maturation".   There seems to come a time in the individual's development when the acquisition of certain skills is easier than it was before and will be again.   If you try to teach reading to a child who is not yet ready, you will fail. But if for some reason the child is not taught to read when he is ready, or for some years thereafter, it becomes greatly more difficult.   Likewise skills such as swimming and some balancing skills are least painfully learned when young.

2.   It is possible now to understand some of the apparent anomalies - the boy who is bright in practical activities, yet a duffer at Latin, or the boy who is academically brilliant but lacking in "commonsense". Oddly enough both these cases are used as sticks with which to beat intelligence tests.   If an intelligence test favours the first boy against the second, the comment is invited "how can 'A' be more intelligent than 'B' when 'B' has eight passes in G.C.E. and 'A' only one pass?"   If it favours 'B' against 'A' "well : 'B' scores

higher than 'A' on an intelligence test, but 'A' is the kind of boy we want, so intelligence tests are no use". Really we should use a different intelligence test for each purpose and there is a great variety. It is, however, difficult to assess ability in practical matters by means of a controlled, reliable and valid system of testing after the age at which the common features of the culture have been absorbed and interests have begun to differentiate. For example, school work is common to all children's experience, and those tests which are most closely correlated with scholastic ability have been most highly developed. After the age of 15 or 16, a boy's ability as measured by intelligence tests is no longer increasing. It is not possible to say with certainty whether this represents a biological fact - e.g. that the maximum number of brain cells are in use at that age - or whether this represents a limit to the degree of abstraction that can be introduced into a test. It certainly appears that ability to learn new skills does not improve after the age of 16 or so.

3. To assess the intelligence of a boy of 16 or 17 it is best to have as many clues as possible. The results of intelligence tests (which will probably be expressed as a "percentile" - a boy in the fifty fifth percentile is superior on the test to 54% of the population who have been tested) the boy's school record, the impression he gives at interview (which <u>can</u> be highly misleading) and a study of his general interest should all, taken together, give a fair idea of his ability. Difficult of assessment are boys who have been handicapped, in school and out, by prolonged or intermittent illness or dislocation of their home background.

4. It is not to be expected that many boys will show a marked development of intelligence after the age of 16. He may develop interests which make more effective use of intelligence and he may learn to organise his activities so as to produce better results. Emotional difficulties may be removed or eased and release his mental energies into work channels.

PRACTICAL PROBLEMS

5. What has been said above should not be taken to mean that there are no respects in which ability increases after the age of 16. Our ability to do many things improves notably as we grow older. But these things depend upon knowing how to do them, upon training and experience. Wisdom is the prerogative of the experienced. Nevertheless, our ability to learn something entirely new and something which we are not aided to learn by our knowledge and experience, does not increase after the age of 16 and, in most, begins to decline after the age of 25 or so.

6. There is also the question of the "late developer". We are constantly reminded of boys and girls who have shown little evidence of ability who later achieve success. Late developers do certainly exist but because the possibility is attractive to parents of the

less able children, the idea has grown up that backward children are likely to develop late. Unfortunately there are very few of whom this is true.

7. A boy who appears to be intelligent but to be making little or ineffective use of his ability is a problem. There are four common backgrounds to this kind of problem.

8. In the first place he may not be as intelligent as he appears. There are eager, fresh, sensible boys who often by virtue of a pleasant uncomplicated manner and bright, alert, responsible and responsive behaviour appear to be intelligent. Because their pleasant manner and absence of emotional complication enables them, they are already making full use of their ability. The effect is to suggest even greater intelligence which is not there. Such cases cease to be problems as soon as they are recognised. Usually the boy is aware that he is "not very clever at school" and providing that he can be protected from too much discouragement he will continue to achieve what his abilities warrant. A slower tempo of learning and frequent covering of the same ground can have a beneficial effect with this type of boy.

9. The second type is intelligent but lacks interest. He may lack interest in one particular aspect of his training or in his training in general. He may not have completely lost interest in the Service or in his trade although these are common reasons. Loss of interest is not uncommonly due to failure to cope with some difficult part of the syllabus. Many boys have not learned to persevere in the face of discouragement, and defend themselves against the recognition of failure by losing interest. They soon convince themselves that they do not want to achieve this particular goal and, in some cases, succeed in convincing themselves that they never wanted it. The resistance this sets up is likely to be increased by any attempt to assault it frontally. The boy has lost confidence and makes it difficult for himself and others to recognise this fact. The best hope of success, of course, is to treat the situation as one of loss of confidence and to set about restoring it. Confidence will most easily be restored by experience of success; the road is a stony one when reluctance to try, masquerading as a loss of interest, prevents achievement of success.

10. The third type is also intelligent but is genuinely lacking in motivation. Many boys enter on an apprenticeship or into the Service with unrealistic ideas about the Service, the trade they have chosen and their own suitability to Service life. The original motivation for entering may have been irrelevant (e.g. a desire to leave an uncomfortable situation at home) and not strong enough to endure after the precipitating cause has been removed. The problem is to recognise this type of difficulty and to distinguish it from the second and fourth types. When diagnosed, the problem is not solved because the best solution may be to terminate a venture which was started in

error.   There is, however, a natural reluctance to release a boy from his obligations too easily and this can lead to a long unhappy struggle between the boy and his flight commander and instructors.

11.   The fourth type is a transferred difficulty from the boy's emotional life.   Difficulties at home or with girl friend or even with instructor can lead to a slump in work.   This condition is often characterised by "inability to concentrate" and forgetfulness - symptoms recognised by the boy himself.   It is in cases of this type that the flight commander can do most to help.   More will be said about this topic in Chapter VIII.

FORMATION OF CHARACTER

12.   Saint Ignatius Loyola, founder of the Society of Jesus, is credited with a remark whose rough rendering would be "give me a child for the first seven years of its life and you can do what you like with him thereafter".   It is now well understood that the events of the first few years of life are of great importance in setting the pattern of the child's psychological development.   There is room for argument about the mechanism by which these patterns are set, and about the extent to which hereditary factors determine the personality that the child develops.   Broadly speaking, the child's hereditary equipment sets limits to the possible development of his intelligence, personality and physique.   Early experiences, however, influence the extent of development within these limits, affect the forms of expression of hereditary potentialities and form the patterns of behaviour in areas uncontrolled by inherent factors.   Traumatic experiences, in which the experience of great emotional tension causes a reaction of shock, may distort the child's development, sometimes quite radically.   Such distortions result in behaviour which is recognised as "abnormal".   Hereditary influence is most obvious in those aspects of a person's behaviour we described as "temperament".   We recognise some people as disposed to be quick in all their responses (irritable, highly-strung) and others to be slow (placid, easy-going).   In these characteristics the effect of heredity is more marked, and the effect of environment less marked, than in other traits which are less characteristic of the person's whole range of activities.

13.   However, by the time the child is 7 or certainly by the time he reaches puberty, the main lines of his character are drawn.   From now on the lines will deepen and harden but will not tend to change spontaneously.   The ways in which he reacts will tend to affect his environment in such a way that he can contrive to react in the same way.   Personality - environment - personality becomes a vicious circle.   For example, the boy who is shy and dislikes meeting strangers will seek a familiar environment and will avoid meeting strangers.   He will tend to react to strangers in a way that will repel them and thus increase the awkwardness he feels.   Shyness in this case becomes self perpetuating.

14. The environment, however, is not entirely passive and cannot be moulded at will by the child. On the contrary, it contains other people who may deliberately attempt to mould the child's personality more closely to their own wishes; such moulding or modification of character can take place to a considerable extent. The effectiveness of the process is determined by the inherent limits we have already mentioned, the extent to which the patterns are already firmly set, the satisfaction the child gets from his existing ways of behaviour and the relationship between the child and his mentors.

15. If adolescence is to be understood it has to be seen as the bridge between childhood and adulthood. It is the period in which the satisfaction of childish needs gradually gives place to the satisfaction of the needs of the adult. The adolescent is neither child nor adult but part child and part adult, and much of the mystification caused by an adolescent's behaviour is due to a bewildering oscillation between these needs. Inconsistency is the most obvious attribute of the adolescent. A common complaint among adolescents is "They expect us to behave like adults, yet treat us as children" and among those who have to deal with them "They expect us to treat them like adults yet they behave as children". These quotations from interviews with apprentices and flight commanders sum up most appropriately the central issue confronting the leaders and mentors of youth.

16. The adolescent is making a bid for adult status but is not yet able to discard childish satisfactions. Among the most compelling of a child's needs is that for security; small children need the affection of their parents more than the satisfaction of any other psychological need. As they grow older and participate in more and wider social groups they avidly desire the security that comes from acceptance in these groups. By adulthood the symbols of acceptance by the desired social groups have taken the place of parental affection as the fulfilment of the need for security; and these symbols of acceptance in our culture are the symbols of social status.

17. Once he has glimpsed adult status the adolescent is mad keen to achieve it. His first crude demands are repulsed with "Wait till you're older before you give yourself adult airs", "What does a boy like you know about it?", "Don't be in such a hurry to throw away your youth - its the best time of your life", and so on. Modern society does not prescribe a settled firm gradation to adult status nor does it provide for youth a separate status as is allotted to the child. In America a recognisable adolescent culture has emerged and certain aspects of it have a highly organised character, as for example the "rating-dating complex" (see footnote). In Britain

FOOTNOTE A formalised status system has been described at certain American colleges. A male student's status derives partly from his own achievements and partly from the popularity of the girls he succeeds in "dating". Likewise, the status and popularity of the girls depend largely upon the status of their escorts. This vicious circle was called "the rating-dating complex".

Locking Apprentices relaxing in their billet

where the gulf between the undergraduate and the young workman is still wide it would be truer to describe the emergence of several adolescent cults. In any case the undergraduate has for long had a recognisable place and status in our society. The Teddy Boy cult is in some respects a response to the recognition that adult status is not yet within reach. The lad who buys a Teddy suit does so knowing full well that he is not aping adults, yet he is setting himself off clearly from the subordinate role of the child. He is proclaiming his membership of a particular world - the world of the adolescent - with its own code of behaviour. That this new departure takes place at a time when the working class youth has for the first time enough money in his pocket to make his custom worth soliciting is not entirely coincidence. The social and economic conditions which have put increased value to the work contribution of the adolescent have thereby granted him increased status. His spare money and time enable him to participate in a culture the symbols of which are not inexpensive.

18. It is worth a glance at the outlines of this adolescent culture and this is seen best by a look at leisure time activities. These will be treated in greater detail in the following chapter and will only be sketched in here. The most notable characteristic is the group or gang. This differs from children's gangs in having a much more stable membership and in existing for the satisfaction of the social needs of its members rather than as a channel for aggression against other children. The behaviour of the gang may appear to be aggressive and may be so in the case of some delinquent gangs, but this is not characteristic of the typical adolescent gang. The structure of the group is seemingly loose, but appearances conceal a hierarchical and stable pattern of relationships. Its members receive not merely companionship but a status within the group. Another striking feature of the leisure time activities of adolescents are their apparent aimlessness. The adolescent does not go out to the park, the dogs, the pictures, and so on, he goes out. "Where are you going, John?", asks Mum, "Out", replies John. This is not just an attempt to resist prying, it is a complete statement of his intentions. And Tom asks, "Are you coming out to-night, John?". But although the gang activities in which he participates appear aimless John will not feel that he has wasted his time because interaction with other members, particularly those who have status, within the group is a social process of high value to him.

19. We can see fairly clearly here how participation in a group of age mates satisfies the need for status recognition at a time when this is not forthcoming from adult society.

20. The Royal Air Force apprentice or boy entrant is joining an adult institution, in a capacity which recognises and emphasises his inferior status by special regulations, organisation and control. As well as the opportunity for trade advancement and the security of a job and a home, the boy sees his apprenticeship as a period of

initiation into adulthood. He enters as a boy and will pass out as a man. At the age of 17½ an airman has full adult status in the Service and although this is the age at which many boys are still at school working for "A" level examinations, the full airman's privileges and duties are his. This creates difficulties for the Service schools, particularly those for apprentices who may be over 20 before they pass out. It is the task of these schools to prepare the apprentices for adult responsibilities and this has to be achieved by a gradation of privileges and duties which are not a natural outcome of the organisation based on the requirement to impart trade training.

21. Unhappily, just those activities which the adolescent sees as symbols of adulthood - drinking, smoking, riding motorbikes, wearing clothes of his own choice - are the ones which are either completely prohibited or severely restricted. As a result the older apprentice kicks against the pricks and commits petty crimes. These and their consequences all hinder the preparation of the apprentice for adult status. This problem is a difficult one and can be solved only by getting the apprentices themselves to appreciate the need for the restrictions imposed upon them. This has hope for success only when the restrictions are in fact defensible, and all restrictions need to be kept under constant review to ensure that those for which there is no further rational need are abandoned.

EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT

22. In Chapter I we have discussed the physical changes which take place in adolescence and some of the difficulties that are associated with them. Physical growth at this time is rapid, sometimes very rapid, and the onset of sexual development brings new powers and potency. The adolescent in a very short time has acquired a new shell and one that is bigger, heavier and differently equipped and still growing. His technique of control of his body is advancing but more slowly and gradually and lags behind, often far behind the physical changes.

23. He is rather like a child who has been given a bicycle rather too large for him. His riding is erratic and he feels both exhilerated and a little frightened.

24. Not only are his old techniques no longer adequate and in need of improvement, they are also inappropriate. Methods of satisfying his wishes which were toleratedas coming from a child will earn disapproval and will fail to achieve the desired results. Often the adolescent seems gauche in his emotional as well as in his physical behaviour. He may appear to be rude when rudeness is not his intention and he may become painfully shy and retiring. Providing his environment is reasonably tolerant this will prove to be a phase and will be overcome in time.

25. At the same time the adolescent's emotional horizon is widening. To the child the overwhelming need is the love of his parents and although it is a very unusual child who is unconcerned about the love of friends and other relations, these are comparatively of small importance. To the adolescent parental love though necessary and reassuring is not enough. He now meets other people, his contemporaries and his elders, male and female, whose opinion of him seems important and with whom he forms or wishes to form an emotional relationship. The relationship he wants is a man-to-man or boy-girl relationship and not that of adult-to-child or child-to-child. For these his previous relationships give small precedent.

26. The adolescent no less than the child has a fantasy life. But the fantasies are richer and involve heroic as well as sexual exploits. This is abnormal only if taken to an extreme degree in which it gets in the way of reality. Fantasies are not only a compensation for lack of achievement, they are also a glamourised rehearsal of real situations and help the adolescent to form idealised patterns of behaviour in an adult world. Passive fantasies of winning a football pool or receiving a large legacy are more characteristic of adults who have foregone the hope of rescuing a millionaire or film star from drowning.

27. Like everyone else the adolescent is likely to achieve success and failure. We also are used to successes and failures, but have learned to moderate our transports of joy and grief. Our experience has taught us that one swallow fails to make a summer and that one sin does not lead straight to hell. The adolescent, however, meets his acceptance and rebuffs without our experience and his reaction tends to be disproportionate. It is this kind of exaggerated response which often appears as the typical moodiness of the adolescent. Daydreaming and inattentiveness are other manifestations; again these are abnormal only when they occur to an excessive degree.

INTERESTS

28. A new pattern of interests develops during adolescence. The company in which things are done becomes at least as important as the things themselves. Although this is even more marked among girls it is characteristic of this age of boy as well. There is a decline in pursuits of a more solitary nature or those in which co-operation of friends is not needed. The peak age for interest in model making, stamp collecting and so on has passed. Cycling clubs, Jazz clubs and other activities of a group nature are more attractive. Most adolescent boys feel a need for social activities, both mixed and of a one-sex character. In general, the presence of girls adds a spice to most, though not all, social activities. The opportunities for such mixed gathering are obviously greatly reduced at apprentice and boy entrant schools, as at other boarding schools, and it is possible that much enthusiasm is lacking as a consequence.

29.   Interest in social questions burgeons at adolescence but the
adolescent's solution tends to be of a drastic nature characterised
by impatience with the existing scheme of things.   He tends to be
an idealist and is not yet familiar with the complexity of social
problems.   He does not easily see the need for restraints and is
not impressed with explanations of the kind;   "If you have it all
the others will want it" or "Perhaps you could be trusted to do this,
but others probably could not".   Such explanations seem to him more
like excuses than reasons.

SUMMARY

30.   <u>Intelligence</u> defined as "the ability to absorb with understanding"
enters into almost all activities but intelligence tests predicts
the development of intellectual rather than social or practical
skills.   Intelligence unlike wisdom shows no increase after 16 or so.
Some boys do less well than their intelligence would seem to warrant.
The four possibilities are :-

   (a)   he is less intelligent than he seems

   (b)   he lacks interest

   (c)   he lacks motivation

   (d)   he has some emotional difficulty.

Each of these requires a different method of treatment.

31.   <u>Character</u>   Inherited and environmental factors contribute to
character development, the main lines of which are established early
in life.   .

32.   <u>Adolescent Behaviour</u>   The adolescent behaves sometimes like a
child and sometimes like an adult which makes consistent treatment
very difficult.   He is in a greater hurry to achieve adult status
than society is to grant it.   In rejecting adult standards as
imposed from outside adolescents set up their own sub-culture with
its own standards of behaviour.   Much of the behaviour
characteristic of adolescent groups is apparently aimless.

33.   The adolescent can be led to accept the values of adult society
by gradually increasing his status by means of graduated responsibilities
and associated privileges.

34.   Interests develop and become more social in character and the
adolescent's attitude towards social question tends to be radical
and rebellious.

THE SOCIAL ASPECT OF ADOLESCENCE

INTRODUCTION

1.   In preceding chapters the adolescent boy has been described as a developing physical organism and as an individual being approaching psychological maturity.   To complete the portrait, and to place our understanding of adolescence on a firmer basis, we must now consider him as a social being, learning to take his place in the network of social relationships which make up society.   This wider understanding is necessary to all those who assume responsibility for the training and development of young people for two major reasons.

2.   First, the process of acquiring certain social skills - learning to adapt to other people, winning social approval, participating usefully in group activity - is often a difficult and painful one, and in it lies the source of many of the problems of adolescent behaviour.   The youth leader must be aware of these difficulties and willing to adopt a sympathetic and constructively helpful attitude towards them.

3.   The second reason is that the attitudes, behaviour, response to training and so on, of the individual adolescent can often be explained only in terms of the social pressures bearing on him, and these must be fully understood and taken into account if adolescent attitudes or behaviour are to be changed or influenced.   The source of these social pressures is to be found in the adolescent culture of the day;   they are exerted upon the individual through the various teenage groups of which he is a member.

ADOLESCENT CULTURE

4.   It is true to say that present day adolescents have a sub-culture of their own within the more embracing culture of our society.   This sub-culture is differentiated by its own standards of behaviour, of taste, of style, and by its own system of values. Its tangible expressions take various forms, for example, distinctive modes of dress (e.g. "Teddy Boy" suits), crazes in popular music, and a jargon peculiar to coffee bars and dance halls.

5.   This cultural pattern differs, of course, according to social class, and the one we are concerned with here is that prevalent among the wage earning working and lower middle class groups.   The same standards do not apply among grammar and public school fifth and sixth formers, although there are points of similarity.

6.   Many adults condemn working class adolescent culture out of hand as something immoral or as reflecting the physical and cultural degeneracy of modern youth.   This attitude, whether justified or not, is no substitute for a serious attempt at understanding it, and anyone who seeks to guide and develop young people must first be able to speak their language, and win their trust and confidence.

This involves a tolerant and open-minded approach, and, for example, a realisation that only a small proportion of "Teddy Suits" conceal razors and bicycle chains. Consequently, judgment on the moral and aesthetic value of this culture will be suspended, and instead attention will be focussed on the reasons for its existence and the functions it fulfils.

7.   The basic reason for the existence of a separate adolescent culture is the ambiguous status of the teenager in the transition from child to adult. He is undergoing a process of "psychological weaning", i.e. acquiring independence, making decisions for himself, choosing his own friends and so on. Naturally, he is proud to be growing up, and he rejects childish things. He also rejects adult standards and judgments in these matters, since to accept them would seem incompatible with his striving for independence and self reliance. The result is the emergence of the separate adolescent way-of-life.

8.   This, basically, is why the sub-culture exists at all. Further explanation is, however, necessary to account for the peculiar forms it assumes. These are due largely to inexperience, experimentation, and to youthful exuberance. In achieving independence adolescents start to exercise freedom of choice in certain areas where previously the wishes of their parents held sway. They are beginning to choose their own forms of entertainment, to buy their own clothes, apportion their own spending. Unused to such freedom, and usually ill-equipped to exercise it, they tend to be attracted by extremes, by the superficially attractive, by the short term goal and by the slick advertising appeal. They will experiment with hair styles, postures and mannerisms, trying to achieve some integration of personality based perhaps on a film star model. Their youthful spirits are readily appealed to by the brash, the noisy and the colourful in design and in music.

9.   Certainly, whatever they choose - a flashy tie, a noisy motor-cycle, a special hair style - it is unlikely to be the sort of thing they feel their parents would have chosen for them. There is no sense of freedom in that. Parents' tastes in such things are "old fashioned" or "out of touch". The older generation generally just doesn't understand these things. For example, there were adverse reactions among R.A.F. Apprentices to the introduction of blazer and flannels as permissible civilian clothes on the grounds that "Nobody wears that sort of outfit these days". In other words, a blazer and flannels is the last thing a working class teenager is likely to buy, precisely because it is just the sort of thing his elders would like to see him dressed in. It symbolises quietness, respectability, and conservatism, whereas he is noisy and a rebel.

10. Over and above this search for freedom of expression and striving for independence, adolescent culture derives its strength and pervasiveness, paradoxically enough, from the intense need of the individual adolescent to be as much like his contemporaries as possible.

His new-found freedom is a tricky thing to handle and it is quickly surrendered to the dictates of the herd. If a boy's pals all have "Teddy suits", then he must have one also. If forced to appear before them in blazer and flannels, he writhes under their taunts and ridicule and feels, in the context of adolescent culture, as improperly dressed as an adult would dining in a lounge suit when everyone else had dressed for dinner. This feeling of being odd man out causes intense distress to the adolescent, and no amount of reassurance by his parents that he looks very smart will afford him the slightest comfort.

11. It is sometimes difficult for the adult to appreciate the tremendous importance attached by the average teenage youth to conforming to standards generally accepted by his contemporaries. A father who insists on his son being home by ten p.m. has a difficult task on his hands if his son's associates are not required to be home until ten-thirty. The boy will endure conflict with his parents rather than risk the contempt of his pals. In fact there is a stage in the development of most boys in which their relationships with their peers far outweigh in importance their relationships with their parents, and those parents who fail to understand this and make allowances for it and who try to overcome the power of the adolescent group with their own authority, normally succeed only in alienating the affections of their children still further.

12. It is because of this strong pressure to conform, exerted by the group on the adolescent boy, (and so readily accepted by him) that it is so vitally important for the youth leader to know something of adolescent social relationships and group activity. It is not enough to get to know a boy as an individual and hope to predict his behaviour and reactions. The leader must know him in his social setting, which involves some knowledge of the standards and values operating in the groups to which he belongs (or would like to belong), his standing in these groups and the various attitudes and roles he adopts when with them.

ADOLESCENT GROUPS

13. Adolescent boys spend much of their leisure associating with one another in groups. These groups do not normally cover a wide range of ages; in most cases there will not be more than a year or two between the eldest member and the youngest. Sometimes the accepted leader may be somewhat older than the others, or the group may tolerate a "hanger-on" who is younger than the rest. The nucleus, however, consists of lads of the same age.

14. Such groups spring into existence wherever boys of the same age are brought together - in school, in factory workshop, service billet, or street corner cafe. They are usually quite small, so that one billet of 20 boys might contain two or three such groups with varying interests, standards of acceptance, and prestige.

Locking, Apprentices queuing at the Station Cinema

December 1957.

15. It is through these small (or 'primary') groups that the adolescent culture is transmitted. The individual is dependent upon the group for satisfying social relationships and in return he submits to the judgment of the group in matters of opinion and taste. Each group will tend to develop its own unwritten code of behaviour to which members must conform if they wish to remain acceptable. Among adolescent boys this "code" often includes elements of toughness, masculinity and a contempt for adult authority which brings the group into direct conflict with it.

16. The extent to which individual boys become dependent upon the group is well illustrated by the following remarks made by teenage members of a London Evening Institute and reported in "Self Portrait of Youth".

>   "   If you are a weak character it bolsters you up to be one of a gang. If you don't count for much at home you can date to do all sorts of things in a gang and it helps your pride. Most times you are insignificant;   in the gang you feel strong".

>   "   If a boy is unhappy at home he may feel extra lonely. Feeling lonely is awful. Once I went skating alone and I know how dreadful that was. I had thought it would be all right, but I wasn't. I felt quite miserable".

>   "   My little brother is delicate and has a slight speech defect. He has a gang of school and street friends. Sometimes, the leader of the gang expels him. Nothing upsets him so much as this. He sat at home and wouldn't eat or drink. Then the gang took him back and he picked up again in health".

17. These comments show well the extent of the dependence. Why is the need for it so strong? It is because the adolescent is so unsure of himself. He is all the time heading into new and unfamiliar territory and his anxieties over how to behave and what to say trouble him much less when he can be more or less anonymous as a member of the group. Few adolescent boys would venture into the local dance hall alone. They need the "moral support" of the group to give them sufficient confidence to overcome a sense of personal awkwardness and lack of experience. This need for group support in new ventures is shown even in relations with the opposite sex; in adolescence there commonly occurs a form of "group courtship" which often develops into "petting parties" at which the degree of intimacy indulged in, although not necessarily extreme, will be greater than would result without the confidence engendered by the presence of the group, and the pressure to conform that it exerts.

18. This need for acceptance by the group has, of course, important implications for those who wish to control and direct adolescent behaviour.   Social interaction will tend to result in several types

of problem boy.   First, there will be those who are firmly rejected by the groups to which they aspire and who become isolated from normal healthy social relationships.   Secondly, will be those who achieve acceptance by their peers but do so only by means of some anti-social behaviour which serves to set them in the limelight. For example, the boy who courts popularity by trying to bait people in authority.   Thirdly, will be those boys who are members of a group   or groups which have adopted anti-social standards of conduct - the type of gang which only enters a dance hall to create a disturbance.

19.   Studies have been made of the social relationships existing between adolescent boys in the Service.   For example, at R.A.F. Cosford, Boy Entrants completed questionnaires in which they listed the names of those boys they would or would not like to share the same billet as themselves.   From these choices and rejections a "social acceptability" score was calculated for each boy.   The relationship between these scores and the boys' records at the school was then studied, and the following are some of the interesting findings.

    (a)   A boy's social acceptability was related to his success in training.   At Cosford only 25% of the acceptable boys failed to reach S.A.C. standard in normal time, whereas the failure rate among unpopular boys was 36%.

    (b)   Popularity was clearly related to delinquency.   Only 20% of the socially accepted boys committed three or more offences compared with 58% of the unpopular boys.   There was also a pronounced tendency for the crimes of the unpopular boys to be of a more serious nature.

    (c)   During the course 52% of the unpopular boys reported sick with some form of psychosomatic disorder, whereas only 24% of the popular boys did so.

    (d) Promotion to boy N.C.O. was achieved by 28% of the popular boys, but by only 11% of those not socially acceptable.

20.   There is a strong relationship between the extent to which a boy is accepted by his fellows and the success with which he adapts himself to Service life.   Consequently, the flight commander should get to know as much as he can about the pattern of group relationships in the flight.   In particular he should pay close attention to the difficulties and anxieties of boys he knows to be isolated, or rejected by the rest, as they are likely to develop into problem cases unless counselled at an early stage.   Similarly he should have very strong reasons before recommending for promotion a boy he knows is not accepted by the others in his billet.

Not only is he unlikely to develop into a successful leader but his appointment to N.C.O. rank may have an adverse effect on flight morale.

21. At the same time a knowledge of group relationships will help to explain much behaviour that otherwise seems inexplicable or wayward. For example, a boy who is good at boxing and quite keen on it may suddenly lose interest for no apparent reason and fail to turn up for practice.   The explanation may be that, among the group in which he seeks acceptance, boxing carries no great prestige and that if he goes off to practice while the others amuse themselves in some other kind of activity he risks becoming socially isolated.   What he is doing often matters less to the adolescent than with whom he is doing it.   Youth Club leaders have commented on the fact that it is often difficult to get early arrivals to commit themselves to a particular activity.   They prefer to hang around and see what "the others" are going to do first.   Often, a gang of boys will hang around aimlessly at a street corner simply because they cannot agree on where to go or what to do, and rather than split up and go their separate ways they prefer to drift along "waiting for something to happen".   An acute state of boredom and frustration due to a wasted evening may then express itself in malicious damage or some other public nuisance.

SUMMARY

22. The adolescent boy has to learn how to behave socially;   he must adapt his own actions and impulses to meet the wishes of others if he is to gain social acceptance.   At the same time much of his behaviour can only be understood in terms of his response to social pressures.

23. These social pressures occur within the adolescents' sub-culture. This teenage way-of-life marks a rejection of adult standards of taste and judgment, as a result of the need of the adolescent to feel independent of adult authority.

24. The strength of the adolescent culture derives from the over-whelming need of the typical youth to win the acceptance and approval of his contemporaries.   Most boys will accept conflict with their parents sooner than submit to the ridicule or contempt of their peers.

25. The culture is transmitted through primary groups (gangs, "mobs", "crowds", etc) membership of which is greatly prized.   Such groups lend confidence to their members, enabling boys to overcome their own individual lack of experience and feelings of awkwardness or inadequacy.   Studies of such groups in the R.A.F. have shown that social acceptability is related to success in training, to delinquency, to sickness and to promotion.

26. Flight Commanders should study the pattern of social relation-ships in their flights and should pay particular attention to boys who appear to be rejected, or isolated from normal social relationships.

CHAPTER IV.

THE ADOLESCENT AND AUTHORITY

INTRODUCTION

1. Boys form attitudes towards authority long before the time they enter our youth schools. This attitude is based on their experience of authority from earliest childhood. If the boy's relations with authority figures are bad to the point of refusal to accept authority or to conform to its requirements, he is a delinquent, potential or actual. In discussing the relationships of adolescents with authority we are forced to concentrate on conflict between these and its causes.

DELINQUENCY

2. The dictionary definition of delinquency is a failure in or omission of duty. In the most general sense delinquency means any form of behaviour detrimental to the well-being of society. Such a definition obviously covers a multitude of sins. Whether a boy offends by going on parade with dirty boots or by stealing from his employer he rebels against the code of the society in which he finds himself. Usually when one speaks of juvenile delinquency one refers to anti-social acts that are sufficiently serious to evoke official response. This legal definition is the one we shall use here.

3. One implication of taking detection and official action as our criterion is that whether behaviour is to be classified as delinquent or not depends on the particular society in which it occurs. The standards of conduct demanded of the civilian and the serviceman, for instance, are not the same. Although the two codes largely overlap, there remain instances where behaviour is proscribed in the Service which would not be proscribed outside. In the first part of this chapter we shall deal with the general problem of delinquency in our society, paying particular attention to the various factors associated with a boy becoming a law-breaker. In the second part we shall go on to deal with the more specific problem of the pattern of crime at R.A.F. Youth Schools.

PART I - THE PROBLEM

SIZE OF THE PROBLEM

4. In this country before the war one out of every nine boys became delinquent at some time during his life (i.e. convicted by the courts of England and Wales for an indictable offence). Amongst those impoverished working class groups where delinquency is found to be concentrated, the proportion was as high as one in three. During and since the war there has been an upward trend in juvenile crime, reaching a peak in 1951, and thereafter tending

to flatten out. Recent research has found that there is a delinquent generation - those who reached the ages of 3 to 6 years old during the war. The probable reason is the father's absence from the home during these critical years of character formation. This generation has committed more than its fair share of crime all through its career to date. We can therefore expect some decline in juvenile delinquency in the near future but we can expect a compensating rise in adult crime.

TYPES OF DELINQUENT BEHAVIOUR

5.   Although there is almost no type of anti-social behaviour committed by one sex that is not committed by the other, there are pronounced differences between the sexes in the type of delinquent acts they commit. Boys are more likely to become delinquents than girls. Of the various offences that can bring a boy before the court easily the most common are theft and acts of malicious damage; sexual offences are much less frequent

6.   The first sign of a potentially delinquent personality can often be seen fairly early in life. It is unusual for a boy to be convicted of a crime without having some previous history of undisciplined behaviour. His scant regard for authority shows itself in his home, school and work records. The delinquent tends to be more restless and venturesome than the non-delinquent. Many have played truant from school and some have run away from home. He is likely to have started smoking and drinking at an early age and almost invariably keeps later hours. His work history shows a rather aimless drift from one job to another, attracted by the immediate pay and conditions, rather than by long term prospects. The way the delinquent spends his leisure time also contrasts sharply with that of the non-delinquent. He is much less likely to use it constructively. Only rarely will he have a definite hobby, unless one calls going to the pictures a hobby. Most often however he spends his time apparently doing nothing, hanging about on street corners or in cafes with his cronies, or roaming far afield in search of amusement and diversion. Such behaviour, although by no means criminal in itself, frequently leads to more serious forms of anti-social behaviour if only because of the suspicion engendered in the police and other agents of authority.

7.   There are a few cases, however, where the first indication of a potential offender is the delinquent act itself. Such individuals have no previous history of clashes with authority. Unlike the typical delinquent they seem reasonably secure and show less emotional immaturity and aggression. The offence that brings them before the court is often the result of a desire to impress other members of their own gang. We have previously mentioned that adolescence is characterised by the need for independence. During this period a boy becomes much more open to influences outside the home, particularly to the opinions and attitudes of his contemporaries.

Few things are less acceptable to him than the possibility of losing face with his pals.   The pressure to conform is very strong.   Even if the activities prized and encouraged by the gang border on the anti-social, he finds it hard to resist.   The possibility of clashing with those in authority is still preferable to the risk of rejection by his friends.

CAUSES OF DELINQUENT BEHAVIOUR

8.   It must straight away be admitted that delinquency is seldom, if ever, the result of any one factor.   Too often in the past the basis of delinquency has been oversimplified.   One writer would blame it all on heredity, another on ignorance a third on economic conditions. Some have even gone so far as to hold the cinema and comics responsible. It has become increasingly obvious, however, that crime is the result of a number of complex factors.   Although we shall consider each of these factors separately, the theory of multiple causation does not imply that they act in isolation.   Delinquency is the product of their close and constant interaction.   There is no clear line of demarcation between the bad and the good boy.   Both have the same basic needs and problems.   The essential difference between them lies in their ability to satisfy these needs through socially acceptable channels.

9.   There is a common belief that many delinquents, if not feeble minded, are of very limited intelligence.   Whilst there is some-thing rather comforting in regarding the criminal as a case apart qualitatively different from the non-criminal type, (in as much as this reduces the need to try and do anything about him) there is little concrete evidence in support of such a view.   A striking thing about offenders is their wide range of intelligence.   Granted that the delinquent is somewhat duller than his non-delinquent neighbour, (and even here it must be remembered that the brighter delinquents are less likely to be detected) the fact remains that a number of offenders are above average in intelligence, a few markedly so.

10. More apparent than the delinquent's lack of intelligence is his poor educational attainment.   In some cases this backwardness can be traced to a boy's dislike of school and consequent truancy, in others to prolonged absence because of illness.   In either case the result is the same, the delinquent has a poor school record, particularly as far as his vocabulary, ability at arithmetic and general information are concerned.   Since the delinquent is frequently retarded in his school work, he is seriously handicapped in any intelligence test where success is dependent on verbal ability. This is a likely explanation of the tendency of many early writers on the subject to consider delinquents defective in intelligence.

11.   It is not uncommon for delinquents to be referred to as 'young toughs', yet few in fact are remarkable for their robustness or physique.   Physically he tends to be shorter, weaker and more ill-nourished than the non-offender.   He has suffered more frequently from early ill health and has more often been involved in minor accidents.   This inferiority is probably characteristic of the entire social group or groups from which offenders are drawn, rather than being peculiar to the offenders themselves.   Physical weakness is likely to be supplementary rather than the main cause of delinquency.   Indirectly, however, by causing repeated absence from school, over indulgence at home, and inefficiency at work, it plays an important part.

FAMILY BACKGROUND

12.   Family background is undoubtedly important.   We mentioned in an earlier chapter that a common source of frustration for adolescents is the unwillingness of their parents to grant them any degree of independence.   With the onset of puberty a boy's interests and social activities widen, whereas earlier he had found most of his satisfactions in the home, he now tends to look for these outside. Where this change is resisted by the parents the ensuing revolt against the parents authority easily extends to conflict with authority in general.   This does not mean that the adolescent should be allowed or encouraged to do as he likes.   He needs, and nearly always appreciates, a set of rules telling him what he may and may not do, providing these acknowledge his changing status from child to adult.   Over indulgence or overstrictness, and possibly worst of all, violent swings from one of these extremes to the other, all hinder a proper relationship between adolescent and authority. The importance of favourable and consistent attitudes of parents to adolescent problems cannot be overemphasised.

13.   The attitude of parents to their children is closely bound up with their character.   The child is quick to imitate those he accepts as authorities, taking their behaviour as a model for his own. Only where the standard of conduct insisted upon by parents is backed up by their personal example is a boy likely to internalise the code.

14.   Broken homes are frequently associated with the development of delinquency.   In most cases, however, the break up of the home is the climax of a long series of frustrations, apathies and antipathies that effect all members.   There is evidence that it is not so much the break up itself that conduces to delinquency as the emotional climate that has led up to it.   In such homes the relationships of a boy with his parents is almost invariably abnormal.   He will have received too much affection, or too little.   He will have been over-protected or neglected.   Such a background seriously undermines a boy's confidence and gives rise to feelings of insecurity, which in turn are likely to find expression in anti-social acts which may

be a direct or indirect reaction against the failure to establish a sound authority relationship.

15. Economic conditions also have their part to play. Delinquency increases during periods of depression and to a lesser extent in times of extreme prosperity, possibly because both conditions for different reasons lead to less rewarding relationships, particularly in the home. Where hardship makes it necessary for the father, and probably the mother as well, to spend long hours away from the home, close supervision of the childrens' activities is impossible. Nor on their return are the parents likely to be particularly sympathetic and considerate in their handling of discipline situations. Like- wise an unemployed father lazying around the home loses his prestige as breadwinner and his attempts to assert his authority may well be met with contempt. In conditions of unaccustomed prosperity the general restlessness and breaking of old ties and customs unsettles the child. The parents too now find the child a brake on the activities they can afford and a handicap to their mobility. Furthermore new prosperity is associated with social change. The child adapts more quickly to the changes and loses respect for the father who now represents outmoded social attitudes.

16. Closely related to the economic position of the family is the question of overcrowding, both in the home itself and in the neighbourhood. Badly overcrowded living conditions are a frequent accompaniment of poverty. Not only do they have a deleterious effect on family relationships but also throw children into early contact with sexual matters. The detrimental effect of bad home conditions is usually reinforced by undesirable neighbourhood influences. Crime occurs more frequently in densely populated areas, particularly where these are deteriorating residential areas gradually being taken over by business and industry, or where the district has a largely transient population (e.g. areas centred on railway termini). Such underprivileged areas are characterised by overcrowding, poor recreational facilities, lack of organised activities for adolescents and high adult crime rates, all of which contribute to the development of young offenders.

17. All these factors work together in shaping the delinquent. Although physical handicap or severe psychological disturbance can be enough, most often there are a number of contributory factors. Sex, poverty, inferior intelligence, the attitudes and example of parents, all play their part. Not one of these factors on its own necessarily gives rise to delinquent behaviour, which is almost always due to a combination of several factors working together to weaken the personality of the child. Congenital and environmental factors are inextricably mingled. Poverty for instance will tend to act on both parents and children to breed neglect, harshness, indifference and emotional instability. The stronger and more intelligent members of such families however, have some chance of freeing themselves from these harmful influences.

18. Of all the factors associated with the development of anti-social tendencies, none is more important than a boy's relationships with his parents, for it is from these that he gains his first lessons in respect for authority. Where either parent has neglected the home physically or morally, and the children have grown up without a sense of security, they bear the marks in later life. If a parent has been cruel or continually hurt the child, it will not only suffer but become corrupted. A home need not be so dramatically defective before it inspires anti-social tendencies in its members. Where a boy has been spoilt or has been subjected to over-strict discipline, he is likely to be ill-equipped to adapt himself to society's demands, and to take upon himself responsibility for his own conduct.

19. The delinquent's history is typically one of failure. Not infrequently he will have been rejected or at best ignored at home. He has little affection for his school master, who probably no less dislikes him, and may well have difficulty in gaining the acceptance of the other boys. More often than not he comes from a generally underprivileged section of the community. If he is to be helped at all he must be given a taste of success. A long history of failure makes this hard. Insecurity and feelings of inferiority may be so ingrained that the offender will yield slowly, if at all, to treatment. Nevertheless, a great deal can be achieved if the delinquent can be made to bring his fears and evasions to the conscious level and see the significance of his anti-social acts. He then has some chance of satisfying his unfulfilled needs through socially acceptable channels.

PART II - CONFLICT WITH SERVICE AUTHORITY

20. Earlier in this chapter we said that whether a particular act is regarded as delinquent depends on the context. Not every type of behaviour considered a crime in the Armed Services would be similarly regarded in civilian life. In the R.A.F. for instance, a boy defaults if he is untidy on parade or if he fails to carry out an order. In civilian life, whilst such behaviour might be heavily frowned upon, it would not call for official censure and thus would not be considered delinquent. This raises the question of possible differences between the Service offender and his civilian counter-part. Is inability to accept Service regulations closely related to inability to abide by the law in civilian life ?

21. As a part answer to this question it is worth mentioning the Army's experience with its young offenders. A full account of the problem is given by Joseph Trenaman in his book 'Out of Step'.

WARTIME EXPERIENCE

22. In the early years of the war the Army was faced with the problem of a large number of soldiers who would not, or could not, take to Army discipline. Nearly every unit had a number of problem

cases who were continually going A.W.O.L. and generally making a
nuisance of themselves.   Not only were they useless as fighting
men they also had a bad effect on other members of the unit.
Normal methods of punishment, such as confinement to barracks and
detention, had been tried repeatedly but without success.   As soon
as the man was free to do so he would carry on as he had been doing
before.   It was therefore decided to send young soldiers (under the
age of 21) who had difficulty in adjusting themselves to life in the
Army to Special Training Units.

23.   These Units were not punishment camps;   all men posted to them
were allowed full privileges and received their leave entitlement.
Their aim was, by careful individual treatment, to restore to each
man his self respect and pride in his work.   The underlying
assumption in carrying out this training was that if an habitual
offender was to be reclaimed socially his training would have to be
tailored to his individual requirement.   This was to be done by :-

    (a)   getting to know his personal problems

    (b)   relaxing the pressure of normal discipline and
    substituting something less rigid

    (c)   appealing to his better nature and avoiding the
    use of punishment as long as possible

    (d)   developing his education and physique

    (e)   instilling essential details of hygiene and social habits.

24.   How successful were the Special Training Units?   Several
followup studies were made.   Every man who had received special
training was reported on by the Commanding Officer of his new unit
three months after arrival.   Two thirds of these reports
indicated an improvement in the standards of discipline.   The
evidence suggests however that Commanding Officers' assessments
tended to be lenient.   A better criterion is a comparison of the
number of offences men committed before and after Special training.
Although only one man in eight had no offences at all recorded
against him after leaving the S.T.U. up to the time of his release
from the Army, there was a genuine reduction in the number of
offences committed.   More than half the men who received special
training proved ultimately to be satisfactory soldiers.

25.   It must be remembered that any soldier who was sent for special
training was a confirmed delinquent.   In the relatively short time
they had been in the Army they had collected on average eight
entries on their Field Conduct Sheet;   most of these were for absence
from unit or parades, breaking regulations, or personal neglect.
More serious crimes such as desertion or offences indictable under
civil law were fairly uncommon.   In a number of cases the men had a

Cheerful arrival interviews. Administrative

Apprentices. Hereford, February 1958.

criminal record in civilian life.   Roughly one sixth of the men
had been convicted for two or more indictable offences before
coming into the Army.   A further sixth had committed a single
offence.   The fact that a man had been a delinquent in civil life
had little bearing on the amount of trouble he was likely to
cause the Army.   The Conduct Sheets of men who had civilian
records and those who had not committed any offences, or at least
had not been detected, were very similar.

26.   Most who found their way to the Special Training Units con-
formed to the general delinquent type.   In terms of background,
ability and attainment the vast majority had deep seated problems
which made it unlikely that they would avoid conflict with authority,
Service or civilian.

27.   The same factors that are associated with the development of
delinquent behaviour are responsible for failure to come to terms
with life in the Service.   Young men who rejected Service discipline
were emotionally far more immature, restless and adventurous than
those who accepted it.   Although not markedly inferior in
intelligence their educational attainment was noticeably poorer.
Most striking was the incidence of broken or defective relationships
with parents, characterised by friction, the absence of fair and
consistent standards of discipline and neglect.   For the first few
weeks leaving home and coming into the Army is something of an
ordeal for anybody;   it is much worse for men whose backgrounds
do little to sustain them over this period.   One of the most
important factors in helping a man to settle down is the comradeship
of the other men, being with a 'good mob', but even here the man
with an unfortunate background is handicapped.   He lacks the
confidence and social manners to recommend him to the other men and
comes to feel that he does not 'belong'.

28.   A further indication of the general instability of these men is
their attitude to the Army.   Although all had proved themselves
incapable of accepting Service discipline, few disliked the Army
itself.   Only one man in seven was prepared to accept any method,
honourable or not, to get his release.   A third claimed they had no
quarrel with the Army and did not even want to change their unit.
Surprisingly men who had volunteered to join the Army were more
likely than conscripts to become offenders, particularly when they
had volunteered at an early age and had somewhat negative reasons
for coming into the Army, as for example general discontent with
civilian life or because of trouble at home.

29.   It is clear that the habitual offender against Service discipline
would be unlikely to take kindly to authority no matter where he
found himself.   Even if he has not actually been convicted of crimes
before coming into the Service, this is largely a question of luck.
Relatively few of the boys at R.A.F. Youth Schools, however, are of
this type.   Persistent offenders exist and many of these conform
to type, but in the main the problems of boys at R.A.F. Youth Schools
are those normal in adolescence.   Although in trying to solve these

problems they find themselves in conflict with authority, this can hardly be considered abnormal.

OFFENCES AT YOUTH SCHOOLS

30. What sort of offences do boys at R.A.F. Youth Schools commit? A typical example of the type of disciplinary problem that exists is shown by the pattern of crime of apprentices at R.A.F. Halton.   An analysis of Forms 281 shows that the average apprentice commits between three or four offences during the three years he is under training.   The likelihood of a boy transgressing, however, varies with the length of time he has been on course.   The more senior the apprentice the more offences he is likely to commit per term.   This is not a function of age.   If length of Service is held constant, the older boy is rather less prone to offend than the younger.

31. It is possible to divide offences committed by apprentices into four distinct categories.   The first of these is made up of offences that are serious by any standards, Service or civilian, and includes such crimes as theft and wilful damage to property or persons.   This category accounts for 5% of the total number of offences.   The second category, serious service offences, includes offences such as A.W.O.L., failure to obey an order and insubordination.   This group accounts for 35% of the total.   Minor service offences such as having a dirty kit lay out, being improperly dressed, or being late on parade form the third category and 40% of the total number of offences are of this type.   The remaining 20% of offences (Category 4) involve the infringement of regulations peculiar to Youth Training Schools.   Typical examples are the improper possession of civilian clothes, drinking and driving motor cycles. Thus, most of apprentice indiscipline consists of minor service offences and behaviour which would not be considered a crime elsewhere in the R.A.F.

32. The length of time an apprentice has been under training not only influences the number of offences he is likely to commit, but also their type.   While senior apprentices commit no more serious offences they do commit more minor service offences, in particular against regulations which lack the sanction of practice elsewhere in the R.A.F.   This can only be explained by the attitude of the more senior apprentice to such regulations.   A number of factors play a part in determining this attitude.

(a) In common with all adolescents, apprentices are anxious to appear and to be accepted as adults.   Smoking, drinking, wearing clothes of their own choosing and riding motor cycles are activities they associate with the process of growing up and want very much to try them for themselves. Their desire to do these things is whetted by seeing airmen of their own age free to do so.

(b) They see nothing morally wrong or anti-social in acting in this way. On the other hand they do not go in for stealing because they can see the moral and social basis for regulations of this sort.

(c) In many cases they know that these regulations are not supported and reinforced by parental authority. Their parents would not forbid their smoking, riding motor cycles and choosing their own clothes.

(d) They get a certain amount of prestige among the other apprentices from doing these things. By breaking regulations they can prove themselves "one of the boys". There is little the adolescent fears more than being left out of the crowd.

(e) They know that if they are careful there is not a great risk of being detected and punished, and even if they should be caught, they are little in awe of the punishments they can be given.

33. The greater incidence of this type of offence amongst the more senior apprentices reflects the difficulty under existing regulations of recognising the apprentice's progressive development. Although the adolescent almost always shows a reluctance to accept authority he is more likely to infringe regulations where these conflict with his needs. Certainly one of his greatest needs is to prove to himself, and to others, that he is no longer a child. The irritation of what are seen to be unnecessary restrictions is also shown by the fact that, among apprentices, there is a positive relationship between intelligence and crime. The more intelligent the boy the more likely he is to find restrictions irksome and in consequence to try to get round them.

34. There are a number of factors, the size and age range of the trainee population, the fact that the R.A.F. stands in loco parentis to the boys and geographical limitations of the camps themselves, which make the problem of discipline at Youth Schools a difficult one. Naturally much emphasis is placed on the question of control. Control will be successful, to the extent that regulations meet three requirements :-

(a) That they accord with practice elsewhere in the Service. If a regulation lacks the sanction of general application, not only is it more likely to be broken, but it also weakens the impact of other demands.

(b) That the regulations recognise the growing maturity of boys while under training, and grant them some opportunity to practise being self-reliant and responsible for their own conduct.

(c)   That it is possible to enforce the regulations in
practice.

35.   Generally speaking the number of serious offences that boys at
Youth Training Schools commit is relatively small.   In the main their
misdemeanours spring from a reluctance to accept what authority says,
largely because it says it.   This is typical of the adolescent.
Although the flight commander of a Youth Training School is not in
a position to decide what rules must be enforced, he can greatly
influence the chances of their being accepted by the boys under him.
Methods and techniques of achieving this are discussed in a later
chapter.

SUMMARY

36.   In a complex society such as our own there are many authority
figures with whom the adolescent, as a not yet fully fledged member,
comes into contact.   He must accept their authority if he is not
to clash with it and become delinquent.   His ability to accept
authority depends upon many factors of which the most important are
his family background and his experience of relationships with
authority figures particularly his parents.   If he has been neglected
or overindulged by them or had unsatisfactory relationships with
them and with his teachers he cannot easily form satisfactory
relationships with other representatives of authority.

37.   A boy who is a member of a group whose outlook and attitude
opposes or differs from the rest of society is under pressure to
resist and oppose authority so as to maintain his prestige in and
membership of his group.

38.   Army experience during the war showed that the firm unit
discipline suitable for those who had already acquired a strong
social sense was ineffective with the weaker, delinquent   character.
Each of these had to be treated as an individual clinical case to
achieve an adequate response.

39.   In the Service new categories of "crime" are introduced of
which some are not easily seen as crimes by adolescents, and others
conflict with the adolescent striving for self expression and self
development.   In these circumstances delinquent acts are committed
by boys who are not delinquents in other respects.

LEADERSHIP

INTRODUCTION

1.   The technique of successful leadership is not a skill that can be acquired merely from reading books on the subject;   it is developed gradually through experience, assisted by training. Learning through experience can, however, be eased by clear thinking. The aim of this chapter, therefore, is to set down some thoughts on leadership in general and on problems of youth leadership in particular in order to stimulate the Flight Commander to think about his own job.

THE MEANING OF LEADERSHIP

2.   The question "What is leadership?" is best answered by considering the job the leader has to do.   The simple answer is that the leader is the one who takes decisions and gives orders and therefore leadership must be the process of decision-taking and order-giving.   A moment's thought, however, is sufficient to show that this doesn't go far enough.   A leader can have (and usually does have) other functions beside making decisions and issuing instructions.   Moreover, in some instances these other functions may be of greater importance.   In battle, for example, the junior leader has the most important function of inspiring and sustaining his subordinates by the example of his own personal courage;   the senior commander has the vital task of creating and maintaining high morale in his force.

3.   Developing this argument a little further, it becomes clear that not only does a given leader have a number of functions, but that not all leaders share the same set of functions.   The functions of the leader will vary according to the type of situation in which leadership is being exercised.   The task of the military leader in the heat of battle is quite different from that of the executive in civilian industry;   yet both are leaders.   Similarly, the functions of the leader vary according to his level in the organisation.   The junior military leader may be concerned with handling men at a personal, intimate level, with fieldcraft and with minor decisions;   his senior is more concerned with strategy, forward planning, public speaking and similar matters.

4.   Because the functions of different types of leader vary so considerably, it is a waste of time to essay a general definition of leadership.   The attempt produces high sounding phrases so abstract and general as to be meaningless and tautological or so detailed as to leave many forms of leadership uncovered.

5.   One example of a general definition appeared in "Air Clues"
some years ago.   It described leadership as "The art of creating
and maintaining high morale through the projection of the
personality of the Commander".   This phrase sounds fine and has
emotional overtones which may be inspiring;   as a useful
definition, however, it has serious limitations.   The would-be
leader is given no hint as to how he is to "project" his
personality, and indeed the consequences of attempting to do so
might well be disastrous.   In addition the leader has other
important functions beside morale-boosting which are ignored by this
definition.   Finally, in history there have been many great
Commanders who have been personally shy and retiring and who have
impressed their subordinates by means other than force of personality.

6.   A better way to tackle the problem of the meaning of leadership
is to decide exactly what is required of the leader in a particular
type of leadership role, and then select and train leaders to that
specification.   In other words a "job description" for leadership
should be drawn up, fitted to the particular set of circumstances.
Later in this chapter this will be done for the leadership role of
Flight Commander at a youth training school in the R.A.F.

BASIS OF LEADERSHIP

7.   When a person makes a suggestion or gives an order to other
members of the group he is attempting to exercise leadership.   If
his lead is accepted, and appropriate actions follow, it is because
the members of the group recognise that there is a legitimate basis
for his claims to leadership.   Some of the grounds on which leader-
ship gains acceptance are as follows:-

    (a)   Expertise - When a problem situation involves
    technical difficulties to be overcome then the group is
    likely to accept leadership from the person with the
    greatest technical knowledge.

    (b)   Appointment, Rank, Seniority - Within an
    organisation individuals do not normally question the
    right to lead of persons with higher rank or seniority
    or holding an appointment which makes the task their
    particular responsibility.

    (c)   Personal qualities - A leader will be accepted if
    he shows marked superiority in personal qualities or
    exercises personal magnetism (charisma) over the members
    of the group.

8.   Normally, where leadership is exercised within an organisation
the basis for its acceptance is a combination of all three factors
in varying proportions.

QUALITIES OF LEADERSHIP

9.   Qualities of leadership or leadership traits have been the subject of a great deal of thought and comment.   A very large range of qualities has been put forward as being 'essential' to the make-up of a good leader.   No two lists of qualities agree and many of the most outstanding leaders in history have lacked virtually all the qualities deemed desirable by the theorists.

10.   It is thus profitless to think of leadership ability in terms of a list of qualities.   It is more useful to think of leadership in a more dynamic sense, in terms of its effect on the group and the situation.   For example, in selecting leaders to-day as much attention is paid to 'situational tests' where a leaderless group is given a problem to solve and there is opportunity for potential leaders to emerge and initiate action as to the candidates' personality and temperament.

LEADERSHIP AND AUTHORITY

11.   One basis of leadership is rank, seniority or appointment within an organisation.   A rank is vested with authority, so as to enable the holder to discharge his responsibilities, and this authority is backed with all the weight and power of the organisation.   Many assume that when they exercise authority they are automatically exercising leadership, but this is not necessarily so.   People may reject a leader yet still obey his orders through fear of the power of the organisation he represents, which may be expressed through punishment or expulsion.   Their actions are then initiated not by any act of leadership but by fear of the consequences of disobedience. They are accepting the leader's authority while at the same time rejecting his leadership.

12.   Although giving a person some authority may foster the development of his latent powers of leadership, there is also a very real danger that it may stifle them at birth.   It is much easier to use (or abuse) authority than it is to be a good leader.   After a few initial failures to get his leadership accepted, an inexperienced leader may fall back on the authority of his rank and cling to it on subsequent occasions without attempting to lead.   When a person occupies a position of authority his subordinates look automatically to him for leadership;   only if he fails to provide it will they turn elsewhere - and when they do it is usually to someone in opposition to authority who becomes a thorn in the flesh of the organisation - for example to the shop steward in industry.

LEADERSHIP SKILL IN ACTION

13. Many degrees of skill are required in different leadership tasks.   The simplest is the task of the team leader of a tug-of-war
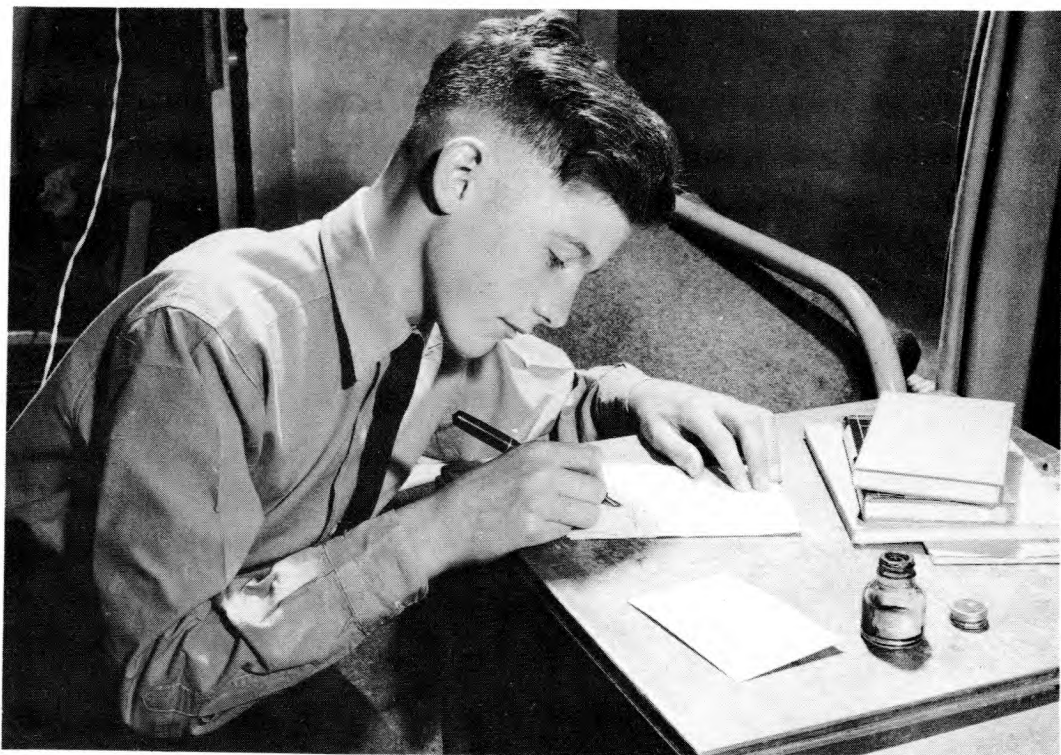
A Cosford Boy Entrant writes home.

team who watches for the right moment and tells his side to heave.
More complex is the task of the leader who takes it upon himself to
co-ordinate the activities of a group of people all bent on
achieving a common goal such as escaping from a P.O.W. camp.
He must decide the best course of action, allocate responsibilities,
plan for unforeseen contingencies and much else.

14. The severest test of leadership, however, is to be found in the
sort of situation which is a common daily occurrence.   That is when
the members of the group have no particular interest in or enthusiasm
for the goal, when the activity is distasteful to them, when there
are other things they would much rather be doing, and when there is
no tangible reward or incentive.   An example near home is preparing
a billet for inspection.   This is the sort of situation in which the
leader is most likely to despair of success and to fall back on
his authority and use fear of the consequences of disobedience as
his sole incentive.   Yet many leaders tackle this sort of situation
and achieve willing and cheerful participation in the task, and pride
in the achievement of the goal.

15. Why do some succeed in this situation while others fail?
Much will depend on the past relationship between the leader and his
subordinates.   If it has been good, loyalty will have been built,
which will take unpleasant tasks in its stride;   the subordinates
will do their best out of respect for their leader and so as not to
let him down.

16. Much also depends upon the way in which he presents the situation.
If he explains why the task is necessary, uses "we" instead of "you",
gives encouragement and praise where it is deserved, and makes it
clear that he expects co-operation, then the response is likely to
be favourable.   On the other hand if he merely orders the task,
without explaining it, lays stress on the consequences of failure,
and makes it quite plain that he expects the group to be bitter and
rebellious - then his expectations will come to pass.

YOUTH LEADERSHIP IN THE ROYAL AIR FORCE

17. We have stressed that the functions of the leader vary
considerably from one situation to another.   We must now consider
the leadership functions of a Flight Commander at a youth training
school.   Excluding purely administrative and training responsibilities,
they are :-

        (a) To build and maintain a high state of morale and
        motivation.   This involves engendering a sense of pride
        in Service and unit and a keenness to excel in every
        activity.

(b) To promote the development of boys and apprentices towards adulthood. This includes the development of character qualities and leadership potential, as well as the inculcation of a proper sense of values.

(c) To ensure the moral and physical welfare of his boys.

(d) To establish and maintain a high standard of discipline.

This list is not in order of importance. All are essential and at the same time interdependent. Neglect of one will make it more difficult to accomplish the others.

18. Together they are the aim of the Flight Commander as a leader. The means of achieving this aim are dealt with at length in the various chapters of this manual, particularly in those sections on the development of the adolescent and on morale and discipline, interviewing and counselling. Here, however, we shall make some general points on the technique of youth leadership.

19. First, the leader must get to know the boys in his flight as individuals. This is always important, but with adolescents it is essential; the boys are fresh from the snug, secure confines of the family in which, as dependents, they are accustomed to an intimate, personal form of control. For their emotional well-being they must continue to feel that someone in authority is taking a personal interest in their affairs. If the Flight Commander fails to do so they will turn for leadership and guidance to someone who does. It is difficult to get to know all the boys in a large flight in the time available, but no effort should be spared in doing so.

20. Besides knowing the boys in his flight as individuals the Flight Commander should know something of the social relationships among them. He should know who are popular and who are ignored, rejected or despised; he should know what cliques exist and who are the informal leaders exercising influence for good or ill. As we showed in a previous chapter, much adolescent behaviour results from the satisfactions or frustrations in group relationships; the pattern of social relationships in a group also bears closely upon its morale.

21. Leadership is essentially a matter of personal contact; it cannot be exercised from a distance. The Flight Commander should spend as much time with members of his flight as possible, both formally, on the square and sports field, and in the lecture room, and informally, in billet and club room after working hours. Inexperienced officers tend to shy away from informal contacts with airmen and apprentices fearing that undue familiarity may result, with consequent loss of respect. This need never happen; if the

officer has sufficient confidence in his role as leader and commander, then he has entirely under his control the amount of familiarity that will develop. Shyness in such personal contacts will not lose the officer respect provided he is sincere and conducts himself with dignity. On the other hand, the leader who holds himself too aloof will soon lose respect. His flight members will either believe that he is afraid of them or that he despises them. In neither case are they likely to respond to his leadership.

22. Adolescents are impressionable and the personal example set by the Flight Commander will have a vital bearing on the way his leadership influences them. His example must be a model in such matters as appearance, bearing, manners, moral and ethical standards, pride in Service and self-discipline. Perhaps the most bitter grudge adolescents have against adults is that they do not practice what they preach. Consequently, the Flight Commander who is sloppy, untidy, unpunctual or ill-mannered can hardly expect to be a successful leader. A Service officer enters into leadership as a vocation; this entails certain obligations, among the most important of which is his duty to act at all times as an example to his subordinates. When these subordinates are adolescent boys, developing into adult citizens, this duty has wider implications, since he is moulding future citizens as well as future airmen.

23. Lastly, the point of view of the adolescent himself must be taken into consideration. What do adolescents look for in their leaders? To what qualities do they respond and what attributes do they reject? Studies of teenage boys at work, in clubs and camps and in the Service have produced a list of their likes and dislikes in their leaders.

Leadership factors approved by adolescents

Adolescent boys respond to leaders who :-

(a) Take a personal interest in them.

(b) Are mature and adult in outlook.

(c) Are always fair and impartial and do not have favourites.

(d) Have a natural air of authority.

(e) Have a sense of humour.

(f) Adopt a relaxed and friendly approach.

(g) Have ability at some sport or other activity boys are interested in

Leadership factors rejected by adolescents

Boys tend to reject leaders who :-

(a) Are roughly of the same age or experience as themselves.

(b) Hold themselves too aloof.

(c) Use sarcasm or contempt when reprimanding.

(d) Appear to be prying, snooping, or setting traps.

(e) Show homosexual tendencies.

SUMMARY

24. There is a large variety of situations in which leadership is called for, and leaders may be required to exercise a wide variety of functions in these different situations. Consequently a general definition of leadership is too vague and abstract to be useful.

25. Leadership is accepted on the basis of the knowledge, experience, appointment, rank, seniority or personal qualities of the leader. The 'personal qualities' are hard to define and vary considerably from one situation to another.   Leadership is something different from the exercise of authority and this distinction must be recognised in practice.

26. The leadership task of the Flight Commander at R.A.F. Youth Schools involves the functions of morale-building, character development, welfare, and the maintenance of discipline.   These functions are interdependent.

27. Among the important factors in youth leadership are: knowledge of the individual boy;   knowledge of group relationships;   personal contacts with a proper degree of informality;   and, of course, the example set by the leader.

DISCIPLINE

INTRODUCTION

1.   One of the major functions of the Flight Commander is to build and maintain a high standard of discipline among the boys.   To carry out this task properly he needs a clear idea of what he is trying to achieve and an adequate understanding of the impact of discipline upon an adolescent population.

THE MEANING OF DISCIPLINE

2.   Discipline, like many other terms, is so loosely used in every-day speech, that it is well to start by clarifying its meaning. What, exactly, is implied when a particular community is described as being "well-disciplined" ?   Such a description might be used to imply one or more of the following :-

(a)   The community is subject to a large number of rules of conduct.

(b)   Members of the community hardly ever disobey orders or rules and regulations.

(c)   Members who are disobedient are severely punished.

(d)   If members disobey the rules they are certain to be found out and punished.

(e)   Members are very closely supervised in all their activities.

3.   Some of these ideas are very woolly.   The one basic idea central to discipline is (b) above;   the state of discipline of a community is the extent to which its members obey orders and regulations;   how many rules there are, the degree of severity of punishment, the certainty of punishment and the closeness of supervision are not relevant to this central fact.   Where discipline is lax, people disregard orders and rules, whether they are many or few;   where discipline is of a high standard orders and rules are obeyed promptly.

FOUNDATIONS OF DISCIPLINE

4.   A high standard of discipline can be achieved in two ways. First, one can discipline a group of people by getting them to fear the consequences of disobedience.   Two things are necessary. It must be virtually certain that if they offend against the rules they will be found out and held to account, and a punishment must

Cross Country exercise.

Administrative Apprentices Summer Camp.

Porthcawl, 1958

be devised which, while not being severe out of all proportion to the offence, must be effective in deterring would-be offenders. These things are difficult to achieve. One cannot in practice detect more than a fair proportion of offenders and the lower the proportion the weaker the standard of discipline. Similarly, it is impossible to balance punishment to offence very adequately since what may be an overwhelming deterrent to one potential offender may be regarded very lightly by another. Letting the punishment fit the crime may conflict with letting the punishment fit the criminal. Moreover the persistent offender is usually the least deterred by any increase in the severity of punishment. The greatest weakness in this form of discipline, however, is that it fails completely in the absence of supervision. If people obey orders only because they are afraid of being found out and punished, then once that fear is removed by the absence of anyone in authority, there is no motive for continued obedience and discipline disintegrates. For example, if a teacher achieves class discipline based on fear of punishment, when he is forced to leave the boys to their own devices for a period, merry hell breaks loose.

5. The second method of achieving a high standard of discipline is by gaining the acceptance of the group of the need for discipline. Under these conditions it is more self-discipline than discipline imposed from without. People obey orders not because they are afraid of the consequences if they disobey, but because they realise the need for them. Discipline of this kind, because it is self-imposed and based on understanding rather than fear, endures in the absence of supervision and is a far more vital factor in the morale of a unit. It takes a great deal of patience and understanding on the part of the leader to build up discipline of this kind, particularly among an adolescent group, and with a few hardened offenders it will never work, but in the long run it is the only means whereby a high standard of discipline can be maintained outside a prison.

6. People will generally accept a given standard of discipline provided certain conditions are met. They must be able to appreciate the necessity for the general standard of discipline required, and to regard it as reasonable; they must regard the administration of discipline as fair and impartial, and they must have confidence in those in authority who set the standard. The manner in which discipline is administered is vital since people tend to resent the way in which orders are given much more than the orders themselves, which they can see are necessary and reasonable.

7. This of course, places a considerable burden on the leader, who must be careful not to make rules and regulations just for the sake of doing so, or because they make administration simpler. He must take great pains to be fair and impartial and must ensure that his N.C.Os. do not administer discipline in a way that is likely to cause resentment. It is also his duty to ensure that his

subordinates understand the basis of and necessity for the discipline he exacts. For example, Flight Commanders in Youth Training Schools in the R.A.F. should ensure that boys fully understand that the discipline they are subject to has three foundations.

(a) Training for war: the inculcation of the habit of prompt obedience to orders in preparation for operational conditions.

(b) Community living: the discipline necessary if several hundred boys are to be quartered together and administered as a unit.

(c) Minor status: The Royal Air Force assumes in part the responsibilities of the boy's parents and exercises discipline on their behalf.

DISCIPLINE AND THE ADOLESCENT BOY

8. Discipline is a particular problem where adolescent boys are concerned as they tend naturally to be rebels. They are aspiring to adult status and tend to seek for themselves freedom of action equal to that of an adult. The aspects of discipline they tend to resent most are those stressing their juniority - restrictions on smoking and drinking, the times they must be back in camp, and so on. This resentment can only be overcome by giving the adolescent a sense of progressing - through a system of graduated privileges for example so that increased freedom of action is granted to him step by step with his developing sense of responsibility.

9. One should not take adolescent acts of indiscipline too seriously. Breaches of discipline which are the result of wayward, often senseless, impulses are common in adolescents and are symptomatic of the general feeling of restlessness and frustration which sometimes grips them. Equally common are offences committed by a boy when with a group merely because he dares not risk being labelled a coward or a cissy. This is a very strong form of pressure and should, when the gravity of the offence is being weighed, not be overlooked.

SUMMARY

10. The standard of discipline of a community is reflected in the extent to which its members obey the rules and regulations. This obedience may be based either on fear of the consequences of disobedience, or upon willing acceptance of the rules (self-discipline).

11. For people to fear consequences of breaking the rules, detection of offenders must be virtually certain, and, in addition, the punishments awarded must be effective deterrents. These conditions are rarely met.

12. Discipline based on acceptance can be achieved where people understand the necessity for the rules and trust the judgment of those who administer them.

13. Discipline in R.A.F. Youth Schools has three foundations - training for war, community living and the minor status of the trainees.

14. Adolescents are natural rebels and discipline is often a problem with them. Care should be taken not to regard their offences too seriously; only in exceptional cases are they signs of permanent defects in character.

CHAPTER VII.

MORALE

THE MEANING OF MORALE

1.   We all know what we mean (or think we do) when talking about morale, but can we express this meaning in precise terms?   We must try to 'pin it down' and be quite clear that we are all talking about the same thing.

2.   First we must be clear that morale is an attitude of mind. This, of course, accounts for its intangibility;   as an attitude it is something which can only be inferred from cues such as the things people do and the things they say.

3.   We must also remember that morale is a product of group life. It is loose use of the term to refer to the "morale" of a person who is isolated and without group ties;   a person's morale only has meaning in relation to some group or organisation to which he belongs.   This is true even of a prisoner of war in solitary confinement, the state of whose morale is a function of his loyalty to his unit, his Service and his country.

4.   Morale is, then, an attitude of mind a person has towards a group to which he belongs.   This attitude has three major characteristics:-

   (a) <u>Satisfaction</u>   The individual with high morale feels he is getting a fair deal from the group.

   (b) <u>Loyalty</u>   The member with high morale is attracted to the group, takes pride in belonging to it, and wishes to remain a member as long as possible.

   (c) <u>Striving</u>   A person with high morale identifies himself with the group and its purpose, exerts himself on its behalf and is willing to make some sacrifice of his own personal interests in order to serve the group to the best of his ability.

5.   A composite definition of morale, therefore, may be expressed as follows:-

   <u>Morale is an attitude of satisfaction with, desire to remain a member of, and willingness to strive for the goals of, a particular group or organisation.</u>

6.   This last phrase 'a particular group or organisation' is of
vital importance when we pause to consider what exactly we are
trying to achieve when creating and maintaining high morale.   The
individual aircraft apprentice at Halton, for example, is a member
of a number of groups or organisations.   Starting at the bottom,
he belongs to a particular Flight;   he wears a badge showing
his allegiance to a particular Squadron;   his cap bears a band
denoting his membership in one of three Wings;   he is undoubtedly
a part of No. 1 School of Technical Training;   finally, he is a
member of the Royal Air Force.   The question immediately arises,
is the Flight Commander concerned with the boys' attitudes to each
of these groups?   The answer is yes;   it is not enough to build
up high Flight morale and leave it at that.   The Flight may
disappear in a process of reorganisation, leaving the boys no
anchor for their loyalties;   their ultimate loyalty is to the
Service and this must never be lost sight of in building the
foundations of their morale in preparation for the time they pass
out of training into the R.A.F. proper.

TANGIBLE EXPRESSIONS OF MORALE

7.   Although morale is itself intangible it expresses itself in
many tangible ways.   For example in a group of trainee apprentices
or boy entrants a state of low morale might show in some or all of the
following types of behaviour.

   (a) Seeking discharge from the Service.

   (b) Poor training results relative to ability and aptitude.

   (c) Committing offences - in particular absence without leave.

   (d) Reporting sick with trivial or frivolous complaints,
   malingering.

   (e) Minor nervous disorders, cases of psychosomatic illness.

   (f) Reluctance to participate in sports events or other
   forms of communal activity off-duty.

8.   The Flight Commander should maintain records of behaviour of
this kind;   he should know how his Flight stands in relation to
others in terms of crime rates, sickness rates and the like.   While
it is obvious that the sort of behaviour described above calls for
disciplinary or executive action, it should also be obvious that,
where the incidence in a particular flight is greater than the
average, the situation calls for some self-examination on the part
of the Flight Commander.

FACTORS AFFECTING MORALE

9.   The factors affecting or determining the level of morale of a group may be divided into two kinds- material factors and intangible factors.

10.   The material factors include such matters as food, living and working conditions, amenities for recreation and clothing and equipment.   These matters are, of course, largely outside the control of the Flight Commander.   Nevertheless, he should always be prepared to do battle on behalf of his flight in order to secure improvements in such matters as accommodation, where decisions are made on the unit.   Generally speaking, however, the material determinants of morale are of less importance than the intangible ones.   In the words of Field Marshal Slim "the very highest kinds of morale are often met with when material conditions are lowest".

11.   The intangible factors, which have a greater effect on morale, are many, and their relative importance will vary from one type of situation to another.   They can be divided into three major categories - group factors, job or task factors, and leadership factors.

12.   Group factors include the purpose of the group, its organisation structure, its size and so on.   The main factors and the ways in which they affect morale are summarised below.

   (a)   Purpose

        Morale is high were group members understand the purposes or goals of the group and regard them as worth striving for.   At a youth training school this means the extent to which boys understand the aims of training and are prepared to work hard to achieve them.

   (b)   Size

        Morale tends to be higher in small closely-knit units than in large impersonal organisations.   The size of Halton, for example, is a real difficulty in the way of maintaining high morale among aircraft apprentices.

   (c)   Stability

        The stability or permanence of the group is a further important determinant of morale.   Morale inevitably suffers if boys are shuffled around from one group to another and not given the opportunity to develop stable group ties.

Athletics Coaching.

Administrative Apprentices. June 1958.

(d) Prestige

The morale of a group depends in part on its
prestige in society at large;   it is difficult to take
pride in belonging to a group which is generally
despised.   The esteem with which crack military units
are regarded by the public is an important factor in
their high morale.

(e) Symbolism

Group loyalties can be fostered particularly among
adolescents by the use of symbols representative of group
identity.   Examples are wing and squadron flashes, and
entry flags or banners.

(f) Structure

The structure or organisation of the group can have
a very marked effect on morale.   Important are the
degree of delegation of authority and responsibility, the
co-ordination of functions and the efficiency of channels
of communication.   A particular organisational matter
affecting the morale of boy entrants and apprentices in the
Service is the way in which they are grouped.   This
grouping may be based on trade or entry, on some
combination of the two, or on an integration of the various
trades and entries in billets.   This is a perennial
problem to which there is no easy solution;   grouping
based on the entry (e,g. squadrons by entries)
undoubtedly results in high entry morale but not in high
Service morale.   Wherever possible working groups should
coincide with domestic groups;   this principle implies
that the best form of grouping is based on trade and
entry.

13.   Job or task factors are those related to the satisfaction the
individual gains from his tasks as a member of the group.   In
training where the group is not engaged in any productive task, but
is required to take a more or less passive, learning role, the
maintenance of high morale presents especial difficulties.   Some
of the factors are :-

(a) The length of the course;   there are obvious
difficulties in sustaining morale on a course lasting
as long as three years.   Initial enthusiasm quickly
wanes, and long term goals tend to seem unreal to
adolescents, for whom time tends to pass more slowly
than for adults.   Intermediate hurdles can offset this
effect to some extent and the Flight Commander should
always be ready to counsel and encourage those who
appear to be flagging.

(b)   Morale tends to decline when boys are in the dark
as to their progress;   knowledge of results is a
powerful incentive and no opportunity should be lost to
keep boys informed as to how they are doing.

(c)   A further factor in morale is the ease or otherwise
with which students can absorb the instruction.
Difficulties arise when the bright boys find the lesson
too easy, and unable to hold their interest, while the
dull boys find it too difficult and grow discouraged
and despondent.

(d)   Motivation is absent when boys do not appreciate the
necessity and value of certain parts of the syllabus and
feel they are a waste of time;   this attitude is most
common towards educational subjects, but it is up to the
Flight Commander, as well as the Education Officer to
correct it.

(e)   Some boys' low morale in training can be traced to
their dissatisfaction with a trade they did not choose.
One example is the Telegraphist trade among Boy Entrants.

14.   Leadership factors are the third set of intangible determinants
of morale.   We have seen that the morale of the individual boy
depends partly on group factors, and partly on his attitude to
training.   Even more important, however, because it has a more
personal impact, is the quality of the leadership he receives from
officers and N.C.Os. - and in particular from his Flight Commander.

15.   In a large training school, where material conditions are
fairly standard, where the training task is the same for all and
one organisation covers everything, there may appear to be little
scope for the Flight Commander to do much about morale.
Nevertheless in flights that are outwardly similar large differences
in morale have been observed, which are due to differences in the
Flight Commander's leadership.

16.   By following the leadership principles outlined in the previous
chapter, by maintaining firm, fair and consistent discipline, and by
wise counselling of flight members, the individual Flight Commander
can create and maintain a highly satisfactory level of morale.   To
do so should be foremost among the aims of every officer appointed
to a leadership post at a youth training school.

SUMMARY

17.   A person's 'state of morale' is his attitude to the group to which
he belongs;   if he belongs to many groups then he may have as many
different states of morale.   This is true of the apprentice who
belongs to trade, entry, billet, flight, squadron, wing, station and
R.A.F. - all groups claiming his loyalty and often conflicting in
their demands.

18. Morale expresses itself tangibly in such ways as crime and sickness, training results, and participation in sport. Flight Commanders should keep an eye on the performance of their boys in these respects.

19. Factors affecting morale are of two kinds - the material and the intangible. The latter are most important and can be further divided into group factors, job or task factors, and leadership factors. Many of these factors can be altered by the Flight Commander so as to improve the morale of his flight.

CHAPTER VIII.

COUNSELLING AND INTERVIEWING

INTRODUCTION

1. Much of the Flight Commander's time is taken up by interviews. In carrying out these interviews, however, he will be called upon to handle a number of very different situations. It is possible to classify the circumstances of the interview and we shall do so here for convenience of treatment later on. One classification is immediately obvious; the interview may be sought by the interviewee or required by the interviewer. Interviews also vary according to their purpose, whether this is mainly to obtain information, impart it, or to influence the interviewee's attitudes or future behaviour.

INTERVIEWS SOUGHT BY SUBORDINATE

2. Every Flight Commander tries to make himself available for interview as often as he is needed and usually at stated times. However frequent these set times are it is very desirable to have a method by which the boys know that they can see their Flight Commander urgently. Boys need this much more than ordinary airmen. An adolescent's problems may reach the boil with astounding speed and the urge to do something – anything – about it immediately is overwhelming. Unless he can ask for and receive help and guidance at once he may commit some senseless act which embroils him still deeper in his troubles.

3. "A trouble shared is a trouble halved", was the old motto and there is a good deal of psychological truth in it. Particularly to the adolescent the most appalling aspect of his trouble is that he feels isolated by it. He alone carries the burden which is too much for his young shoulders. The very act of confiding the trouble to someone and particularly to someone in authority discharges emotional tension and makes it more bearable. Being available in this way is a responsibility but it does not mean that the Flight Commander must be at the immediate beck and call of his boys. It does mean, however, that a boy must know that when his Flight Commander is on camp no formalities will delay his being seen, and that there is some officer to go to if his Flight Commander is away for any length of time (a week-end for example).

4. An interview sought by a subordinate should always be granted in private. Such an interview will quite likely be requested by a boy who knows he is in trouble or by one who is a persistent offender or nuisance. Under such circumstances an officer may feel justified in treating the boy in a summary fashion, dismissing him abruptly or using the occasion for a reproof. The effect of this, however, is to make the interview part of punishment for the boy's misdeeds. The opportunity however slight of a move towards a better

understanding has been lost.   It is in effect a refusal to give
an unprejudiced hearing to what the boy has to say and will
probably evoke a sense of injustice.   In any case it is an empty
policy to offer oneself as a counsellor and to deny one's counsel
to a boy who may need it.   An interview requested by a subordinate
should then not only be granted, but granted in private and
conducted with courtesy.

INTERVIEWS CALLED BY THE INTERVIEWER

5.   It is generally desirable to give notification of the interview
sufficiently in advance to reduce interference with other arrange-
ments the boy may reasonably have made.   On the other hand a long
gap between notification and interview is undesirable;   many will
recognise from their own experience the distraction due to worry
about the possible subject of interview, the ransacking of memory for
sins which may have been discovered or, in the case of the sanguine,
the building of hopes for some special recognition or advancement.

6.   Ideally the interview should take place on the day of
notification which should be made at the beginning of the day, or at
lunchtime for an evening interview.   This of course does not apply
to interviews in response to some sudden emergency.

7.   Where possible the subject of the interview should be indicated
e.g. "Aircraft Apprentice Smith is required to see his Flight
Commander in connection with his application for XYZ", or "Boy
Entrant Snooks is required to see his Flight Commander concerning
his progress results".   Obviously where the boy is required in
connection with some misdemeanour, this will not normally be stated.
If anyone is to wonder "What on earth he wants me for?", let it be
the defaulter.

8.   Remember that the requirements will be communicated to the boy
through the Sergeant.   When the boy is told, he will probably say,
"What does he want me for, do you know Sarge?".   It is therefore
a good idea to put the Sergeant in the position to answer and give
the boy some warning unless there is good reasons for not doing so.

STAGE - MANAGING THE INTERVIEW

9.   The interviewee knocks on the door at the precise hour he has
been instructed.   There is no reply.   He knocks louder and hears
the growled "Come in".   He does so and stands inside the door.   The
interviewer is writing and continues without looking up.   He comes
to the end of what he is doing, re-reads it, and looks up "Ah Smith,
just a moment".   He then calls for his sergeant and gives him some
instructions and asks him to get the letter or file off as soon as
possible.   "Ah yes, Smith, now let me see ...... what did I want
you for ...... oh yes, ...".   At this point the telephone rings

and the interviewer converses amiably with someone at the other
end, finishing with several minutes of chat obviously unimportant.
When the phone is put down the sergeant puts his head round the
door - "Cpl. ABC wants to see you, Sir".   "Tell him to wait, I
won't be many minutes"m and with an apologetic smile suggesting
"You can see what a frightfully busy fellow I am", says "Now where
were we Smith?   Oh yes, sit down will you, while I find this report
I wanted to go through with you - where is it?", and after some
rummaging "Ah here it is ......" and the interview begins.

10. Is this a caricature?   Maybe, but we have all been treated like
that.   And were we impressed?   Or did we think that our interviewer
was a bad mannered boor who was trying to impress us with his
importance and who really cared very little for us or our problems?

11. It should not be necessary to spell out the errors in attitude
and in technique shown in this sketch which would spoil an interview
before it even began.   Clearly the interviewer should first
estimate how long he needs for the matters to be discussed, and
should set aside enough time for the purpose.   He should also do
his best to avoid unnecessary interruptions.   Where interruptions
do occur, he should allow them as little time as possible postponing
all that can be put off until after the interview.   He should make
his interviewee feel that he is the sole object of the interviewer's
attention and interest for the time being.

12. Unless the interview is meant to be a deliberately one sided
affair, a chair should always be provided for the interviewee who
should be asked to sit down before the interview begins.   A one
sided affair - a carpeting if done in this way - is not really an
interview at all in the meaning we are giving it here.   Correct
preparation allows the possibility of a good interview but by no
means guarantees one.

13. The objects of any interview are one or more of the following:-

   (a) To obtain information from the interviewee.

   (b) To impart information to him.

   (c) To get him to accept the new point of view - to
   change his attitude to something.

   (d) To help him with a personal problem.

In general then there has to be an exchange of information and of
points of view or attitudes between the two participants;   the
interview has to be a two way process.   Even at the lowest level
where information is to be imparted, the interviewee has to be
receptive and to co-operate to some extent.   No interview will
achieve its object if the interviewee's co-operation has not been
obtained.

14. The interviewer then should have some plan of the interview in his mind. He should decide which of the objects the interview is to have and by what means he will achieve them.

15. He should also prepare materially. No proper interview will take place if one of the participants is standing up. A reasonably comfortable chair should be provided for the interviewee and some thought should be given to its placing. It should not be so near the interviewer's desk that the interviewee might rest his elbows on it or fiddle with objects on it. This though unintentional on the part of the interviewee would be annoying to the interviewer and introduce tension into the interview. Nor should the chair be placed so far away from the desk as to introduce an artificial space barrier; three feet away should be ample. It is a good plan to set the chair at a slight angle to the interviewer so that the interviewee is not forced to gaze straight into the interviewer's eye every time he looks up.

16. A few moments at the beginning of the interview should be devoted to putting the interviewee at ease. He will be not only more communicative but also more receptive than when he is tense. In a state of tension we are far more likely to misunderstand and to misinterpret what we hear, so there are very practical reasons for putting the interviewee at his ease. This can be done simply and without artifice by touching on some neutral topic or one of mutual interest before tackling the main purpose of the interview. There is always something to chat about if it is only the weather. With practice it becomes quite easy to slip from the introduction to the real business of the interview without too obvious a jerk.

17. Once the real business is under way a good interviewer will observe three rules:-

(a) He will put his points in language that will be understood by his interviewee.

(b) He will listen attentively and with patience.

(c) He will lead the interviewee to participate in the decision or conclusion of the interview.

(a) Remember that many boys are slow witted and that nearly all are literal minded. Sarcasm and irony are often misunderstood and if understood are resented. If the boy thinks you are trying to make a fool of him or are laughing at him he will fail to co-operate with you. Never assume that he has understood; make sure he has.

(b) If you don't take in what the boy is trying to say this session is not an interview but a lecture. Remember again that many boys are slow of expression and find it hard to put their thoughts into words. If you prompt him he is likely to agree with your prompting

even though that is not what he meant to say. He will do this partly because he thinks this is what you want him to say and partly because it saves him the agony of expressing his own thoughts in words; it is an easy way out. If the boy's flow of expression dries up it creates tension in both boy and interviewer. It is far better to endure this tension and show that you expect more to come (e.g. by saying "Go on") than to assume that he has no more to say.

(c) Rather than give direct advice the interviewer should aim at presenting pertinent considerations to assist the interviewee in arriving at his own decisions. Even where the interviewer favours one particular solution or where he has the responsibility for ensuring a particular course is adopted, he should attempt to make the individual feel that he has reached this conclusion himself without undue pressure.

17. Many interviews are spoilt and the opportunity for obtaining interesting disclosures lost because the interviewer is too keen to get on to his next point or has failed to notice the significant hesitation or avoidance. A boy will usually find it difficult to come to the point of what is causing him trouble particularly if others are concerned; he has to screw up his resolution and he is easily deterred or deflected from his course. If you don't make it easy for him you will not get the disclosure.

18. The besetting sin of the interviewer is to talk too much. There are many reasons for garrulity. The interviewer may be enamoured of the sound of his own voice, pleased with his own fluency or anxious to impress the interviewee with his knowledge. Whatever the reason the result is at best to bemuse and at worst to benumb the interviewee who withdraws into his shell and takes refuge in monosyllables - when he has the chance. Remember that among your objects is to get information from the boy and to obtain his co-operation. You can almost measure the latter by the amount of talking that he has done. You are at least sure that he will go away from the interview feeling that he has had a chance to talk to you.

19. Perhaps the surest way to dry up the flow of confidences is to pass moral judgments before the whole tale has been told. "That was a bad thing to do" or other interjections of shock or disapproval produces the reaction "Its no use; nobody even tries to understand. People's minds are made up before you start - its easiest and safest to say nothing". This attitude renders co-operation virtually impossible and the interview has failed in at least one of its purposes. While listening one should give the impression of being open minded and suspending judgment. One should also seem understanding enough not to be easily shocked or disconcerted. Even though a boy's story may seem revolting, revulsion should not be shown.

Apprentice Skiffle Group.

Locking, December 1957.

20. All this does not mean that the Flight Commander should not
stand for certain moral principles, or that he must be neutral
between right and wrong.   Far from it.   But while he is in an
interview listening to the story told him by one of his boys he should
be suspending judgment and belief until the story is told and he has
thought it over.

21. One of the most strictly enforced of the rules of legal evidence
is that against leading questions.   The danger of a leading question
is twofold (i) it tells the witness what answer the counsel wants and
(ii) it may suggest to the witness an entirely new interpretation of
the facts which would distort and colour his account of them.   While
there is no reason at all to apply the legal rules of evidence to
the conduct of the interview the dangers of leading questions remain,
that they obstruct the eliciting of the true facts.   Once again the
object of questions is to obtain the facts as they appear to the
interviewee not to obtain his assent at that stage to the
interpretation put on them by the interviewer.   Later, as a way
of dealing with the situation once the facts have been established
the Flight Commander may well aim to get the boy to see things in
his way.   In establishing the facts of a situation "what happened?"
is always a better question to begin with than "Did so and so
happen?".

22. We have devoted considerable space to discussing interviewing
faults.   This by no means implies that interviews given now are all
faulty.   But all interviewers should take the first opportunity
to record one of their actual interviews and listen to it.   There is
none of us who could not benefit from this.

COUNSELLING

23. Counselling is a very wide topic, too wide to be treated in a
chapter of this kind and no amount of talk or writing can take the
place of actual experience.   Nevertheless, we offer a few pointers
to guide the new Flight Commander.

24. The basis of good counselling is accurate and patient
establishing of all the facts.   The changes are that the trouble or
difficulty or whatever it is will have been brought to the Flight
Commander either by the boy himself who is a vitally interested party
or by someone else who is either an interested party himself or in
only partial possession of the facts.   A good deal of patient
delving may be needed before all the relevant facts are obtained.
The boy may be reluctant to admit some facts or even to admit to
himself that they are relevant.   Likewise others through grievance
or prejudice may already have decided what is the truth and have
discarded as irrelevant those aspects which conflict with their
opinion.

25. It is often extremely difficult to disentangle the "occasion" from the true "cause" of a misdemeanour or breakdown. For example a boy may go absent immediately after a rebuke from his sergeant about lateness on parade, or bad kit, or other relatively minor infraction. This is the "occasion" for his absence. It is highly improbable that this was the major cause of his absence. Unhappiness due to difficulties at home or in the neighbourhood or with his fellow trainees is a far more likely cause, the rebuke acting as a last straw. This example may be trivial and easy to disentangle; some cases are more complex and more difficult, but if the Flight Commander is to help the boy he must unravel the threads of causation so that he is in a position of the physician who treats the disease rather than just the symptoms.

26. We shall enumerate the principal factors whose interplay results in the behaviour of the apprentice or boy entrant. Their order of importance will vary from one boy to another and in any particular situation one or more may be the determining factor or factors. These are :-

   (a) The boy's family circumstances which include his parents' attitudes to him and his attitudes towards them.

   (b) The boy's relationships with his fellows.

   (c) The boy's relationships with people in authority including the Flight Commander himself.

   (d) The boy's sex life - attachments to and attitudes towards a girl friend or girl friends.

   (e) The boy's interests and attitudes to work, sports, etc., his own wishes and desires.

   (f) The regulations, restrictions and coercions present in Service life to the extent that these are not already covered under (b) and (c) above.

27. The essence of trouble is conflict - conflict between pressures exerted on the boy or between outside pressure and inner desire. The Flight Commander has made the first important step towards helping the boy when he has located accurately the point of conflict. An accurate diagnosis is essential to a lasting cure. True, but have we anything to say about the cure?

28. In the easiest case the boy is unaware of the true source of his difficulty and the revelation of it to him effects a solution because the boy's attitude to his difficulties is changed by the knowledge of their true nature. We can, however, expect few such simple and spectacular solutions. In many cases a solution can come only from a change in a boy's attitude to others or of the

attitudes of others to him, or both.   In other cases a change is
needed in the boy's attitude to work or to the Service in general;
it is rare, however, that this is not connected with his attitude
to others and theirs to him.   In yet other cases the boy is a
victim to circumstances completely beyond his control often involving
very real deprivations.   Here the only possible help may consist
of lending support and encouragement to withstand the blows of
misfortune.   Even this can be very important.   The very fact that
there is someone who will listen to his problem with sympathy and
understanding allows the boy to bring it into the open.   As we
mentioned earlier in this chapter, very often this will do much to
lessen his emotional tension and the crippling feeling of isolation.

29.   There is no guarantee that a person's attitudes can be changed
even when they are based on false assumption or reflect false values.
They are more likely to change when the pressure to change comes from
a source that is seen as well disposed than from one seen as hostile.
The first step may well be to get the boy to see the true facts of
the case and the true nature of his attitudes and the reasons for
them.   To the extent that these attitudes are reactions against a
hostile environment or against fear of failure they are unlikely to
yield easily to rational persuasion.   Yet an attempt to make the
maintenance of these attitudes painful and expensive is only too
likely to lead to a war of attrition wearing to both sides and
possibly inconclusive.

30.   The most profitable first step is to get the boy to see that you
genuinely understand and feel his difficulty and are not interested
solely in passing moral judgment upon his part in them.   From this
beginning you may hope to get the boy to look upon you as
identifying yourself with him in arriving at a solution.   The
solution adopted is also more likely to work if it is seen as his
solution arrived at with your help rather than as your solution.
The Flight Commander must approach the situation all the time from
the point of view of "What are we going to do about this?" rather
than "What are you going to do about this?".

31. Fortunately the Flight Commander does not stand alone in his
relationship with his boys.   Others with special knowledge or
general experience and with interest in the boys are available
and should be eager to assit.   The Squadron Commander, the Padre,
the Medical Officer, the Flight N.C.O. and in some cases the N.C.O.
apprentice or other apprentices can be of great help.   It is
noteworthy that in response to a questionnaire apprentices stated
that they would take their troubles to (i) Padre (ii) Best Friend
(iii) Flight Commander (in order of frequency of response).

32. If in this chapter attention has been focussed on the
difficulties and pitfalls of the job rather than on its satisfact-
ions and rewards, and in a manual of this kind, this is possibly
unavoidable, the latter should not be overlooked.   Few efforts, in
fact, are more rewarding than helping an individual overcome his
difficulties and problems.

33. <u>Interviewing</u>   Flight Commanders should have special
interview times and also be available in an emergency which can
arise very easily where adolescents are concerned.

Interviews have four objects:-

(a)   To obtain information

(b)   To impart information

(c)   To change attitudes

(d)   To counsel.

The interviewer should know what he intends to achieve and should
prepare by having a plan in mind as well as prepare materially.
The interviewer must :-

(a)   be plain

(b)   listen

(c)   lead the interviewee to participate in the real
business of the interview.

Eliciting the true facts of any situation must come before decision
and requires skilled listening.

34. <u>Counselling</u>   The counsellor first brings to the surface the real
basis of difficulty or conflict.   In a few cases this is enough to
resolve the difficulty.   More often changes in attitude must be
developed.   Even when no more can be done the boy will get
satisfaction and help from knowing he is not facing his problems
alone.   In counselling the Flight Commander can call on many
services for willing help.

A BRIEF NOTE ON THE APPRENTICE AND BOY ENTRANT SCHEMES

1.   When the School of Technical Training (Men) was established
at Halton in 1917 to co-ordinate the technical training of all
personnel for the R.F.C., it included a boys' Training Depot.
Other schools were opened for a year or so at Eastchurch and
Letchworth.   From these beginnings Lord Trenchard conceived and
planned the R.A.F. Aircraft Apprentice Scheme (initially apprentices
were called "Boy Mechanics" and the early entries nicknamed "Brats").
In June 1919 it was proposed that, as far as possible, all technical
trades should be filled by recruiting boys between the ages of 15 and
16 who would require workshop training together with general and
technical education.   In seeking the co-operation of the Local
Education Authorities to enlist boys, it was stated that those who
did not re-engage after their 10 years regular service would leave
the R.A.F. well equipped for a successful career in civil life.

2.   This undertaking has been repeated from time to time: thus in
1939 the then D.E.S. wrote to the Chief Education Officer of
Birmingham "We have always held the view, which has been accepted
by Nominating Authorities since the inception of the scheme, that
boys who enter the Royal Air Force as apprentices before reaching the
age of 16 years are not prematurely withdrawn from the benefits of
secondary education.   It is considered that the three years training
they receive at the Apprentices' Schools is comparable, although
perhaps of a more specialised type, with that which they would receive
at a good Technical School, and entry into the Service as an
apprentice therefore represents a transfer from one school to
another".   To-day selected apprentices can obtain the Ordinary
National Certificate, the Final and Intermediate levels of the City
and Guilds of London or the G.C.E. 'O' level in selected subjects or,
for the exceptional, a G.C.E. "A" level in mathematics is possible;
and all are required to pass definite educational 'hurdles' each
year in order to continue training.   The original promise is thus
fulfilled.

3.   The first entry of boys recruited in 1920 was sent to a newly
formed Boys' Wing at Cranwell, Halton receiving its first entry under
the new scheme (but now termed Aircraft Apprentices) in 1922.
Apart from a short lived move of one of the Halton Wings to Cosford,
when that station was first opened in 1938, Cranwell (Locking since
1951) and Halton have been the homes of apprentice training and are
steeped in tradition.   To quote Air Ministry Pamphlet 339 (made
available to all applicants for apprenticeships) a foreword addressed
to parents states "The term 'Halton Trained' has long been accepted
as a symbol of all that is best in craftmanship and in character.
Although Apprentice training is not now confined to Halton, this
tradition, of which we are justly proud, will continue".

4.   Just as the educational side of training has developed to meet the needs of a changing Air Force in a changing Britain, technical training has also kept pace.   Early entries were trained as fitters, carpenters, riggers, coppersmiths and turners and passed out Leading Aircraftmen.   In this age of jets and electronics, the apprentice passes out as a junior technician in the advanced trades of engine, aircraft, radar, wireless, electrical, instrument or armament fitter and, in the future, it is proposed to recruit and train a "super apprentice", a diagnostician and trouble-shooter who will be called a systems engineer or systems technician.   Whereas the early entries had to be craftsmen capable of making a new part for a replacement on an aircraft in the desert, emphasis is now on the technical know-how needed to find which component of a complicated circuit or array has failed at 50,000 feet.

5.   The forerunner of the administrative apprentice was the "apprentice clerk", first introduced in 1925.   Unlike the present fulltime course of 20 months after which the successful apprentice passes out as a junior technician in the advanced trade of pay accountant, clerk secretarial or Supplier I and with two subjects at G.C.E. 'O' level, the apprentice clerk had a rigorous training "on the job".   By day, except for a few periods a week on education and drill, he was a working member in one of the divisions of the Record Office.   Trade training and instruction were given at night. After World War II the current scheme was introduced and the school opened at St. Athan, moving to Hereford in 1954.   In January 1959 this school moved once again, this time to Bircham Newton, head-quarters of administrative training in the Royal Air Force.

6.   Proof of the pudding is in the eating.   The pre-war ex-aircraft apprentice became the backbone of the technical officer branch formed in 1938.   If he had not been there, trained and experienced, the rapid Air Force expansion just before and during the war might not have been possible.   Similarly, ex-apprentice clerks were commissioned to form the administrative nucleus of the war-time "Administrative and Special Duties" branch, the forerunner of the present Secretarial branch.   Ex-apprentices have reached air rank with high appointments in the Air Ministry and Command. Their record and their decorations speak for themselves.   To quote Halton's figures only: up to 1956, 5153 apprentices had been commissioned from the 23,883 who had passed out: 234 had been awarded cadetships between 1923 and 1958 and the 1,651 Honours and Awards include 1 Victoria Cross, 2 George Crosses, and a K.B.E. 12 foreign decorations have also been won.

7.   The Boy Entrant scheme, whose early intakes began training in 1934, was designed to be another source of long term regulars from boys not as well qualified educationally as the apprentices. Discontinued (as was recruitment for apprentice clerk) during World War II, the scheme was revived in 1947 and 1948 when successive intakes began training at Compton Bassett, Kirkham, Yatesbury and

Locking.   By 1953, all training was concentrated at Cosford.
By 1954, it was realised that the rapid growth in numbers had
created far too large a school and a second school (which took half
the Cosford trades) was opened at St. Athan.   At the beginning of
1959 with 11 trades at skilled level open to boy entrants and an
intake of up to 900 three times a year, a third school was needed
and the equipment and secretarial boys training moved to Hereford
to be followed later by the cooks.

8.   Outstanding boy entrants who so wish and who pass the requisite
examination may, during their first 9 months service, be recommended
for an aircraft or administrative apprenticeship and then appear
before an Induction Board for acceptance.   Such transfers average
30 to 40 per year.

9.   On successful completion of their 18 months training, boy
entrants are qualified educationally for future promotion to Corporal
and by trade test for the rank of senior aircraftman which they are
granted when they have served for a minimum of six months on an R.A.F.
station and are more than $17\frac{1}{2}$ years old.   After service as a
mechanic, ex-boy entrants in trade groups I to IV become eligible for
recommendation for advanced training to convert to fitter.   In a
survey in late 1956 and early 1957, it was found that, of those ex-
boy entrants going forward, the average time taken by them to become
junior technicians was three years eight months after attestation
and that 20% were taking less than three years.   After qualification
as junior technician the ex-boy entrant is eligible for similar
advancement and promotion as the ex-apprentice.

10.   This brief note on some aspects of the apprentice and boy
entrant schemes is not intended to be very comprehensive.   The new
Flight Commander will find historical surveys and other material
readily to hand at the school he has joined.   At the apprentice
school he should read back numbers of the Halton Magazine and the
Locking Review and all should make themselves familiar with the Air
Ministry booklets "Highway for Youth" (on the life of an apprentice)
and "A Boy Entrant in the Royal Air Force".   First printed in 1957
and well produced with a photograph on every page they describe in
recruiting terms the broad prospects together with more detailed
and colourful descriptions of each trade group.   Air Ministry
Pamphlets 339, "A Career as an Apprentice in the Royal Air Force"
and 340 "A Career as a Boy Entrant" gives a comprehensive summary
of conditions of entry and service (career prospects, trade groups
and trades, training, general welfare and prospects of commissioning
or becoming aircrew).   All will have been well studied by boys and
their parents;   indeed they will be the principal source of
background knowledge of the life expected by the majority of the
newly joined.   The first page in each pamphlet is a notice to
parents.   Part of this notice in the apprentice pamphlet has
already been quoted.   Both contain the following sentences:
"It is natural that parents should wish to be satisfied not only

that their son will receive an excellent technical training but also that his character will develop along lines they would wish ...... The syllabus and training are designed to ensure that both technical training and character development keep pace with increasing maturity ...... completes his training as a responsible and valuable citizen". Each finishes "The task of teaching and guiding young men is an exacting one, but there is none which gives greater satisfaction. The Officers and N.C.Os. at the school have been carefully selected and there is a wealth of experience from which they can draw. They will be proud to train your boy and are confident you will share their pride in the result".

11. A prospectus of this kind aimed to attract boys and their parents is bound to be couched in glowing terms. Nevertheless we cannot afford to allow reality to diverge far from this ideal. The Flight Commander together with his colleagues in the technical and educational branches owes to his Service as much as to his superiors and to the boys in his charge his wholehearted effort. To be proud of the boys in your flight; that is a worthy aim and to supplement it is your pride in upholding and advancing a worthy tradition.

THE EDUCATIONAL, FAMILY AND SOCIAL BACKGROUNDS OF

APPRENTICES AND BOY ENTRANTS

INTRODUCTION

1.   Any instructor ought to have a clear understanding of the sort of people he is called upon to teach.   He needs to know not only what their backgrounds are, but also to what extent and in what ways their backgrounds influence their ability to adapt themselves to their training.   No where is this knowledge more important than where one is dealing with adolescents, for it is here that faulty decisions are likely to have the most far reaching consequences.

2.   Many of the staff of the R.A.F. youth schools start without the advantage of previous experience of youth training, and in the relatively short period they can expect to be doing this work, have all too little opportunity to acquire the necessary experience. Our aim here is to provide factual information which will go some way to reducing this handicap.

3.   What sort of boy joins the R.A.F. as an apprentice or boy entrant?   Does he start his training with a view to furthering his education or does he look to the Service as a means of escape from the classroom?   Has he enjoyed the advantages of a happy home life, or does he come into the Service because he feels he is not wanted, or himself no longer wishes to stay at home?   Has he used his leisure time profitably or frittered it away?   These and similar questions form the subject matter of the present appendix.

EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND

4.   There are substantial differences in the training of boy entrants and apprentices particularly on the academic and technical sides.   Although there is some overlap in the ability of boys accepted for boy entrants and apprentice training, essentially the two schemes cater for boys of different educational levels.   This is reflected in the proportion of boys from different types of schools making up the two populations.

5.   The bulk of the boy entrant population is drawn from Secondary Modern Schools.   Approximately 75% of boy entrants have had a secondary modern education, a further 13% have been to Grammar Schools, and 8% to Technical Schools, the remaining 4% have been to schools which cannot be classified under these three main types. Almost all the boys (96%) have left school on or just after their 15th birthday.

6.   A far higher proportion of the apprentices have had a grammar school or technical education.   Slightly more than 40% come from grammar schools and 30% from technical schools.   The number of

secondary modern school boys is down to 26%.   The remainder come
from public schools (1%), private schools and comprehensive schools.

7.   As would be expected a boy's intelligence is closely related to
the type of school he has attended.   Amongst the apprentices for
instance, 53% of the grammar school boys are found in the top two
intelligence levels, whereas only 22% of boys from secondary modern
schools are rated as highly.   Boys from technical schools fall
roughly mid-way between the two.

8.   The pattern of school interests of boys coming into the Service,
particularly as boy entrants, shows a strong bias in favour of
practical as opposed to more theoretical subjects.   The majority of
boy entrants have developed little interest in academic subjects at
school.   Their strong preference is for activities involving some
skill of hand, such as woodwork, metalwork or leathercraft.   This
desire to do things, rather than to think or write about them, is
closely bound up with the boys' desire to learn a skilled trade.
We shall have more to say about this in the chapter dealing with
the reasons which prompt boys to join the Service.   Although less
marked, a similar bias is evident amongstthe apprentices.

9.   This somewhat negative attitude to education is also reflected
in the small number of boys who have taken steps to continue their
studies after leaving school.   Only about 15% of the boy entrants
have voluntarily taken any course of instruction at night school.
A further 7% went to night school only because attendance was
insisted upon in connection with their jobs.   Where attendance
was voluntary most boys had chosen courses with obvious practical
applications or some handicraft.   The fact that many boy entrants
and apprentices are glad to turn their backs on their schooldays
and tend to see their entry into the Service as symbolic of a
change in status, should not be allowed to obscure the real interest
many have in their trade training, particularly where they feel
this training is fitting them for an adult role.

10.   In coming into the Service some boys have realised their life's
ambition.   But while some boys have decided on a service career
long before they leave school, others reach this decision only
after they have had some experience of jobs outside the Service.
40% of the boy entrants come into the Service straight from school,
a further 48% have had one job and the remaining 12% two or more
jobs before entry.   Of the apprentices 70% come straight from
school, 25% have had one job and 5% two or more.   The fact that
more apprentices than boy entrants come straight from school is
largely associated with the later school leaving age of apprentices.
Unlike the boy entrants, almost all of whom leave school at 15,
a number of the apprentices are still at school when they become
eligibleto apply to come into the Service.   The relative standing
of the apprentice and boy entrant schemes probably also has a part

to play in this.   Whereas an R.A.F. apprenticeship has a positive
attraction for many boys, few are as keen to join as a boy entrant
unless they have experienced difficulty in getting a skilled trade
in civilian life.

11. As far as training results are concerned, there is little
difference between a boy entrant who comes into the Service straight
from school and one who has previously held a job.   Boys in both of
these groups, however, have a greater chance of success than boys
who have   a history of two or more jobs before coming into the
Service.   Where a boy has had a number of jobs his attitude to
them has an important bearing on his ability to succeed in the
Service.   Boys who were very dissatisfied with the prospects their
civilian jobs offered are more likely to do well than boys who were
less disgruntled.   A boy is less likely to make a success of boy
entrant training not so much because he has changed his job several
times in an attempt to better himself, but rather because he has
drifted aimlessly from one job to another;   more interested in the
pay and other compensations for the work he is expected to do, than
in the work itself or the prospects it offers.

12.   This relationship between training results and number of jobs
held does not apply in the case of the apprentices.   There is a
suggestion, however, that the apprentice with a history of job
changes experiences greater difficulty in accepting Service
discipline.   Apprentices who have had two or more civilian jobs
commit more than their share of offences.

FAMILY BACKGROUND

13.   Most new apprentices and boy entrants are leaving home for the
first time.   Whether they can adapt themselves to this new life
will largely depend on their family background.   Although the urge
to break away from the semi-passive family relationship and achieve
a more independent way of life is characteristic of the adolescent,
he does not find it easy to surrender the protection and security
the home affords.   To make this process of psychological weaning
as painless as possible, one must know to what extent he is being
helped or hindered by home influences.   Many educational difficulties
and problems of social adaptation become understandable only when
the pattern of relationships a boy has known are appreciated.

14.   Approximately three quarters of both the apprentices and the boy
entrants have had normal home backgrounds.   A normal home here
means one where both parents are alive and are living together.
Directly comparable figures for the adolescent population of this
country as a whole are not easily come by.   The evidence that
exists suggests that the number of apprentices and boy entrants
from normal homes is, if anything, rather more than one would expect.
Certainly the boy entrant and apprentice schemes do not attract
an undue proportion of boys with disrupted home backgrounds.

15. What sort of influence does a boy's background have on his ability to adapt himself to life in the Service? It must be remembered that the answer we can give to this question is conditioned by the definition of a "normal home" that has been used. Although in a statistical sense it is true that boys from broken homes are more likely to experience emotional problems than those from normal homes, it by no means follows that all boys whose family life has not been disrupted by death or divorce have back-grounds conducive to their favourable development. The way we have defined a normal home tends to play down the effects of a boy's background on his ability to settle down in the Service.

16. Family background plays a particularly important part in determining a boy's personal and social adjustment. As far as coping with the academic and technical aspects of training are concerned boys from normal homes have little advantage over the rest. The latter, however, are more likely to present a disciplinary problem, committing more and more serious offences. Again, and this applies particularly in the case of boy entrants, boys from broken homes are more likely to report sick with some form of psychosomatic disorder than are boys from normal homes. There is no difference between the groups with regard to other types of sickness. Psychosomatic disorder here means a complaint where the medical officer concerned could find no adequate organic disturbance to account for the symptoms reported, and regarded them as largely psychological in origin; sick headaches, vague aches and pains and nervous dermatitis are typical examples. Another difficulty experienced by the boy from a broken home is in developing satisfying personal relationships with other boys. In general boys from normal homes are more popular than boys with less stable backgrounds.

17. Delinquency, sickness and social inadequacy, all of these can stem from an unfortunate home background with the heightened insecurity this implies.

18. The size of family a boy comes from does not affect his chances of getting through the course. There is a tendency, however, for boys from large families (3 or more children in the family) to commit fewer offences while under training, than boys from smaller families. Although a boy's position in the family does not influence his training results it does have a bearing on whether he is likely to come into the Service at all. Both the apprentice and the boy entrant schemes attract many more eldest than youngest children (over 40% are eldest children, 20% youngest). A possible explanation of this tendency is that where financial considerations make it necessary for one member of the family to leave home and fend for himself, the eldest boy is the person most likely to be affected. By the time the youngest member of the family reaches school leaving age, it is likely that the family will be in a rather better financial position with the result that he will receive much less encouragement to leave home.

19.   There are wide differences in the manner in which parents deal
with their children.   The attitudes of parents to their children
and the patterns of authority they adopt reflect not only their
beliefs and understanding of children but also their satisfactions
and frustrations.   The adolescent is likely to make adequate
personal and social adjustments to the extent that his needs for
affection, security, status and belongingness are satisfied.   The
satisfaction of these needs will depend on the attitudes of the
parents even more than on their education, the size of the family
or the socio-economic level.   We have previously mentioned that
boys from broken homes tend to be insecure and to have problems
of adjustment.   One of the reasons for this is that the pattern
of authority in such homes makes it very much more difficult for
the individual to achieve any real degree of independence.   Where
for instance the parent who controls the household is the mother -
(this may be due to the break up of the marriage or to the fact
that she provides the family with most of its economic support) -
the chances are that the children will be overprotected, either
through excessive solicitude on her part or by undue control of
their activities.   Overprotection is likely to result in the child
being shy and retiring and may lead to general social inadequacy.

20.   A large number of boys coming into the Service have backgrounds
characterised by a markedly permissive atmosphere in the home, with
the mother often playing the dominant role.   This indulgent
approach is reflected in the discipline they had been subjected to,
the responsibilities they were given and the decisions they were
allowed to make for themselves.

21.   Strict discipline tends to be the exception rather than the
rule.   Approximately one third of the boys claimed that they were
very rarely punished for misdemeanours, if they were punished at
all.   Only about 10% had been given a definite code of what they
could and could not do which was consistently enforced.   Few had
been given any domestic responsibilities.   Almost a third of the
boys neither helped nor were expected to help, with household
chores.   There is a suggestion that where a boy has been given some
definite domestic responsibility his chances of getting through his
training are increased.   Again, boys were allowed considerable
latitude in the time they were expected in at night.   Few boys had
to be in before 10.30 p.m. and roughly a third were allowed out
well after this hour, some until past midnight.   A surprising
number of parents held no very decided views even on such an
important question as whether a boy should make a career in the
Service.   Almost half the boys were allowed to make up their own
minds, their parents neither advising them on their choice of
career nor opposing them when they had made their decision.
Parents were even less forthcoming on the question of the trade
their sons should adopt.   One should not assume however that
parents who had little to say about their son's choice of career
are less likely to be critical of the way that career progresses.

SOCIAL BACKGROUND

22.   Although an adolescent's social adequacy is more likely to be influenced by the pattern of relationships in his family than by its social status,the latter, nevertheless, has a part to play in determining his interests, aspirations and social skills.   The way a boy is likely to spend his spare time and the importance he attaches to various types of achievement are largely dictated by his social background.   Working class parents are less likely than middle class parents to have organised and supervised their sons' use of free time.   They also differ in their attitude to education. Working class parents tend to be much less anxious that their children should do well at school and lay greater stress on the importance of getting a job and accepting financial responsibility. Again, the attitude of working class parents to their sons' relationships with girls tends to be more tolerant and permissive than that of middle class parents.

23.   The extent to which the values encouraged by the Service coincide or conflict with those a boy has learnt at home has considerable bearing on the amount of effort a boy will put into their achievement.   A Flight Commander is helped in his task if he knows where home influences will support and where they will obstruct his efforts.

24.   A good indication of the socio-economic status of a boy's family is provided by his father's occupation.   This information is used in the Hall-Jones Social Status Scale which identifies seven status grades with seven broad classes of occupation.   These range from professional and high administrative at the top to unskilled manual at the bottom.   Between these extremes come managerial and executive occupations (Grade 2), Supervisory higher grade (3), Supervisory lower grade (4), Skilled manual and routine non manual (5), and semi-skilled manual (Grade 6).   Roughly speaking grades 4 and 5 correspond to the lower middle class, grades 6 and 7 to the working class.   For simplicity and ease of reference, these groupings will be adopted here.

25.   By far the majority of apprentices come from lower middle class homes.   58% of the apprentices have a lower middle class background.   22% have a working class background, and 10% come from middle class homes.   The remaining 10% are drawn from families where the father is an officer or N.C.O. in one of the Armed Services. The proportion of boy entrants with working class backgrounds is almost twice as great.

26.   As far as ability to adapt to life as an apprentice is concerned, it does not seem that any one social class has a decided advantage. Boys with lower middle class backgrounds are less likely to be popular with their fellows, contribute rather more than their share of the lower intelligence grades and tend to commit a larger number

of offences whilst under training than do boys with middle or
working class backgrounds.   On the other hand boys from working
class homes are less likely to have high Service morale and are
more likely to report sick than the others.

27.   Even a boy with a Service background who might be expected to
have greater knowledge of all that life in the Service entails has
few advantages.   He tends to have higher Service morale than others,
particularly those with working class backgrounds, but he is also
more liable to report sick.   He impresses other apprentices as a
potential leader noticeably less than do boys with different social
backgrounds.   Not only are boys with Service backgrounds less likely
to be seen by their peers as suitable for promotion, their chances
of actually being promoted tend to be smaller.

28.   Boys' choice of amusements are considerably influenced by their
social background.   More often than not boys coming into the Service,
particularly as boy entrants, have made little constructive use of
their free time in civilian life.   Relatively few have any marked
enthusiasm for sport.   Even if one takes a very generous view of
participation, less than half the boys have regularly taken part in
any sport.   The Service undoubtedly attaches considerable importance
to sport both from the point of view of developing character and
inculcating team spirit.   It is worth remembering, however, that
often boys coming into the Service have received little encourage-
ment to develop their interest and ability in this field.   The
strongest attraction is undoubtedly the cinema.   Over half the boys
were used to going to the pictures at least twice a week, and not
infrequently three or four times.   Cinema attendance tends to be
rather more marked amongst boys with working class background and of
relatively limited ability.

29.   Although so young, a number of boys have regular girl friends
when they come into the Service.   Amongst the boy entrants for
instance, roughly a quarter have a girl friend at home, who often
has been introduced to the boy's parents and accepted by them.
This is particularly true of working class families.   Boy entrants
who have had girl friends, and have been used to going to dances,
are rather less likely to complete their course successfully, than
are boys without these interests.   In the eyes of many boys going
to dances and having girl friends is associated with the idea of
being 'grown up'.   The fact that opportunities for such social
activity occur infrequently, if at all, during training, is seen as
a refusal on the part of the authorities to recognise the boys'
adult status.   The resulting frustration is reflected in their
training results.

30.   The number of boys who have been active members of hobbies or
social clubs before coming into the Service is not large.   Slightly
less than half have at any time been a member of a club and many
fewer have been regular attenders for any continuous period.   Where

a boy has interested himself in club activities, however, he seems better prepared to accept Service discipline; club members are less likely than other boys to break rules and regulations whilst under training, 34% of club members had blank crime sheets as against 24% of the non-club members.

31. Although a large range of hobbies is catered for at R.A.F. schools of youth training, relatively few boys avail themselves of these facilities. At Halton for instance, something between 11% and 14% of the boys are active members of the hobbies clubs affiliated to the Halton Society. With the exception of one or two activities with particular, strong appeal, such as motor racing, club membership is confined to boys who had hobbies before they came into the Service. Generally speaking the Halton Society serves to sustain interests which already exist rather than to create new ones. This lack of response on the part of the boys is a source of considerable disappointment to the staff, but this can be seen in better perspective when compared with the interest shown in such activities by adolescents as a whole. Although directly comparable figures for adolescents in this country are not readily obtainable, the evidence suggests that the number of boys who spend their time in group activities is almost certainly less than 10%. Attendance at the Halton Society clubs is not extraordinarily low. This is not to say that the position should give rise to complacency. There is every need to encourage boys to spend their leisure hours constructively and creatively. But there should be no facile assumptions about the magnitude of the task. Only exceptionally have boys established hobbies before they come into the Service; more often the process of developing such interests has to start from scratch. About half the boys have had definite hobbies, but few have devoted much time to them.

SUMMARY

32. <u>Education</u> Three quarters of the boy entrants and one quarter of the apprentices are from secondary modern schools. Few of the former have remained at school after 15. 70% of apprentices and 40% of boy entrants come straight from school. Few have academic interests.

33. <u>Family</u> Three quarters of apprentices and boy entrants come from normal homes. This is higher than the national average. Boys with disturbed home backgrounds have greater difficulty in adjusting to the social sides of life at Youth Schools.

34. <u>Hobbies</u> Although attendance at the clubs provided by the apprentice and boy entrant schools is disappointingly low, it is comparable with civilian experience. Boys who have formed the clubbing habit before entry are the mainstay of such clubs as the Halton Society.

REASONS FOR JOINING THE AIR FORCE :   SELECTION AND INDUCTION

REASONS FOR JOINING THE AIR FORCE

1.   It is easy to entertain quite inaccurate illusions as to the motives which impel boys to join the Royal Air Force as apprentices or boy entrants and the views frequently expressed have no firmer basis than a chat with a few unrepresentative boys or even more flimsy evidence.   In the next few paragraphs we shall present the results of a survey aimed at establishing the boys' motives.

2.   A questionnaire was given to all the candidates on an apprentice Induction Board in May 1957, and repeated a few weeks later at the boy entrants Board.   The questionnaire covered all remotely likely reasons for joining, and boys were asked to pick the five reasons in order of choice that applied to them most, and also to choose the three reasons that least applied to them.   Analysis of the answers showed that there were five main reasons.   Over half the boys gave as their principal reason the wish "to learn a technical trade". This reason received three times as many choices as the next which was "a good chance to get on in life".   A bad third, with less than 8% came "the chance to become aircrew", followed by "to work on aircraft", and fifthly, "the hope of a cadetship".   Virtually no boy joined because of his parents' wishes or because of encourage-ment of friends or relatives in the Air Force.

3.   When account was taken of second, third, fourth and fifth choices, "work on aircraft", "good promotion prospects" and "the opportunity to travel" achieved more prominence.   Far the most common pattern of reasons can however be summarised as "the chance to learn a technical trade working on aircraft and with good prospects".

4.   The question "which reasons apply least to you" gave an opportunity to boys to express socially approved attitudes but there is no reason to suppose that they were not honestly held.   "You won't have to work so hard", sometimes mentioned by re-enlisting airmen, was put in bottom place by three quarters of the boys. Other reasons strongly rejected were "the chance to get away from home" and "to get a job from which you cannot be sacked".

5.   The social and educational background from which the boys come is generally that in which a technical training and particularly an apprenticeship carries considerable prestige.   Many who apply are boys who could otherwise probably not obtain an apprenticeship

or any progressive technical job, and it is not surprising that they put technical training at the top of the list of motives. Moreover, this does mean that those responsible for them cannot presume their keenness for the Air Force and for Service life. These have to be inculcated with care and by example.

6.   To summarise: the average candidate for aircraft apprentice (age between 16 and 16½) joins the Air Force to learn a technical trade working on aircraft in a job with good prospects.   He welcomes the opportunity to travel and the comradeship of Service life and is moderately attracted by other Air Force amenities (sports, welfare, good pay).   A proportion, perhaps 1 in 12, hope to become aircrew eventually, while a smaller proportion have their sights fixed on a cadetship.   He is too near his school days for the many contacts of Air Force life or the generous leave allowance to have much impact and he would appear to claim that he is not joining through the encouragement of parents, friends or relatives or because there was no suitable job at home;   and he is very emphatic that he is not after a safe, easy job in uniform involving his leaving home.

7.   The boy entrant answers gave almost the same result.   The leading reasons were in the same order although the gap between the first two was smaller and the spread was a little greater.   40% plumped for learning a technical trade, and 25% for a good chance to get on in life.   This is perhaps, because the average candidate for boy entrant is six months younger than the aircraft apprentice candidate, has not as good an educational background   or attainment, has his sights fixed lower and has open to him far more non-technical trades.

APPRENTICES' HOME REGIONS

8.   As boys were predominately motivated by the desire for technical training we looked to see if the geographical areas from which they came could throw further light on their motives for joining.   It was possible that boys would tend to come mainly from regions where technical apprenticeships were hard to come by and that boys who come from those areas richer in opportunity would tend to be the less bright.

9.   The intelligence score and home area of 450 apprentices were recorded and these were compared with the proportionate yield from the area of deferred civil apprentices reporting to the Royal Air Force.   All areas were then put into three groups: Group 'A' with less than 1.8 deferred civil apprentices reporting per 10,000 population, Group 'B' with 1.9 to 2.9 and Group 'C' with 3.0 or more.

10. When these areas were compared in respect of the number of aircraft apprentices whose homes were in each, we found that Group 'C' gave the highest proportion of apprentices (12 per million), Group 'B' next (with 8 per million) and Group 'A' least (with 4 per million). There was little difference in average intelligence between apprentices from each of the groups. Moreover an outstanding feature of the analysis was the high yield of the naval dockyard areas of Southampton (which includes Portsmouth), Chatham and Plymouth, and of the Port of Bristol, all of which (except Chatham) are in Group 'C'.

11. The picture is a complex one but it would seem that aircraft apprentices tend to come from areas which have a strong tradition of Service sentiment or of civil apprenticeship or of both and that there is no truth in the assumption that those coming from areas rich in civil opportunity are the less bright.

SELECTION AND INDUCTION

12. Since 1951 Technical Training Command has been responsible for the induction of apprentices and boy entrants: that is for the acceptance of a boy into training and his allocation to a trade or for his rejection as unsuitable. To conform with civilian practice of recruiting as soon as possible after the end of each term in the school year, Boards are held in January, May and September at Halton for administrative and aircraft apprentices with the boy entrant boards at Cosford two or three weeks later.

PRE-SELECTION OF APPRENTICE CANDIDATES

13. Before being nominated by the Air Ministry for call forward to the Board, candidates for administrative and aircraft apprentice are selected by D.E.S. on the results of a qualifying examination held in the previous October, February and June at civilian centres by arrangement with Local Education Authorities. On their results in three papers set in English-General, Mathematics and Science (not taken by Admin. apprentices), candidates are placed in an order of merit and in Class I, Class II or Class III. Those placed in Class I have an aggregate of over 75%, Class II 50% with 50% in Maths., while Class III are considered worth "special consideration" yet have less than the required 50% in aggregate or in maths. Holders of G.C.E. 'O' level passes in the requisite subjects are exempt the examination and are known as 'direct entrant' candidates (their numbers vary from one to five per cent of the total number). "Service" candidates, who are sons of Service personnel or members of the A.T.C., are allowed to have five per cent less in reaching these standards. They comprise, on average, some forty per cent of the total numbers called to the Board.

14. At present all boys who apply to the Air Ministry before a closing date of four weeks prior to the Board are called forward: there is no qualifying examination.

PRE-SELECTION OF BOY ENTRANTS

15. Flight Commanders may expect to take part in the induction process as preliminary interviewers who are the first members of the Induction Board to see the candidates. Their task is to find out as much about the boys personal qualities, attitudes, background and personal history as they can. They are assisted by the filling of a comprehensive fact-finding form which is a biographical inventory and on which the candidate can nominate his first, second and third choice of trade.

16. The object of the interview is to obtain information from the boy. As already outlined in paragraphs 13 - 22 in Chapter VIII, such a link in the selection of apprentices and boy entrants has a skilled technique of its own. It is most important that time be spent in putting the boy at his ease so that he will be relaxed and communicative when the real business of the interview starts. The plan of the interview will be governed by the form filling but the aim should be for the boy to do most of the talking. By patient prompting and attentive listening to note the slightest hesitation or change in tone or expression, the interviewer must ensure that no significant disclosure or information is missed. Only then will he be able to give uniform assessment of the boy as a training risk.

17. Before being interviewed by a Panel President (who decides whether the boy's "character, personal qualities and attitude indicate that he will become a satisfactory airman"), candidates take tests R.C. 2 and R.C.3 for intelligence grading and mechanical and electrical aptitude tests as a guide in trade selection. Using these results together with the Preliminary Interviewers report and the marks and classes of the qualifying examination, the Panel President gives a careful interview to decide whether the boy is acceptable and to allocate him to a trade (which will be the trade of his first choice so long as it is considered the most suitable for him and if the manning target allows). If the Panel President thinks the boy unsuitable for apprentice training, he may offer him boy entrant training or recommend him for rejection, but all such boys must be referred to the Chairman of the Board for a final decision.

18. A boy entrant Induction Board works in just the same way except that, with the recent growth in the numbers of applicants, satisfactory grades in R.C.2 and R.C.3 and marks in elementary tests in Calculations and English must be obtained. These tests are taken first and act as a pre-selection filter. Boys not reaching the necessary standard are rejected.

19. The Induction Boards' dilemma has always been to reconcile quantity with quality, to fill the manning quotas yet not accept dubious training risks. In the past pressure on the Board to reach the needed manning figures resulted in few rejections, which was quickly reflected in the training wastage. Since January 1957, however, the number of applicants for both apprentice and boy entrant training has increased considerably with the upward trend persisting and it is probable that the lean years are over-temporarily at least - but it is difficult to forecast with any certainty. It is thought that the three main causes of the increase may be the effect of the bulge in the birthrate of 1943 - 1948 (which should last until 1964), the temporary slackening in industrial activity and, perhaps, the pay increase for the Services of 1957.

20. With these growing numbers the burden on all Youth Schools of staffing the Induction Boards and on Halton and Cosford of providing accommodation and administrative backing may become too great. Proposals have been made to relieve them of this burden.

Cyril Bibby	Health Education	Heinemann
J. Macalister- Brew	In the Service of Youth Informal Education	Faber & Faber Faber & Faber
E. McG. Eager, M.A.	Making Men	University of London Press
T. Ferguson & J. Cunnison	The Young Wage-Earner In Their Early Twenties	O.U.P. O.U.P.
C. Furth	Life since 1900	Allen & Unwin, 1956
C.A. Fleming	Adolescence – Its Social Psychology	Routledge & Kegan Paul
John Gittins	Approved School Boys	H.M.S.O.
M.E.M. Herford	Youth at Work	Max Parrish
Berger Hammarschlag	Journey into Fog	Gollancz
Sir Basil Henriques	Club Leadership	O.U.P.
R. Hoggart	The Uses of Literacy	Chatto & Windus
Pearl Jephcott	Some Young People	Allen & Unwin for the Jubilee Trust
Jordan & Fisher	Self Portrait of Youth	Heinemann
R. Keane	An Outline of Boys' Club Leadership	National Association of Boys' Clubs
Peter Kuenstler, M.A.	Voluntary Youth Leaders	O.U.P.
- do -	Social Group Work in Great Britain	Faber & Faber
Peter C. MacIntosh, M.A.	Physical Education in England since 1800	G. Bell & Son
A.C. Percival	Youth will be led	Collins
J.W.D. Pearce	Juvenile Delinquency	Cassells

Edward H. Patey	Religion in the Club	
S. Rowntree & Lavers	English Life and Leisure	Longmans, 1951
A.G. Rose	500 Borstal Boys	Oxford, 1954
J. Spencer	Crime in the Service	Routledge & Kegan Paul
J. H. Stott	Delinquency in Human Nature	Carnegie U.K. Trust
J.C. Trenaman	Out of Step	Methuen
W. D. Wall	The Adolescent Child	Methuen
John Wellens	Education and Training in Industry	
W.F. Whyte	Street Corner Society	University of Chicago Press

Citizens of To-morrow – the report issued by King George's Jubilee Trust published by Odhams Press Ltd., price 3/-d.

Graduation Parade, 80th entry.   Halton 1958.

Traditional mock parade held after the

prizegiving ceremony.