

Residential Schools for Handicapped Children

By

ELISE H. MARTENS

*Senior Specialist in the Education of
Exceptional Children*



BULLETIN 1939, No. 9

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR *Harold L. Ickes, Secretary*
OFFICE OF EDUCATION *J. W. Stuebaker, Commissioner*

UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE WASHINGTON : 1940

For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. Price 15 cents

Contents

| | Page |
|--|------|
| Acknowledgment of Photographs..... | iii |
| FOREWORD..... | v |
| CHAPTER I. Introduction..... | 1 |
| II. A Conference on Educational Problems of Residential Schools..... | 7 |
| III. Residential Schools for the Blind..... | 17 |
| IV. Residential Schools for the Deaf..... | 41 |
| V. Residential Schools for the Socially Maladjusted..... | 63 |
| VI. Residential Schools for the Mentally Deficient..... | 83 |

Acknowledgment of Photographs

The photographs of schools and school activities reproduced in this bulletin (including the cover picture) were all contributed by residential schools for handicapped children. The United States Office of Education is grateful for the cooperation of these schools and is pleased to acknowledge their courtesy, as follows:

Schools for the blind.—Connecticut Institute for the Blind, Hartford, Conn.; Instituto Puertorriqueno de Ninos Ciegos, Santurce, Puerto Rico; Kentucky School for the Blind, Louisville, Ky.; Michigan School for the Blind, Lansing, Mich.; Missouri School for the Blind, St. Louis, Mo.; New York Institute for the Education of the Blind, New York, N. Y.; New York State School for the Blind, Batavia, N. Y.; Ohio State School for the Blind, Columbus, Ohio; Oregon State School for the Blind, Salem, Oreg.; Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind, Overbrook, Philadelphia, Pa.; Perkins Institution and Massachusetts School for the Blind, Watertown, Mass.; Virginia School for the Deaf and the Blind, Staunton, Va.; Western Pennsylvania School for the Blind, Pittsburgh, Pa.; and Wisconsin School for the Blind, Janesville, Wis.

Schools for the deaf.—Florida School for the Deaf and the Blind, St. Augustine, Fla.; Illinois School for the Deaf, Jacksonville, Ill.; Indiana State School for the Deaf, Indianapolis, Ind.; Iowa School for the Deaf, Council Bluffs, Iowa; Lexington School for the Deaf, New York, N. Y.; Maryland State School for the Deaf, Frederick, Md.; New York School for the Deaf, New York, N. Y.; Reinhardt School for Deaf Children, Kensington, Md.; St. Joseph's School for the Deaf, New York, N. Y.; St. Mary's School for the Deaf, Buffalo, N. Y.; Territorial School for the Deaf and Blind, Honolulu, T. H.; and Virginia School for the Deaf and Blind, Staunton, Va.

Schools for the socially maladjusted.—Iowa Training School for Boys, Eldora, Iowa; Preston School of Industry, Waterman, Calif.; State Industrial School for Girls, Tecumseh, Okla.; State Training School, Red Wing, Minn.; State Training School for Girls, Birmingham, Ala.; The Children's Village, Dobbs Ferry, N. Y.; The Glen Mills Schools, Glen Mills, Pa.; Training School for Girls, Mitchellville, Iowa; and Virginia Industrial School for Colored Girls, Peaks Turnout, Va.

Schools for the mentally deficient.—Elwyn Training School, Elwyn, Pa.; Iowa State School, Glenwood, Iowa; Laconia State School,

¹ With the cooperation of the Works Progress Administration.

Laconia, N. H.; Lochland, Geneva, N. Y.; Mansfield State Training School and Hospital, Mansfield Depot, Conn.; Northern Wisconsin Colony and Training School, Chippewa Falls, Wis.; St. Coletta School, Jefferson, Wis.; Sonoma State School, Ebelridge, Calif.; Syracuse State School, Syracuse, N. Y.; Vineland State School, Vineland, N. J.; and Wayne County Training School, Northville, Mich.

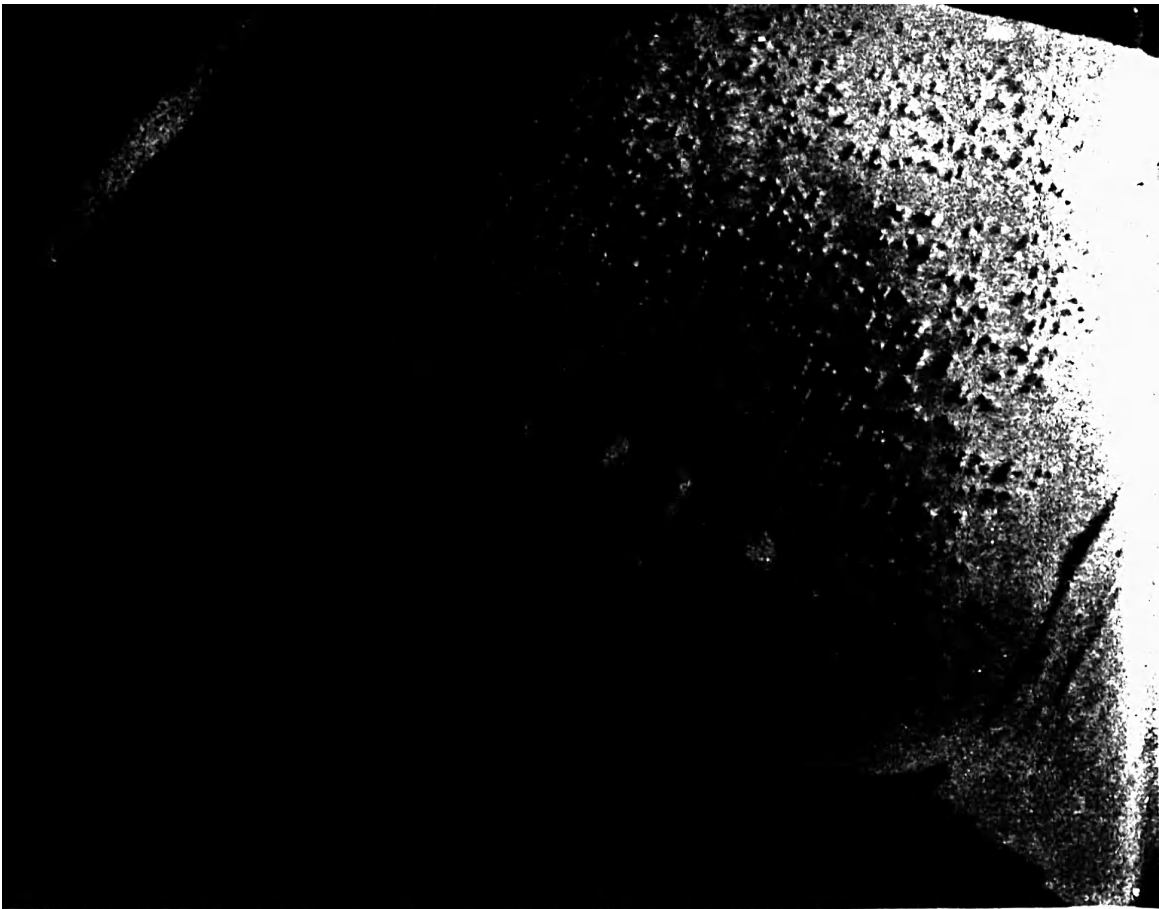
Foreword

RESIDENTIAL SCHOOLS for handicapped children are making a significant contribution to the education of those to whom heredity or environmental influences have not been altogether kind. Some of these children have been crippled in their capacities even before birth. Others have suffered injury at birth. Still others have in childhood experienced disease or accident, with its dread aftermath. Some have been without constructive guidance at home or school; and some, even with that guidance, have seemed to persist in ill-advised behavior. All such are potential charges of a residential school, and, if enrolled, their happy adjustment becomes its challenging responsibility.

In August 1938, the Commissioner of Education extended to every known residential school for blind, deaf, socially maladjusted, or mentally deficient children in the United States an invitation to contribute to the Office of Education material describing its activities for purposes of exhibit or use in publications. The response was most generous. From printed reports, typed manuscripts, letters, and photographs sent by many schools in answer to our invitation, the data were accumulated which constitute the source material of the major part of this bulletin. The Office of Education recognizes the services rendered by schools for handicapped children and takes pleasure in presenting to the educational world this account of some of the activities of which they may justly be proud. It must, of course, not be assumed that all residential schools are carrying on equally effective programs, nor, on the other hand, that the schools represented in the account here given are the only ones in which progressive practices are under way. The effort has been made, however, to select from the material contributed examples of such practices for whatever informative and suggestive value they may have.

There are in the United States and its outlying parts some 450 residential schools of the types being considered in this bulletin. A large number of these have shared in furnishing descriptive material for this specific project, and practically all of them have from time to time contributed statistical data and annual or biennial printed reports of their programs. To all who have cooperated in any way the Office of Education extends its cordial appreciation. We should like every superintendent and teacher contributing thought and time and material to accept a sincere "Thank you" given through this medium. It is hoped that the publication will arouse in the minds of educators everywhere, as well as of citizens at large whose attention may be called to it, a new interest in the programs of residential schools not only in their own States but in the entire Nation.

BESS GOODYKOONTZ,
Assistant U. S. Commissioner of Education.



Seeing hands' over the Braille page.

A mechanical aid helps this little girl to use all the hearing she has.



Chapter I: Introduction

DAY SCHOOL TEACHERS could do so much, particularly in rural districts of the State, to point parents of little blind children to the educational opportunities available at our School. Most teachers, however, know nothing of the program we offer, and some do not even know that such a school exists."

This was the recent comment of the superintendent of a State residential school for the blind. The unawareness of the existence of residential schools which he attributes to some day-school teachers is happily not a common occurrence. All too often, however, those whose work is entirely bound up with the public day schools of the Nation are in danger of overlooking or underestimating the services rendered by residential schools for handicapped children, and comparatively few take the time to familiarize themselves with the activities under way in such institutions.

These schools have a vital place in the educational program of the State, to be recognized, understood, and appreciated by parents and teachers alike. To be sure, they vary in the degree of efficiency with which they carry on their work, in the extent to which they adopt progressive educational practices, and in the qualifications of the teaching personnel. Their function is one of a highly specialized nature, and consideration for the handicap of the child must be given precedence over certain other items deemed essential in day-school programs. Yet the same general principles of educational method and psychology are applicable to residential and day schools alike, and one is frequently amazed at the results achieved in the lives of children so seriously handicapped as are those in our residential schools.

Types of Residential Schools

There are four groups of handicapped children for whom residential schools are generally considered indispensable. These are the blind, the deaf, the mentally deficient, and the socially maladjusted or juvenile delinquents. While each of these groups presents conditions and problems quite distinct from those of the other three, they are all marked by the common need of specialized guidance and adjusted educational procedures arising from a serious physical, mental, or emotional disability. To supply such a need is the function of the residential school.

Two other groups of handicapped children are found in a type of residential institution which has the double function of providing both hospitalization and education. These are (1) crippled children who are in need of hospital care,¹ and (2) epileptics, for whom long-continued treatment is important. Institutions of these types are much fewer in number than those more properly designated as "schools" for handicapped children. Many crippled children are treated in general hospitals or in children's hospitals, all too often without educational facilities. Many epileptics are found in institutions for the mentally deficient, although the trend is toward the establishment of separate facilities for them.

When the handicap is a double or a triple one, as, for example, in the case of the deaf-blind, the crippled-feeble-minded, or the deaf-blind-feeble-minded, the problem becomes increasingly complicated. Such children are in extreme need of highly specialized care. Units for the deaf-blind are found in a few of the schools for the deaf and the blind, notably at Perkins Institution and Massachusetts School for the Blind and at the New York Institute for the Education of the Blind. Children who are seriously defective both mentally and physically are usually sent to an institution for the feeble-minded, although some schools for the deaf and the blind make special provision for children who are classified mentally as morons or border-line cases.

Number of Schools

In 1936 the Office of Education received reports from 58 residential schools for the blind, 82 schools for the deaf, 130 schools for the mentally deficient, and 155 schools for juvenile delinquents. These included both public and private schools, as well as those administered under private auspices which receive public financial support. They were located in every part of the country and, in the case of training schools for juvenile delinquents, in every State of the Union.

Every State, also, makes some provision for the education of its blind and deaf children, either in a school of its own or in that of a neighboring State, while every State except Arizona, Arkansas, and Nevada reported at least one publicly supported residential institution for the mentally deficient. In addition, schools for the blind and the deaf are found in Hawaii, Puerto Rico, and the Philippine Islands, while Puerto Rico and Hawaii report also schools for delinquents.

Pupils Enrolled

In 1936 there were reported as enrolled in the various types of schools in continental United States 5,851 blind children, 15,366 deaf

¹ Office of Education Bulletin 1938, No. 17, is entitled "Hospital Schools in the United States" and considers the educational facilities offered to hospitalized children.

children, 31,174 juvenile delinquents, and 21,889 mentally deficient children. The first three of these figures represent the total population of the respective types of schools, since enrollment is limited to children of school age, usually up to 21 years. Institutions for the mentally deficient, however, admit adults as well as children, and many of the inmates are custodial cases unable to profit by school activities. The number of pupils reported as engaged in regular school work (21,889) is from 20 to 25 percent of the total number on the roll of such institutions. A considerable number of these are capable of doing as creditable work as that which one finds in special day-school classes for the mentally retarded.

Recent trends have brought into schools for the deaf and the blind children of kindergarten and even of nursery-school age, on the basis of the principle that habits established before the age of 6 affect materially the child's later progress. This is especially important in the case of the physically handicapped. Undesirable mannerisms can be avoided, group play can be encouraged, and a foundation of varied experiences can be fitted to the structure of special educational adjustment which is to be built upon it.

Administration of Schools

Residential schools for handicapped children began their history as welfare institutions designed to give care and training to those whose serious handicaps appeared to make institutional care necessary. Long strides, however, have been made since those early days in the conception both of what education means and of what the capabilities of handicapped boys and girls are. More and more, residential schools are coming to be looked upon as constituent parts of the educational system of the State and not as institutions apart from it.

Of the 82 residential schools for the deaf reporting to the Office of Education, 30 are administered either by the State (or territorial) educational authorities or through a combined relationship with State educational authorities and a private or other State agency. Of 58 schools for the blind, 25 report similar administrative arrangements. Sixteen of the schools for the deaf and 15 schools for the blind are administered exclusively by the State educational authorities. In cases in which a combined relationship holds, the State educational authority carries responsibility for giving general supervision to the educational program, while the other authority concerned handles problems of institutional management.

Progress in this direction has also taken place in the case of schools for delinquents, although most of these are still administered as welfare agencies apart from the educational system. Institutions for the mentally deficient, having a large custodial responsibility, are administered by State boards of public welfare, of charity, or by

departments with similar functions. Yet many leaders in the fields of delinquency and of mental deficiency are looking toward the time when residential schools for children so handicapped shall have an intimate relationship to the State educational system.

The Goal

Every child sent to a residential school is there because the local community is unable to meet his educational needs or has failed to make adequate adjustment for him. It is the aim of the residential school to send the child back to the community, when he has concluded his term of study there, equipped to maintain his self-respect and the respect of others through an achievement commensurate with his ability. To help a child to compensate for a serious physical handicap is a difficult matter. To guide a boy or a girl who has seriously violated social standards into an attitude of personal adjustment toward society is frequently even more difficult. To inculcate in a mentally deficient child the habits of thought and action needed to make him an acceptable citizen requires untold skill and patience. All of these things residential schools undertake to do. A knowledge of the means which they employ, the successes which they achieve, and even the failures which they admit should be of inestimable value to all educators. The unity and effectiveness of the total State educational program cannot but be furthered by a mutual acquaintanceship on the part of residential and day school workers.

Scope of this Bulletin

It is to promote such acquaintanceship that this bulletin has been prepared. It presents in a general way the educational programs of residential schools for various types of handicapped children. Chapter II tells of a conference called by the Office of Education in 1938 to consider some of the educational problems encountered by these schools. Each succeeding chapter gives a descriptive and pictorial presentation of educational activities carried on in a particular type of school. The source of the data is indicated in the Foreword. It is hoped that the material will be illuminating to day-school workers who have little opportunity to visit the residential schools in their States, as well as to those engaged in residential school work who would like to know something of the educational problems and practices in types of institutions other than their own.



Upper.—A choral group in a school for the mentally handicapped.
Lower.—A new cottage at a State training school for socially maladjusted girls.



Muffins, chickens, and play all enter into the lives of the girls in this school for the socially maladjusted.



Chapter II: A Conference on Educational Problems of Residential Schools

HANDICAPPED CHILDREN present widely divergent problems and needs, depending upon the nature of the handicap from which they suffer. For those having visual or auditory defects special instructional techniques are of utmost importance; environmental control and clinical education are indispensable for the socially maladjusted; a modified curriculum with a minimum of academic requirements and an emphasis upon practical values are of special import to the mentally deficient. Yet all of these groups have certain needs in common, and many of the problems of administering residential schools are similar for all. This is particularly true of residential schools for deaf, for blind, and for socially maladjusted children. The population in all these institutions is limited to pupils of school age and their all-important purpose is to prepare the student to engage in community life as a respected and a contributing citizen. Institutions for the mentally deficient, on the other hand, carry custodial responsibilities for many persons who will never live in any "community" other than the institutional grounds.

In May 1938, fifteen representatives of residential schools for the deaf, the blind, and the socially maladjusted came to Washington, at the invitation of the Office of Education, for a 2-day conference. The objectives of the conference were stated by the Office of Education as follows:

1. To consider some of the general problems of an educational nature related to the administration and curriculum of residential schools for handicapped children.
2. To study the possibilities for extending the program of vocational education in these schools through the use of State and Federal funds.
3. To determine the spheres in which the Office of Education can be of service to such schools.
4. To assist in improving the technique used by the Office of Education for gathering statistical and other data furnished by residential schools.

In his opening remarks, as chairman of the opening session of the conference, the Assistant Secretary of the Department of the Interior,

the Honorable Oscar L. Chapman, called attention to the fact that while conservation programs, as ordinarily conceived, are planned in relation to the *natural* resources of the country, this conference was directed toward the conservation of *human* resources. Residential schools for handicapped children are concerned with programs of adjustment and development which will make it possible for handicapped boys and girls to take their places in the world of adult citizens ready to make a contribution in keeping with their abilities.



Right to left: Mrs. Roosevelt, Assistant Secretary of the Interior Oscar L. Chapman, and John W. Studebaker, U. S. Commissioner of Education, at the conference table.

Members of the conference were unanimous in their conviction that residential institutions for handicapped children should be recognized as schools, and not as eleemosynary or correctional institutions. It was emphasized that, whatever the type or source of administrative control which might be exercised over the school, the educational point of view should be kept uppermost. The history of the movement has been one which to a large extent has kept these institutions apart from the educational program of the State. Recent developments, however, have tended to bring many of them more prominently into the State educational plan.

Mrs. Roosevelt, who attended the first session of the conference, was particularly interested in the fact that one of the things desired by the school administrators present was a greater personal interest from the residents of their communities and a better understanding, on the part of legislators and other citizens, of the work which the schools are trying to accomplish. She urged that everything possible be done to acquaint the public with the programs of the schools, that legislators and members of administrative boards be brought in to see them at work, and that a sympathetic relationship be developed with the community in which the school is located. The public must be convinced of the value of the work done in the residential schools before it will be willing to give them generous support.

During the two days of the conference, the discussion seemed to be centered about three general headings, namely (1) attitudes; (2) administrative problems; and (3) needed studies. The summary which follows is, therefore, presented under these three topics. While the exact terminology of the conferees is not in all cases reproduced, the statements here given represent, it is believed, the opinions expressed by the speakers and accepted by the conference as a whole.

Attitudes

The attitude of the public toward the schools has already been mentioned. Ways and means must be found to make the work of every school understood and appreciated, first, by its administrative board; second, by the community in which it is located; third, by the people of the State; and fourth, by the legislators who are responsible for its appropriations. Specifically, the nature and extent of the respective handicaps should be made known, the need for special educational treatment be shown, and, most important of all, the possibilities of the children and their capacity for adjustment be demonstrated. The public must be convinced that the values of the residential school are worth the cost. If the objectives of the school are clarified, its activities interpreted, and its achievements recognized, its place in the general educational program of the State will be assured.

Accompanying an appreciative attitude of the public toward the

residential schools, there must be also a cooperative relationship between the schools and other educational agencies of the community, the State, and the Nation. On the one hand, the educational profession should recognize the part which residential schools have to play in the guidance of children and youth, and, on the other hand, the residential schools should look upon general educational agencies as coworkers in the same cause. Teachers of residential schools may well affiliate with the larger professional groups in education, studying in terms of their own specialized problems the principles of progressive educational philosophy. As one conferee expressed it, we must at all times "keep the general perspective of the whole educational program."

Finally, it was believed that the interrelationship between education and social work should be recognized. Each of these has much to give the other, and when definition of the respective fields has been properly made there should be no conflict.

Administrative Problems

Many and varied were the administrative problems discussed at the conference. In this summary of the proceedings only a brief statement is given of those which were emphasized by several or all members of the group. Some of them apply to one type of school more than to others.

Improvement of residential school standards, as applied to qualifications of staff members.—Reference was made (a) to the unprogressive type of teacher who has continued in the institution through a number of years without growing professionally; (b) to situations in some States through which inadequately prepared persons can secure positions on the teaching staff; (c) to the lack of standards for cottage mothers and fathers and other employees responsible for duties of a social nature; (d) to the need of developing standards for specialized types of teachers as in remedial work and vocational subjects. Much of the vocational instruction now being given is under the guidance of tradesmen or foremen who have not had preparation for teaching. This situation should be remedied.

Financial difficulties.—The insufficiency of funds is in part responsible for the inability on the part of schools to raise their standards of service. Teachers' salaries in residential schools do not compare favorably with those paid to special teachers for handicapped children in city day schools. The annual per capita cost reported for the various schools represented at the conference ranged all the way from \$253 to \$850. The need for increased appropriations seemed to many of the conferees to be imperative.

Further development of facilities for vocational education.— Financial assistance is sorely needed in this direction, since existing appropriations make it difficult for many State-supported residential schools to offer opportunities which are comparable to those of day schools receiving Federal aid for vocational education. Attention was called by the Office of Education to the fact that all federally aided programs for vocational education are under the direction of the State Board for Vocational Education in the respective States. Some residential schools which meet the conditions of the law with regard to administration and supervision of the educational program are participating in the use of vocational funds granted by the State in cooperation with the Federal Government. In this connection Commissioner Studebaker emphasized the fact that vocational education is an integral part of the total educational program, and that a general educational foundation must be considered essential in every well-rounded curriculum.

Vocational guidance, placement, and follow-up.— Exploratory courses were discussed as a valuable means of guidance toward a suitable vocation; but there is need for much more comprehensive information concerning occupational possibilities for the various types of handicapped children. The dignity of labor should be upheld and boys and girls who are fitted only for simple manual tasks should be taught to recognize the worth of such employment, while at the same time receiving instruction in the social values of life. Placement problems are legion, involving, on the one hand, the individual's lack of adjustment or ability, and, on the other hand, the employer's unwillingness to accept a handicapped person or one who has been in a training school for juvenile delinquents. The follow-up of the vocational careers of former students of the school should accomplish much in pointing toward wise placements. One member of the group, referring to follow-up work with the deaf, said, "We are never through with the child."

Proper classification and assignment of children to the school.— In this connection was discussed the importance for adequate diagnosis before sending a handicapped child to a particular type of school and for provision for doubly handicapped children in keeping with their need. Sheltered workshops for some doubly handicapped groups could meet an employment situation now almost entirely neglected.

Children's work in and for the institution.— It was deplored that in some residential schools unreasonable demands are made upon the children's time for carrying on institutional work. Exploitation of the pupils to help support the institution should not be permitted. The use of certain institutional activities to a limited extent, as a basis for the instruction of pupils, may be considered quite legitimate, but no pupil should be allowed to continue regular work in a given process beyond the point of its instructional value to himself.

Means for participation in the life of the community.—A committee was appointed to draw up a statement of suggestions which might be helpful in bringing the work of the residential school before the public and in making it a recognized part of community life. Among the means suggested were the following:

1. Organization of Boy Scout and Girl Scout troops, of Girl Reserves, and of groups with similar purposes.
2. Entertainment of civic and other clubs of the community by the pupils of the school; also entertainment of pupils by the clubs.
3. Demonstrations of school activities before legislative and community groups.
4. Visits by selected children in homes of selected citizens of the community.
5. Radio talks by school officials about the work of the school.
6. Showing of motion-picture films depicting the school activities.
7. Newspaper publicity of the right type, with human-interest stories designed to increase the understanding of the public.
8. Active affiliation, on the part of the teachers in the school, with educational and social groups of the community and with State and national educational associations.

Administrative control.—Various types of school administrative control were represented in the conference. The governing bodies administering residential schools for handicapped children include State boards or departments of education, State boards of welfare or institutions, independent boards of directors or trustees, and private agencies. In commenting upon this matter, one conferee, who represented schools for the blind, spoke as follows:

We have passed through the same situation which is now encountered by schools for delinquents, namely, that of not being linked to the educational program. The tendency in the past has been that when a school has been under a department of correction or a department of welfare, the emphasis has been placed on the institution as a home rather than as a school and it is almost impossible to gain rank from an educational standpoint. It is very important, so far as schools for the blind are concerned, that there be a definite tie-up with educational authorities in the State. In the first place, if associated with the State education department, one has a friend at court, someone primarily interested from the educational point of view; in the second place, it gives one a touch with education outside of the special field of work for the blind.

Similar statements were made by other conferees, and all agreed that the education of handicapped children in residential schools should be a part of the total educational program of the State.

Needed Studies

There is great need for research in the education of handicapped children in residential schools—research of a practical nature which will help in the better organization and further development of the school program. Among the studies suggested as of immediate importance to one or more types of schools are the following:

1. Development of a uniform system of gathering statistics that will make it possible to compare data furnished by various institutions.
2. Compilation of statistical data concerning the population of the schools.
3. Comparative studies of per capita costs, of teacher preparation, of pupil-teacher ratio, of salaries, and other items related to the management of the school.
4. Exploration of occupational opportunities open to the various types of handicapped.
5. Development of reading material suited to the mature interests of seriously retarded pupils.
6. Development of other curricular material in specialized fields of interest; for example, in vocational subjects.
7. Compilation of reports on experimental projects carried on in particular schools, with a view to affording an exchange of experience among the schools.
8. Surveys of educational practice designed to evaluate existing situations and to point out possibilities for improvement.

In the furtherance of securing adequate statistical data, the Office of Education submitted to the conferees the statistical blanks it has used in gathering information periodically concerning the residential schools. Suggestions were made by members of the group for improvement of the blanks when next they are to be used.

Services Desired of the Office of Education

When asked what services residential schools desired the Office of Education to give, the conferees indicated a number of directions in which the Office might help. These are briefly stated as follows:

1. Take the leadership in helping to equalize educational opportunity for handicapped children, to arouse public opinion to the need and the value of residential school programs, and to bring about the acceptance of such institutions as *schools*.
2. Explore the occupational fields in which the various handicapped groups could serve satisfactorily.
3. Study standards of costs in residential schools, teachers' qualifications, pupil population, experimental projects, and other items included in residential school practices.

4. Prepare or compile curricular materials which may be helpful in dealing with handicapped children.
5. Give advisory service in developing the educational program of the school, and help to make possible an exchange of good practices among the schools.
6. Encourage the further development of vocational education in residential schools through the use of State and Federal funds appropriated for this purpose.
7. Help to bring together workers in residential and in day schools so that both groups will work in the interests of a common cause with a mutual understanding and appreciation.

Conclusion

The conference seemed to be recognized by everyone present as a milestone in the progress of education for handicapped children. Whether blind or deaf or socially maladjusted, handicapped children in residential schools are no less in need of education than are those in day schools. Both types of institutions exist to serve the children and only insofar as they realize this purpose can their presence in the community be justified. There seems to be no reason why, through a common devotion to a common cause, they should not work side by side to achieve a common goal, namely, the development, in every handicapped boy and girl, of those latent abilities and attitudes through which he or she may be able to face the world unafraid.

The Office of Education, like the residential schools, is limited in its resources. Through lack of funds and personnel, it cannot do all it would like to do. Commissioner Studebaker, however, pledged the cooperation of the Office to the extent of its facilities in serving the cause of handicapped children. He expressed his deep appreciation of the cooperation of those attending the conference and his desire for a continuing mutually helpful relationship.

Members of the Conference

REPRESENTING SCHOOLS FOR THE BLIND.

- JOSEPH C. CAUFFMAN, Superintendent, Michigan School for the Blind, Lansing, Mich.
- B. S. JOICE, Superintendent, Western Pennsylvania School for the Blind, Pittsburgh, Pa.
- FRANK M. LONGANECKER, Superintendent, Wisconsin School for the Blind, Janesville, Wis.
- EBER PALMER, Superintendent, New York State School for the Blind, Batavia, N. Y.

REPRESENTING SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF.

- LLOYD E. BERG, Superintendent, Iowa State School for the Deaf, Council Bluffs, Iowa.
- IGNATIUS BJORLEE, Superintendent, Maryland State School for the Deaf, Frederick, Md.
- CLARENCE D. O'CONNOR, Superintendent, Lexington School for the Deaf, New York, N. Y.
- C. E. RANKIN, Superintendent, North Carolina School for the Deaf, Morganton, N. C.

REPRESENTING SCHOOLS FOR SOCIALLY MALADJUSTED CHILDREN.

- EDWIN ADAMS, Associate Superintendent of Schools, Philadelphia, Pa.
- H. V. BASTIN, Superintendent, Louisville and Jefferson County Children's Home, Anchorage, Ky.
- PAUL S. BLANDFORD, Superintendent, Virginia Industrial School for Boys, Beaumont, Va.
- MARY DEWEES, Superintendent, New York State Training School for Girls, Hudson, N. Y.
- ROY L. McLAUGHLIN, Superintendent, Connecticut School for Boys, Meriden, Conn.
- M. LAVINIA WARNER, Principal, Blossom Hill School, Brecksville, Ohio.
- CARRIE WEAVER SMITH, formerly Superintendent, National Training School for Girls, Washington, D. C.

REPRESENTING STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION.

- W. W. TRENT, State Superintendent of Free Schools, Charleston, W. Va.

REPRESENTING THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR, OFFICE OF EDUCATION.

- JOHN W. STUDEBAKER, Commissioner of Education.
- BESS GOODYKOONTZ, Assistant Commissioner of Education.
- J. C. WRIGHT, Assistant Commissioner for Vocational Education.
- MRS. KATHERINE M. COOK, Chief, Division of Special Problems.
- MRS. A. L. BURDICK, Special Agent in Trade and Industrial Education for Women and Girls.
- JOSEPH F. CLUNK, Special Agent for the Blind.
- ELISE H. MARTENS, Senior Specialist in the Education of Exceptional Children.



These little people in the playroom are thoroughly enjoying themselves even without sight.

A kindergarten group of blind children is happily at work.



Chapter III: Residential Schools for the Blind

THE ORGANIZED EDUCATION of the blind in the United States is a development of the past hundred years. The decade from 1830 to 1840 saw residential institutions for blind children established in Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania, and Ohio. Other States took action in succeeding years until at the present time every State of the Union makes provision for the education of the blind either in a school within its own boundaries or in a school of a neighboring State. There are also such schools in the Hawaiian Islands, Puerto Rico, and the Philippine Islands. The total enrollment in all residential institutions established for this handicapped group is approximately 6,000 pupils. In addition, about 500 blind children are being educated in day-school classes, organized in some of the larger city school systems of the country.

Not All Pupils Totally Blind

Some people suppose that a residential school for the blind serves or should serve only totally blind children. This is far from the case, for there are many children who have some vision, yet insufficient to enable them to participate in regular educational activities even with the aid of sight-saving techniques. These are sometimes classified as "educationally blind" and include children who have vision of less than 20/200; that is, they are unable to see at a distance of 20 feet what a person with normal vision can see at a distance of 200 feet. Yet between 20/200 vision and total blindness there are degrees of sight which are valuable assets to the children possessing them. Even those who have only light perception (up to 2/200 vision) may be considered as possessing an advantage over those who have no vision at all. Every school for the blind enrolls a large number of pupils in this low-vision group as well as totally blind children.

Visually handicapped children having better than 20/200 vision are generally considered candidates for sight-saving classes in the public day schools. There are, to be sure, some border-line cases and other special problems which find their way into residential schools. The primary concern of the residential school, however, is the education of children whose vision is either totally lacking or too limited for the ordinary type of sight-saving instruction offered in day schools. The programs for such children in residential schools are the theme of this chapter.



Upper.—Deaf-blind children receive sound vibrations through bone conduction apparatus.

Unfortunately the establishment of sight-saving classes in day schools has not yet progressed to the point of reaching the needs of all children who should be so placed. For this reason schools for the blind have sometimes been forced to admit pupils whose vision exceeds the accepted maximum standard. Certain superintendents of residential schools have voiced their disapproval of such a necessity. "The partially sighted or sight-saving group," states one superintendent, "who cannot follow the ordinary school curriculum on account of their defective vision, but who can see well enough to be taught by special methods involving the use of sight, should be taught in sight-saving classes connected with an ordinary school for sighted children rather than in a partially blind class attached to a school for the blind."¹

Another says: "We maintain that it is the responsibility of local authorities to see that sight-saving facilities are extended so that partially seeing children do not have to attend a school for the blind."² This superintendent deplors the fact that, even where sight-saving classes do exist, they ordinarily carry the pupil only through the elementary grades. He urges their extension through the high-school years.

Doubly Handicapped Pupils

To be deprived of vision is tragic enough, but when that loss is accompanied by an additional serious handicap the lot of the child becomes increasingly difficult. It is estimated that there are about 2,000 people (children and adults) in the United States who are deprived of both sight and hearing. Educational facilities for deaf-blind children have in the past been exceedingly meager. The life and achievements of Helen Keller are a well-known example of what can be accomplished despite such handicaps, and recent developments have attempted to meet in an organized way the special needs of children so afflicted. Recognized centers for the education of the deaf-blind have been established in connection with two schools for the blind located in New York and Massachusetts. At other schools attention is being given to individual cases through the efforts of teachers specially trained for the work.

Deaf-blind children are taught to speak and to understand speech through vibration. They place their hands on the lips and throat of the teacher and in this way experience vibrations of the vocal mechanism of the speaker, learning gradually to associate each vibration with its meaning. They also learn to experience sound through bone conduction apparatus, as in one of the pictures on the opposite page.

¹ Frampton, M. E., and Stein, Vita. *The Training of Partially Sighted Children in a School for the Blind*. New York, The New York Institute for the Education of the Blind. Monograph series, No. 4, 1936. p. 3.

² Perkins Institution and Massachusetts School for the Blind, *One Hundred and Fifth Annual Report*, 1935. p. 18.



Upper. — A second grade, with Braille books and other special equipment, makes regular school progress.

Center.—With the aid of a model, Patsy is delving into the intricacies of an artesian well.

Lower. — Map study depends upon the use of relief maps.



All three children in the pictures there reproduced are totally blind and deaf.

The impressions thus made upon the sensitive mind of a child who is without either vision or hearing are far beyond popular expectation—or even understanding. There is "Tad," for example, a lad who graduated from a full high-school course at a residential school for the blind. In the year following his graduation he went to South Africa and then returned to his home to organize the notes which he had taken on his trip. "Tad" converses freely, and his spiritual development has been just as gratifying as his physical and mental growth. His keen appreciation of religious truths is evident from his statement of "What God Means to Me":³

God is a great deal of help to me. He helps me to breathe, to be very happy, healthy, strong, kind, well, courteous, and good. He keeps me from being very bad, cross, unkind, and unhappy. He is the helper and keeper in my body. He also keeps me lively and active all the time. He sings to me in my heart more beautifully than I sing.

He knows many things which no one else knows about ancient history before the beginning of time. He makes me feel very happy because He knows everything I think and do. He will take care of me forever.

He sometimes sings to me in my heart when I am quiet and asleep. My spirit will never die because it is God's spirit. God was in existence long before the beginning of time, before the earth, sun, and heavens were formed. Nobody knows where He lived before the beginning of time but I think it was light and happy wherever He was. Now He is living in the hearts of children.

There are also blind crippled children, blind subnormal children, and some deaf-blind-feeble-minded. Modern schools for the blind attempt to serve the needs of mentally retarded blind children if the intellectual deficiency is not extreme. In that case, however, the child becomes a problem of the school for the mentally deficient.

In short, the school for the blind must meet not only the problems of visual deficiency common to all its charges, but also the wide array of pupil differences found in any school for the seeing. There are physical abnormalities, emotional disturbances, personality difficulties, and intellectual deviations. All of these the residential school must recognize, and its guidance program must serve the individual needs of every pupil entrusted to its care.

The Curriculum

The American Association of Instructors of the Blind has called attention to the fourfold aim in the education of the blind: **Physical efficiency, social adjustment, academic achievement, and vocational**

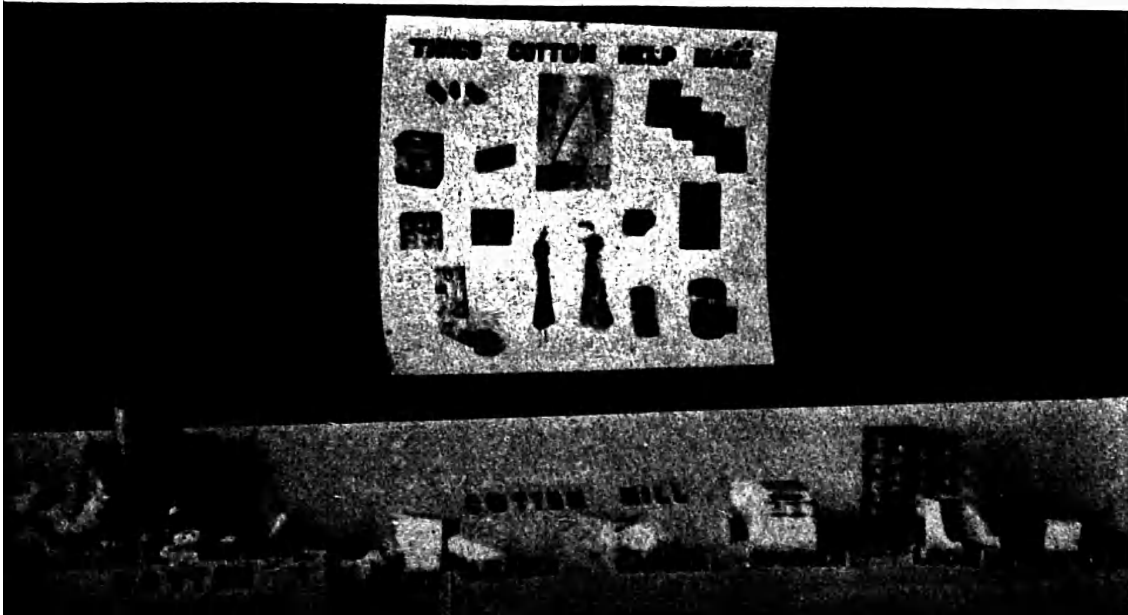
³ Reproduced by courtesy of Perkins Institution and Massachusetts School for the Blind.



Upper.—A group of beginners in handicraft.

Center.—A class in geography is exploring the continents.

Lower.—These are some of the results of a unit on cotton carried on by a sixth grade.



preparation. It has emphasized the fact that the course of study in residential schools should be comparable to that of the public-school system of the State, with the necessary adjustments in emphasis and in methods. The high-school course is expected to be the equivalent of the 4-year course of day high schools. This frequently makes it possible for the high-school student of advanced standing to take his work in the local high school with seeing boys and girls, with provision for assistance in reading assignments. In general, the course of study in the elementary and secondary grades includes the regular academic subjects, health and physical education, musical activities, a variety of manual arts, and some types of vocational or prevocational training.

The progressive residential school for the blind is just as keenly alert to modern advances in education as is the regular day school for the seeing. Instructional units of activity, field trips, recreational programs, dramatic organizations and other "extracurricular" activities, the use of cumulative records, psychological and achievement tests, and a guidance procedure that explores each child's capacities, interests, and difficulties are elements of an educational program no less applicable to schools for the blind than to schools for the seeing.

In one school an experience unit centered about community life was used in the first grade: "The second semester found the students members of a real community. Farmers, store salesmen, gas-station attendants, garagemen, policemen, zoo keepers, school teachers, mothers, and children were the members of the community. Milk obtained from the farmer was delivered to customers and to the storekeeper in trucks made of monkey blocks, which stopped at the gas station for fuel, and at the garage for repairs, through a maze of traffic kept orderly by the policeman. Real money was used in the community in all the trading. It was drawn out of the bank and accounted for at the end of the project hour. Practical application was made to arithmetic problems."⁴

"Extracurricular" activities are many and varied, including clubs, hobbies, Scout troops, Girl Reserves, athletic associations, school newspapers, plays, and concerts. Religious services and related activities also constitute an important phase of the boarding-school life in these institutions. Throughout his educational career, the blind student is encouraged to participate in experiences common to seeing pupils and thus to prepare himself for adult living in a seeing world. It is not unusual to see blind children actively engaged in the home-making laboratory, at the woodworker's or cobbler's bench, at the sewing machine, at the typewriter or the switchboard, on the farm, in the garden and the greenhouse, on the athletic field and the dance floor, in the swimming pool, in bands and orchestras. One cannot help but marvel at the skill with which a blind student can take the

⁴ Western Pennsylvania School for the Blind, Pittsburgh, Pa. Forty-ninth Annual Report, 1936, p. 42.



Use of a manikin permits the high-school student to "see" some of the things he reads about in physiology.

Blind students find interesting work in a high-school physics laboratory.



high jump, or weed the vegetable garden, or turn out a piece of furniture, or prepare and serve a meal. Every activity of the successful school is directed toward the development of well-adjusted individuals who can enjoy wholesome social relationships and take their places unafraid in community life.

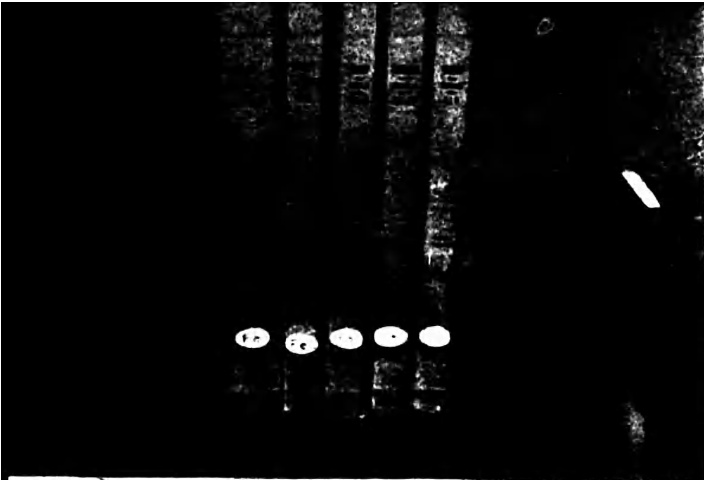
As in all boarding schools, the health of the children must be watched and health education is given a prominent place. Ophthalmological examinations are extremely important, in order that each child may be assured of desirable treatment and the maximum amount of correction by glasses of which his eyes are capable. Contacts with parents must be maintained in matters of health and other items relating to the welfare of the child. These contacts are usually the responsibility of a home visitor or medical social worker. At least one school has inaugurated a summer-school clinic for parents of blind babies, in which they learn how to give at home the proper early care so essential in the physical and social development of blind children.

Tactile Methods

Without sufficient sight to employ the ordinary tools of learning, the blind child must depend upon other senses to make contact with his environment. The use of methods involving the senses of touch and of hearing are important features in his education. The teaching of Braille reading and writing is one example of tactile methods; the use of dissected wooden relief maps in teaching geography is another example. Miniature and life-sized models constitute the basis for studying the character of buildings, bridges, dams, animals, natural phenomena, and a wide variety of other experiences. The Works Progress Administration of the Federal Government has recently made possible extensive projects for the construction of such models in several schools.

A lighthouse model built accurately to scale was used in the fourth grade of one residential school⁵ to teach a better understanding of the functions of lighthouses and the responsibilities of lighthouse keepers. Their relationship to the whole field of navigation and human safety was explored, and the topic became the absorbing center about which an entire activity unit was built. No description, however vivid, could have taken the place of the opportunity to feel this model from top to bottom in all its parts. In the same school pupils have found out how their school building "looks" and no longer need to say, as one child did before the model was made, "All we know about our school is as high as we can reach with our finger tips." Some pupils wanted to know what a modern house

⁵ The Ohio State School for the Blind, Columbus, Ohio, furnished a report on the construction and use of models, from which the data here given were taken.



As Shakespeare's "Hamlet" looks in the form of—
(1) Talking book records.
(2) Braille volumes.
(3) A gilt-edge edition in ordinary print.



A high-school group enjoys supplementary reading with the aid of the talking book.



Practical training in radio theory and construction is a part of the school program.

looked like as compared with a colonial or Cape Cod home. Models brought them their information. Others were interested in the birds on the school campus, and, in studying these, units of activity coordinating various fields of subject matter were developed with the aid of models. As a result the interests of the children grew and their experiences broadened. Thus do the blind child's fingers serve as both fingers and eyes, and sensitive indeed do they become with continued practice.

Tactile training in schools for the blind is also evident in the manual activities carried on. Weaving, wicker work, knitting, and crocheting are among the handicrafts to which the elementary pupil is introduced and in which he learns to be proficient through the sense of touch. They in turn lead to other more complicated processes which have a vocational or prevocational function.

Aural Emphasis

His ears, too, serve the blind child well, and he learns to make the most of them on the playground and on the street as well as in the classroom. Advanced students may work with the dictaphone, which makes it possible to transcribe material on the typewriter without the use of shorthand and hence without the need of vision if the student has mastered the touch system and the mechanics of his typewriter. Braille switchboards are in operation in some schools, through which, with the use of Braille numbers and a buzzing sound whenever a call is made, a blind person can successfully take care of telephone service.

Braille reading is supplemented by the use of the talking book, a machine equivalent to a phonograph on which specially constructed records are played bringing to the listener an entire story or other piece of literature. The use of the talking book is limited, however, by the comparatively small number of records as yet available. Most of the classroom materials needed are not thus prepared, and hence Braille books still constitute the blind child's major source of written information. An interesting comparison is shown in one of the pictures on page 26, indicating the relative space occupied by a given volume produced in ordinary print, in Braille, and in talking-book records. Obviously a Braille library must be given plenty of room.

The radio, also, is a boon to blind persons, and blind students in our schools take the roles of both listeners and performers. Some have studied the operation of radio stations and have given distinctive service. At the time of the flood emergency in 1937, a New York newspaper reported the achievement of an 18-year-old blind student "as the operator of a short-wave set with which he has been



A play is given by the dramatics department.

A piano lesson, with the use of a musical score in Braille.



Orchestral work is of special value for curriculum enrichment.



instrumental in transmitting and relaying hundreds of urgent radio communications from flood areas to the States of New York and New Jersey."⁶

Another school says of its radio workshop activities: "During the past 2 years part of our speech class has participated in six broadcasts, scripts being supplied by the Office of Education, Washington, D. C. . . . Two broadcasts consisted of original scripts and music. . . . During the fall of 1937 and the spring of 1938 thirteen programs of poetry, music, monologues, and talks about the school were broadcast. The school chorus sang in two of these broadcasts. . . . The public appearances of our pupils have fostered a much better understanding on the part of the public of their abilities and capacities and have created a very earnest desire to give them suitable work."⁷

Music

Another application of the use of the aural capacities of blind students in residential schools is the place that is accorded to music in the curriculum. This is not a field in which the blind as a group are peculiarly gifted, as some may suppose, but one in which they can generally approximate the achievements of seeing pupils. The use of musical notations in Braille takes the place of the ordinary musical score known to most of us. Students who are capable of specializing in this field are given the opportunity to develop their talents. Among the offerings included in the music curriculum are: Piano, voice, organ, chorus, harmony, music history, orchestra, and band, with individual instruction on various instruments. Recitals given by the students are a frequent occurrence and help to instill poise and confidence in the young performers.

A fascinating activity, as reported by one school, was the making of musical instruments by the pupils. Drums, hunting horns, and shepherd's pipes were among the products turned out. "Disciplinary problems during chorus hour were instantly solved by the mere mention of pipe making, and the pupils' hard work was repaid by their pride when they were able to take part in the assembly programs. All who heard him shared the thrill of the boy who played 'Silent Night' on his shepherd's pipe, and a demonstration of this work was one of the most popular items on the program."⁸

A very practical element of training in the music department of most schools is the work in piano tuning. This is one of the vocational activities which have proved suitable to blind persons who have an accurate ear for pitch, and a number have been very successful in pursuing it both in piano factories and in private practice.

⁶ The New York Institute for the Education of the Blind, Annual Report, 1937, p. 35.

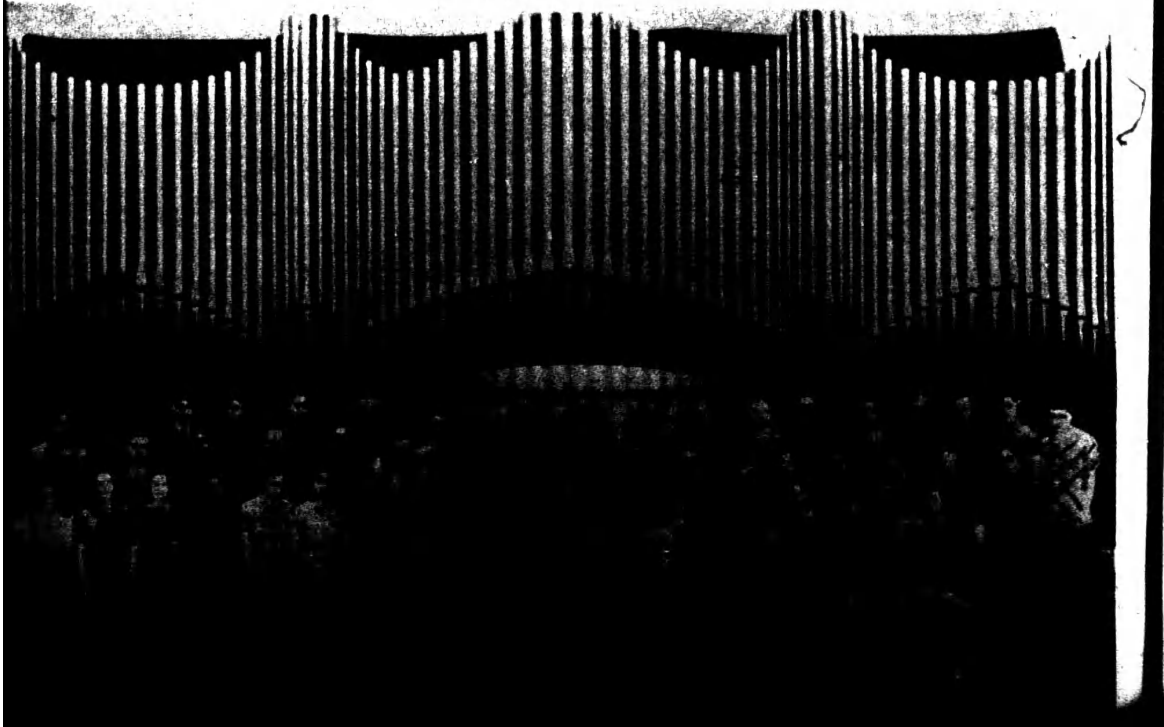
⁷ Forty-first Biennial Report of the Missouri School for the Blind, 1939, pp. 9, 10.

⁸ Perkins Institution and Massachusetts School for the Blind, One Hundred and Fifth Annual Report, 1934, p. 37.



A talented student of organ has the opportunity for professional preparation.

The choirs of residential schools have an extensive repertoire.



Physical Education and Sports

Children who have been blind from birth or early infancy have never had the opportunity to appreciate the appearance of good posture, easy gait, and other forms of muscular coordination. For this reason they are likely to develop peculiarities of physical behavior unless early and constant attention is given by the school to the development of poise and control. This is done through formal exercises as well as through games and sports. Athletic contests further the program and show the surprising ability of blind students to perform. Swimming pools and bowling alleys afford both pleasure and physical exercise. Folk dancing, tap dancing, social dancing, heavy apparatus work, track and wrestling are among the activities which help to develop initiative and independence of movement. Even football in a modified form is included in the schedule of sports in certain schools.

Occupational Experiences

There has been some difference of opinion as to the place which specific vocational training should have in the high-school division of institutions for the blind. Some claim that it should be given predominance; others—probably a much larger group—believe that the purpose of the secondary school is not so much to offer specific trade training as to furnish a rich educational background and an opportunity for occupational exploration and analysis preliminary to trade training. Many administrators of residential schools for the blind, as well as supervisors of the education of physically handicapped children in day schools, hold the latter point of view. One superintendent says:

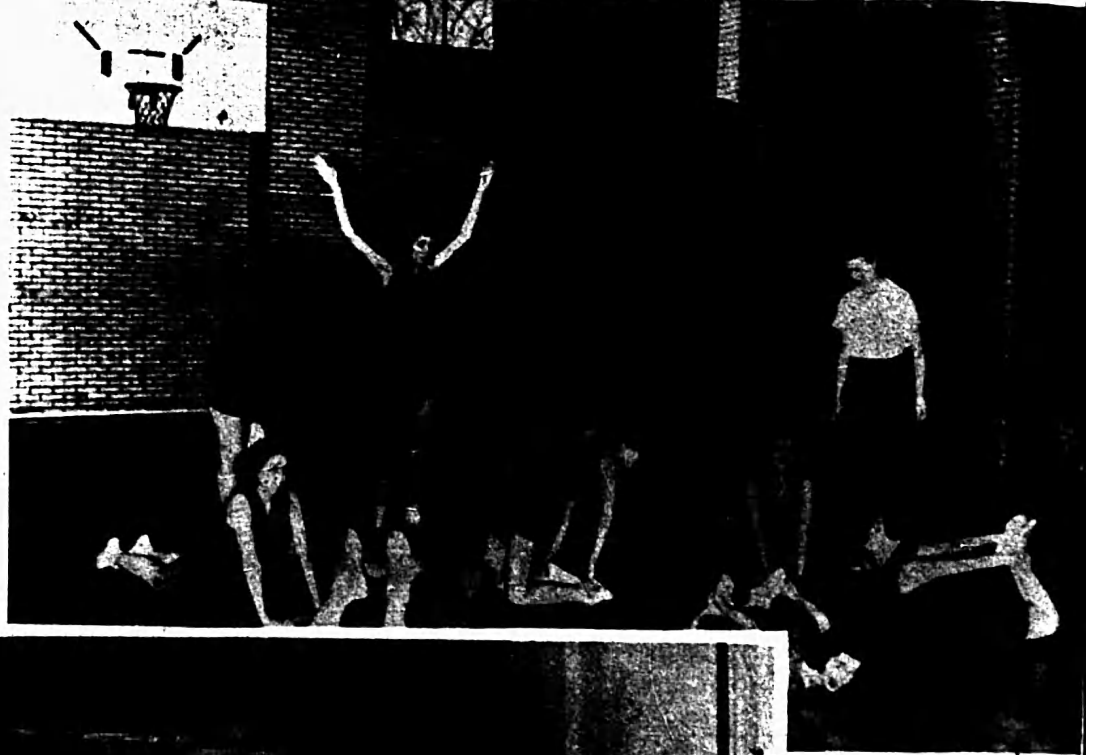
There is an unwarranted amount of adverse criticism of the education of the blind due to the fact that schools for the blind are not primarily training their pupils for some specific trade. Are these schools vested with supernatural powers that exceed the possibilities of other elementary and secondary schools? All of the habits and skills acquired at school tend to fit the child for some specific work later in life, but not until the pupil is more mature than the average high-school graduate can he master a trade or other vocation. . . . Many of our graduates are encouraged to attend university or to return to the School for the Blind for special training along specific lines.⁹

Other leaders in the education of the blind have expressed themselves similarly. But such comments are not to be interpreted as leaving no room at all for specific trade training in schools for the blind. Some pupils must for financial reasons seek to earn a livelihood at the earliest possible date; others are more fitted to work with their hands than to carry on extensive academic study in school or college. For some of these such time-honored trades as broom and mop making, chair can-

⁹ Louisiana State School for the Blind, Biennial Report, 1935, p. 22.



↑
Swimming is a favorite diversion for some.



↑
Supple bodies are one of the objectives of the physical education program.



←
Skeeball is adapted to the needs of the blind through the use of electric apparatus.

ing, basketmaking and various forms of weaving may offer pecuniary opportunities, but unfortunately such activities are in some schools still unduly emphasized. The modern residential school with a progressive outlook and adequate equipment has gone far beyond the narrow scope of occupational offerings so long considered adequate, although it still uses them for exploratory purposes and manual training. Selling has come to be a promising line of endeavor for blind persons, and as a result courses in salesmanship have taken a rightful place in the curriculum. Carpentry, furniture making, mattress making, poultry husbandry, agriculture, shoe repair, leather work, radio operating, automobile mechanics, metal spinning, iron work, and clay modeling are among the many fields which have been introduced in the effort to give the student a variety of experiences with manual processes.

Homemaking departments give not only to girls but, in some schools, to boys the experiences essential to the successful maintenance of a home. The preparation and serving of meals, food preservation, home hygiene and nursing, child care, household mechanics, the care of living and sleeping rooms, interior decoration, textiles, plain and fancy sewing, budgeting, and family relations are all of value in preparation for a happy home life, and some of these fields are of as much interest to boys as to girls. Moreover, they have a vocational value for those girls who can take positions as mothers' helpers or in other domestic service.

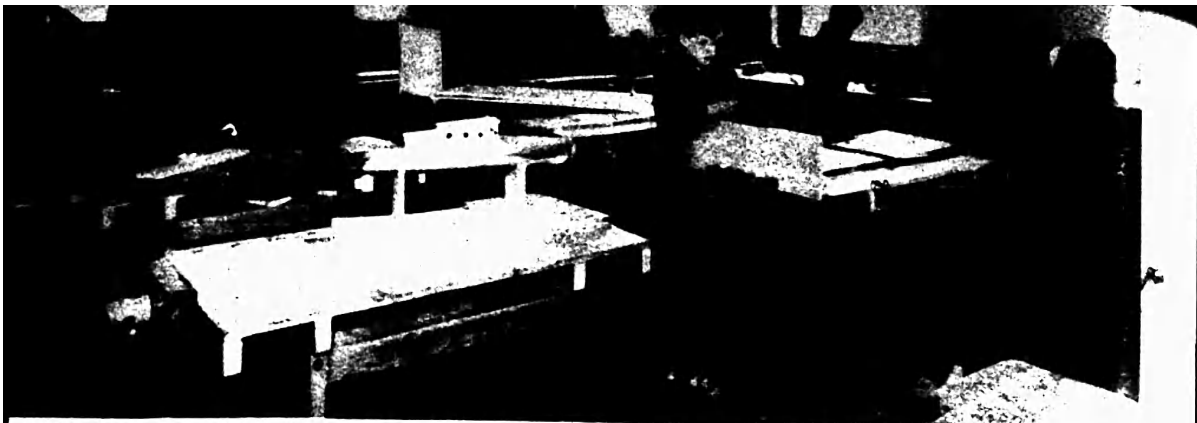
One school says of its course in sewing:

Sewing is taught by individual instruction. Starting in the fourth grade with canvas squares and a blunt needle, the child is taught the various practical and decorative stitches. When a pupil is thoroughly familiar with all the stitches and does hand-sewing well, she is taught how to use the machine. This instruction is preliminary to the prescribed course which includes the making of sheets, pillowcases, towels, ironingboard covers, cotton, silk, or wool dresses, and other articles of wearing apparel. Upon completion of this course the girl is presented with a certificate.¹⁰

In general answer to the question "What can the blind do?" it might be said that, while the difficulties of placement are still tremendous, artificial restrictions are gradually being removed both by the blind themselves and by educators of the blind, so that vocational activities once thought utterly impossible for them are being undertaken with optimism and success. For those fittingly endowed, the university or professional school offers specialized training in intellectual or artistic pursuits beyond the secondary level. One superintendent reports:

The modern trend in the education of the blind looks constantly to the development of new lines of employment which it is believed

¹⁰ Wisconsin School for the Blind, Janesville, Wis. (Brochure describing the work of the school, 1933.)



↑
The woodworking and machine shops provide opportunity for creative work.

→
The operation of the jigsaw proves a practical occupation.



the blind can follow successfully. Among the various professions and lines of employment in which the blind are known to be successfully employed are these: Hand assembling in factories and ware rooms, ticketing, wrapping, inspecting, selling, office typewriting, making household articles, serving as mothers' helpers, poultry husbandry, lecturing, writing, entertaining, investigating social conditions, home teaching among the adult blind, operating telephone exchanges, teaching school, giving music lessons, church organ playing, singing, playing for dances, composing music, piano-tuning, practicing massage, osteopathy, law, politics, and preaching.¹¹

Guidance

The entire program of a school for the blind, if it is to be effective in serving the needs of individual pupils, must give to the personal guidance of those pupils the same place of dominance that is being sought for it in day schools for seeing children. Instruction—even special technique of instruction—is not enough. This is only one of the elements in a total guidance program. Throughout the years of the child's attendance, the progressive residential school studies him as an individual differing from every other individual in the school. Physical examinations, psychological tests, achievement tests, personality inventories, aptitude and interest analyses are all finding an important place in the program of the blind pupil's guidance toward personal, social, and vocational adjustment.

The findings of such a comprehensive analysis of individual traits are worth the time spent in securing them only if they are put into usable form and if they actually contribute something in planning the pupil's educational progress. A cumulative record giving all pertinent data from the time of the child's entrance into the school can be of vital assistance in fulfilling the first of these conditions, and schools for the blind are making increasing use of such a device. One school,¹² for example, has on file for each pupil an 8-page folder called "Guidance Program," in which significant items are recorded under the following headings: (1) General eye condition at entrance, amount of vision, recommendation of oculist, glasses; (2) psychological findings, with space to record intelligence quotient, achievement quotient, and mental age at periodic testing dates; (3) personal inventory; (4) teacher's analysis of pupil; (5) analysis of home (residence, type of home, parental interest, vocational opportunities for the blind in the community, interested service clubs); (6) after-graduation plans (pupil's ambitions, special aptitudes, adviser's recommendations); (7) vocational education program; (8) character analysis; (9) character-building plan; (10) summary of accomplishment at discharge.

¹¹ The Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind, Overbrook, Philadelphia. School Announcement, p. 6.

¹² Michigan School for the Blind, Lansing, Mich. (From report and material contributed, 1938.)



Homemaking activities
offer challenging experi-
ences to both girls and
boys.

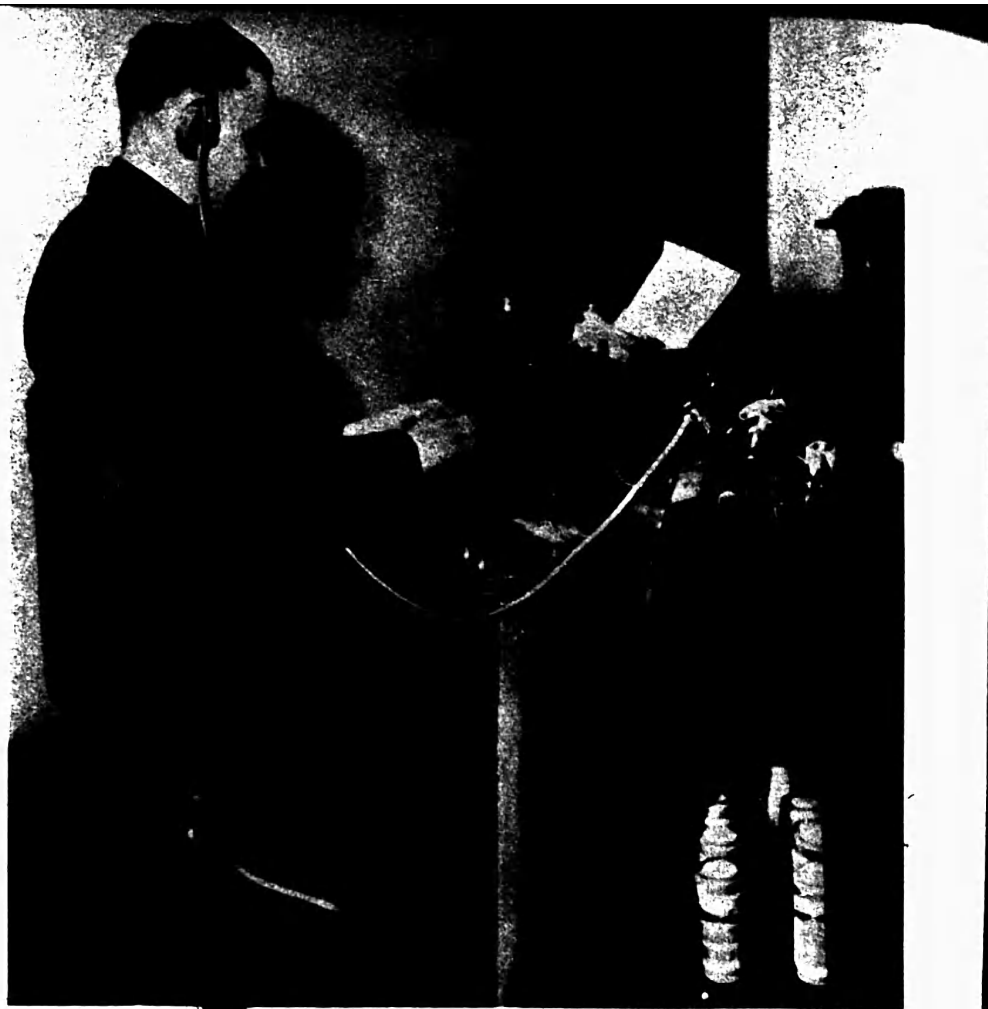




Agricultural activities offer to the blind promising fields of service.

These boys are getting ready to operate their own poultry farms.





Many blind students learn to use the dictaphone quite satisfactorily.

This girl is learning to operate a switchboard equipped with Braille numbers and other special appliances.



The accurate accumulation of data of this kind and the intelligent use of them by persons skilled in the counseling of youth cannot help but mean for the student richer possibilities of finding himself in the complex situations into which he must go when he leaves the school. It is assumed, of course, that the school must be able to provide in its program all the curricular, extracurricular, and other means of guidance found to be needed in each particular instance.

The school from which the cumulative record noted above was reported has anticipated some of the guidance needs of its prospective charges in establishing a summer nursery school for preschool blind children and their mothers. In 1937 (the first year in which the nursery school functioned) there were eight babies, with their mothers, ranging in age from 16 months to 5 years. The teaching staff endeavors to give to each mother special help in meeting her particular problems and thus to lay a sound foundation for later educational progress.

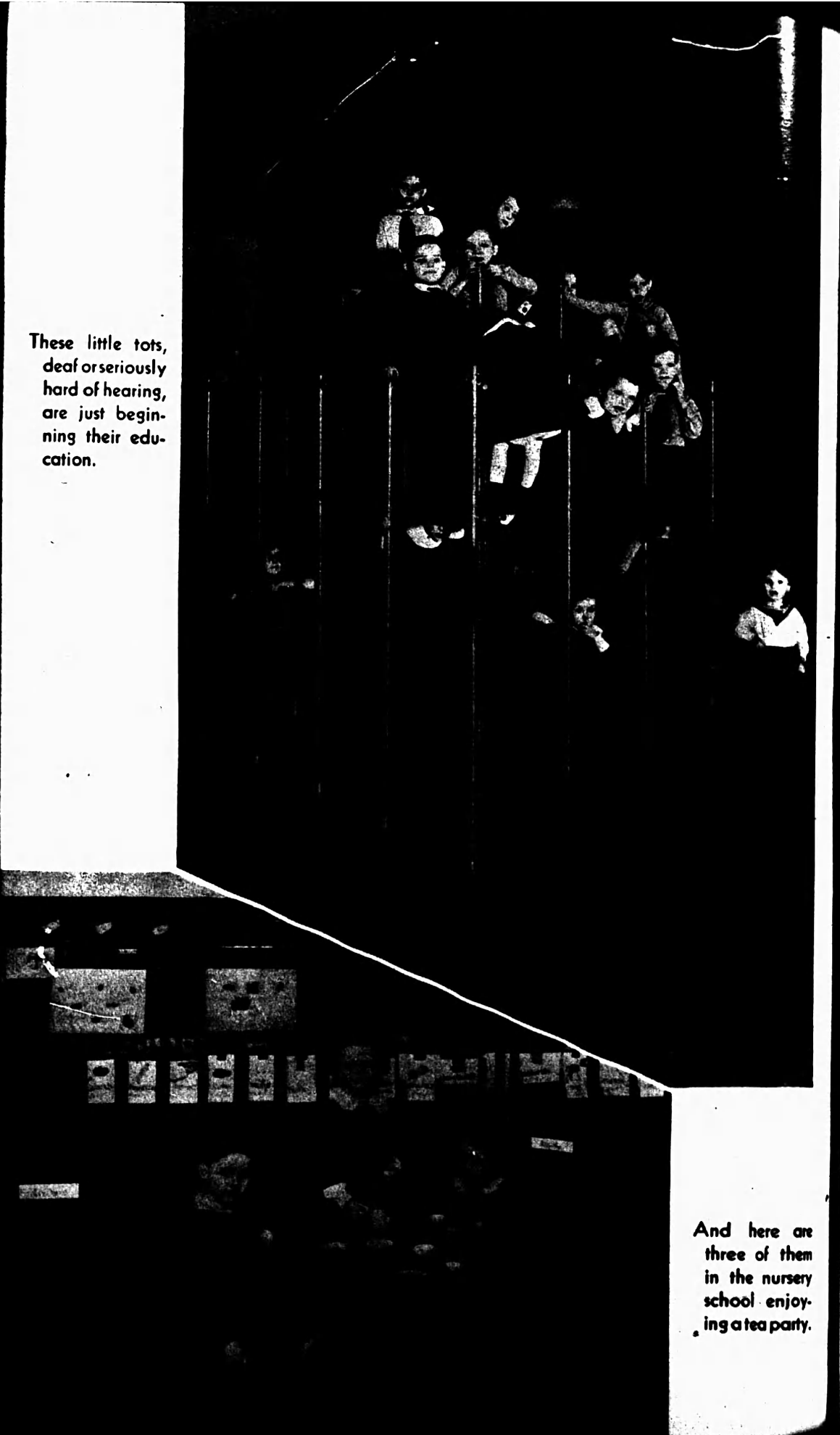
Administration of Schools

Of the 58 residential schools for the blind reporting statistical data to the Office of Education for the year 1935-36, 23 in continental United States and 2 in the outlying parts are administered either by the State or Territorial educational authorities or through a cooperative relationship with such authorities. Fifteen schools are administered exclusively by State educational agencies, and each State legislative session sees others added to the group. One school reports:¹³

As our school is a part of the public-school system of New York State, its educational activities are subject to the regulation of the State Department of Education. Our courses, therefore, both in the grades and the high school are modeled closely after those recommended by the State Education Department.

There can be no doubt that residential schools for the blind are a logical part of the public educational program of the State. As such they are logically, also, the responsibility of the same agency which administers the rest of the educational program. With such an arrangement, blind boys and girls are not objects of charity sent to a "home" or a welfare institution, but they have real place among the elementary and secondary pupils of the State. As members of that group they are entitled to all the benefits that modern education has to give, and modern citizens and educators must see that they get them.

¹³ New York State School for the Blind, Batavia, N. Y. Sixty-eighth Annual Report, 1936. p. 28.



These little tots,
deaf or seriously
hard of hearing,
are just begin-
ning their edu-
cation.

And here are
three of them
in the nursery
school enjoy-
ing a tea party.

Chapter IV: Residential Schools for the Deaf

FROM THE point of view of instruction, deafness from birth or infancy presents a more difficult problem than blindness. Unable to hear speech from those around him, the child cannot learn to talk through imitation of sounds as most of us do. He has no way of becoming acquainted with the names of objects or with other language concepts through their association with speech. It is as if a high wall were built about him cutting him off from the world of language, a knowledge of which is so essential to an understanding of his environment and of the people with whom in some way he must learn to communicate. This wall education must scale—or blast—through the application of special methods which substitute the use of other senses for the hearing of which the child is deprived.

Residential schools for the deaf were established to fulfill this purpose. To the State of Connecticut belongs the credit for the establishment of the first school of this kind in the United States in 1817. The State of New York took similar action the following year, and by 1850 ten other States had established schools of their own. It is reported by the *American Annals of the Deaf* that in October 1938 there were 66 public and 20 private residential schools in the United States, all of these together enrolling approximately 15,000 pupils. In addition, between nine and ten thousand deaf and hard-of-hearing children were reported to the Office of Education in 1936 as enrolled for special instruction in day schools or classes established in city school systems. However, recent estimates indicate that there are many thousand more children with defective hearing who are struggling along without special help.

Deaf vs. Hard-of-Hearing

There has been considerable discussion regarding the connotation of the terms "deaf" and "hard-of-hearing," and efforts have been made to bring about the acceptance of a uniform terminology on the part of all who are interested in the education of children handicapped by defective hearing. There are in general three groups of such children, whose educational needs are materially affected by the accompanying physical condition. These are: (1) Children who were born with a total or almost total loss of hearing, or who through disease or accident lost their hearing before they had learned to talk; (2) children who lost all or almost all their hearing after speech and language patterns had



This little girl is completely absorbed with her pegboard.

§

An individual hearing test helps to determine the extent of the child's hearing loss.



been well established; (3) children who, while having a significant hearing loss, are not profoundly deaf and whose varying degrees of residual hearing can be utilized to great advantage in their education.

Obviously the children in the first of these groups present the most serious educational problems due to their total lack of experience with natural speech or language. Children in the second group have a foundation of language usage and of natural speech upon which education must help them to build, while children in the third group can with the use of mechanical hearing aids conserve or develop much of the natural quality of the speaking voice and the ability to use oral language.

Some Similarities in Schools for Deaf and for Blind

Like schools for the blind, the programs of which were described in the previous chapter, residential schools for the deaf are primarily designed for children of school age whose sensory loss is extreme and whose needs cannot be adequately met in the local day school system from which they come. Also like schools for the blind, however, schools for the deaf find it necessary to admit children with less severe yet serious defects, for whom day-school accommodations are not available. Only a comparatively small number of the children in a residential school for the deaf are totally without hearing, and increasing emphasis is being placed upon the stimulation for maximum use of the residual hearing which most of them possess to a greater or less degree.

Residential schools for the deaf must frequently, like schools for the blind, serve children having double handicaps. Some pupils are both deaf and blind, but the recent establishment of well-equipped centers for such children in schools for the blind has decreased the demand made upon schools for the deaf for their education. Some pupils are particularly slow in learning and need special consideration on this basis, but deaf children who are feeble-minded are not considered the responsibility of schools for the deaf. Some pupils have health problems, others emotional or behavior problems which can be adjusted through a well-directed guidance program. In short, while the school for the deaf functions for the primary purpose of educating deaf children, it must give attention to the multitude of individual differences among those deaf children which are bound to be brought to light.

The administrative policies for publicly supported residential schools for the deaf and for the blind within the same State are likely to be closely related. In fact, in some cases the same school serves both blind and deaf children in separate departments. In cases in which a State-appointed agency is in charge of a separate school for the blind,



A group of children work at their seats, while the teacher gives individual attention to each one in turn.

Beginners in woodwork have an opportunity for creative expression.



one finds the same agency controlling the school for the deaf. Of 82 residential schools for the deaf reporting to the Office of Education in 1936, 30 are administered either by the State educational authority or jointly by the State educational authority and another State or private agency.

Superintendents of these institutions are unanimous in their insistence that they should be considered schools in every sense of the word. Repeatedly one hears it emphasized that they are not charitable or eleemosynary institutions. School announcements are likely to contain a statement similar to that which one superintendent used: "The school is purely an educational institution and its one and only purpose of existence is to provide an education for those pupils of school age who are unable to progress satisfactorily in the public school due to total deafness or impaired hearing."

Course of Study

It is logical that the course of study in residential schools for the deaf shall follow closely the course offered by elementary and high schools of the State. During the first 2 or 3 years of the child's residence in the school the greater part of his time must be spent in sense training, voice development, the elements of language, and lip reading. Because of the need for this extended preparatory work his progress through the grades cannot be as rapid as that made by the normally hearing child.

The upper limit of academic work offered differs among the various schools. Some of the private schools are distinctly elementary in nature and make every effort to prepare their pupils for secondary work in high schools with hearing boys and girls. The State schools and other private schools carry their students through one or more years of academic high-school work. One school reports that "the education of a deaf child requires from 12 to 14 years and at the end of that time the child has completed a course which corresponds to junior high school work in a regular public school."¹

In another school it is announced that "the last 4 years of school will cover the work from the sixth to the tenth grades as offered in the public schools. Children will receive units of credit for their work, and when they have earned the required number of credits they will be entitled to a diploma. Other pupils spending more time on vocational work, and not completing all required academic courses, will receive certificates of graduation."²

In still another school "the course of study includes a systematic development of mathematics, language, social and natural sciences, composition, reading, and speech and speech-reading. This course of

¹ Florida School for the Deaf and the Blind, President's Biennial Report, 1936-38, p. 13.

² The Indiana State School for the Deaf. General Information, 1936, p. 8.



These children are in the midst of a unit of experience on the home.

Who doesn't enjoy a circus?



study is separated after the eighth grade into two divisions: One leading toward a certificate upon graduation, and one toward a diploma upon graduation. The last 3 years of instruction in the latter division are organized under the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools."³ Deaf students who wish to continue their studies beyond the high-school work offered by their respective schools may, if they have sufficient command of speech and lipreading, enter any institution of learning for hearing students, or they may take the entrance examinations for Gallaudet College, in Washington, D. C., which is exclusively for deaf students.

Nursery Schools

The fact that the progress of deaf pupils through school is necessarily delayed by the years spent in preparatory work has led to the encouragement of a very early entrance age. Most State schools cannot legally admit children until the age of 5, 6, or even 7 years. A few States, however, now permit a child to be enrolled in a State-supported school at the age of 3 years, and some private schools admit even younger children. One private school has had as many as 50 children under instruction at one time ranging in age from 2½ to 6 years. Sense training in these early years is designed to capitalize the use of the child's eyes and fingers, as well as his sense of vibration and muscular control. Voice development and the elements of lip reading are also emphasized through instruction of an informal type geared to the capacity of the child. Of paramount importance is the pupil's social adjustment, and the nursery school gives the opportunity for play and work with other children conducive to greater adaptability and social consciousness. In general, nursery-school attendance serves the purpose of an early preparatory period and thus expedites the beginning of regular first-grade work at a more nearly normal age.

Curriculum Units

Because of the disproportionate amount of time that must be given to the development of skills in language, speech, and lip reading, it is not an easy matter to coordinate the experiences and interests of deaf children into a vitalized unit of activity more or less informal in nature. Yet this is being done by teachers who have kept pace with progressive developments in educational method, and they are enthusiastic over the results obtained in the stimulation and enjoyment experienced by the children. Among the units reported are those featuring the story of cotton, with its opportunity for getting acquainted with the land and people of the South; a Congo village, built in miniature and depicting life in hot wet regions; books as one's friends, with opportunity

³ The Iowa School for the Deaf, p. 17. (Bulletin of Information.)



These little tots are learning to read words from the lips of the teacher.

Auricular training with a hearing aid helps many children to improve the quality of their speech.



for each child to make and to bind a book; the dairy, with a visit to the school dairy, a churning experience in school, and a study of dairy products and sanitation; and aviation, with activities planned for slow boys, who, in the course of the unit became acquainted with famous aviators, types of planes, and historical flights. All of these projects afford excellent opportunity for the correlation of work in geography, history, reading, language, and industrial arts.

In one school a preparatory class of little people carried on a home project, which is described by the teacher somewhat as follows: ⁴ We know that a little deaf child's vocabulary, even after a year in school, is very limited. In carrying out a project on the home we are afforded the opportunity of teaching the names of the rooms in a house, the furniture, and other parts, as well as a few articles used in each room. The children constructed a house of cardboard; painted it red and white to represent bricks; used cellophane for windows; made furniture for each room of construction paper, the curtains and tablecloth of lace, and the rugs of pieces of tapestry. When the house was completed, we wrote a story about it in our "daily news" period and copied it on reading charts. Each child made a book in the shape of a house, wrote the name of a room at the top of each page, cut out furniture and pasted it on the proper page, and properly labeled each piece. Before the project was over, speech, lipreading, language, writing, and handwork were all involved. The children became acquainted with the fundamental facts of home and family life. They learned, too, how to work together and showed a keen interest throughout the activity.

Speech and Lip Reading

There are several ways in which deaf persons may communicate with one another or with hearing people. They may use a standard system of signs known more or less to most other deaf persons; they may use the manual alphabet in finger spelling, which they have learned in school; they may use pencil and paper and write what they have to say; or they may use speech and lip reading. All residential schools for the deaf give their pupils an opportunity to learn to speak and to read lips. Some schools use this method of instruction exclusively with all pupils. Many administrators and teachers urge "that all schools for the deaf should teach speech and lip reading to all pupils all the time, not in the nature of propaganda or for the exploitation of any method of instruction, but as the God-given right of every deaf child to be equipped to meet the world in as normal a manner as possible. To this end every useful educational device and mechanical aid should be employed." ⁵

⁴ Adapted from a typed account contributed by the Idaho School for the Deaf and the Blind, 1939.

⁵ United States Department of the Interior, Office of Education. Coordination of effort for the education of exceptional children. (Bulletin 1935, No. 7) p. 21.



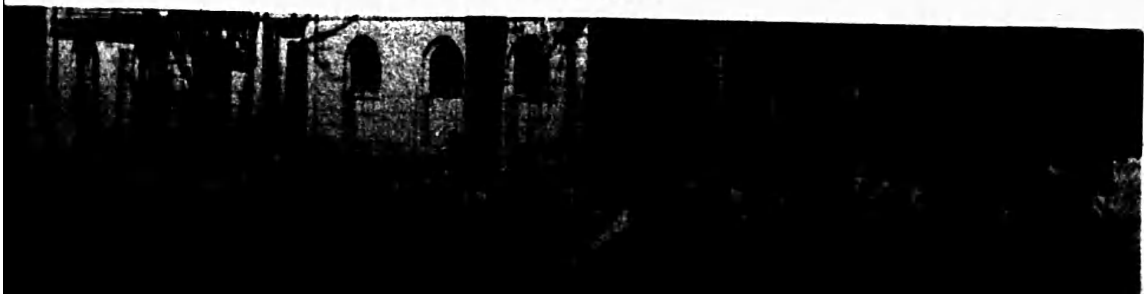
Deaf children experience rhythm through the tactile sense—



↑
and they apply it effectively in the rhythm band—

←
and in folk dancing, too—

as well as in band music.



Other administrators, while recognizing the importance of speech and lip reading, believe that many deaf persons are unable to master these accomplishments and that therefore the method used should suit the individual case. In one school, for example, "Every child is given an opportunity to read the lips and acquire speech. If suitable progress is not made by this method, they are transferred to another class whereby most of the instruction is given by manual spelling and writing. The objective of the school is to give each child a good knowledge of English and the ability to speak and read the lips, if possible."⁶

In years past the relative importance of instruction through speech and lip reading, on the one hand, and the manual alphabet, on the other hand, has probably been the greatest cause of disagreement among educators of the deaf. Today the question is no longer whether there shall be any attempt to teach speech in the residential school, but rather how long that attempt shall be made before the lack of success justifies one in discontinuing it in favor of the use of the manual alphabet. To determine whether failure is due to the child's inability to learn or to hitherto imperfect methods of teaching is not an easy matter. It is hoped that continued research will bring to light facts which will help to answer this question to the satisfaction of all concerned.

Auricular Training

If a child is born with a serious hearing impairment, no amount of training will increase the degree of hearing which he possesses. The ability to use what he has, however, may be developed to an extent which is sometimes surprising. For this purpose auricular training has been instituted in schools for the deaf with the aid of mechanical devices. Since a large number of children in residential schools have some residual hearing, such devices can be a most effective instrument for instruction in speech. The child may hear and interpret through the amplifier sounds which are otherwise unintelligible to him. Thus he learns to imitate in his own speech the sound of the teacher's voice. Through the same means the conservation of natural speech is encouraged on the part of hard-of-hearing children or of children who became apparently deaf after they had learned to talk.

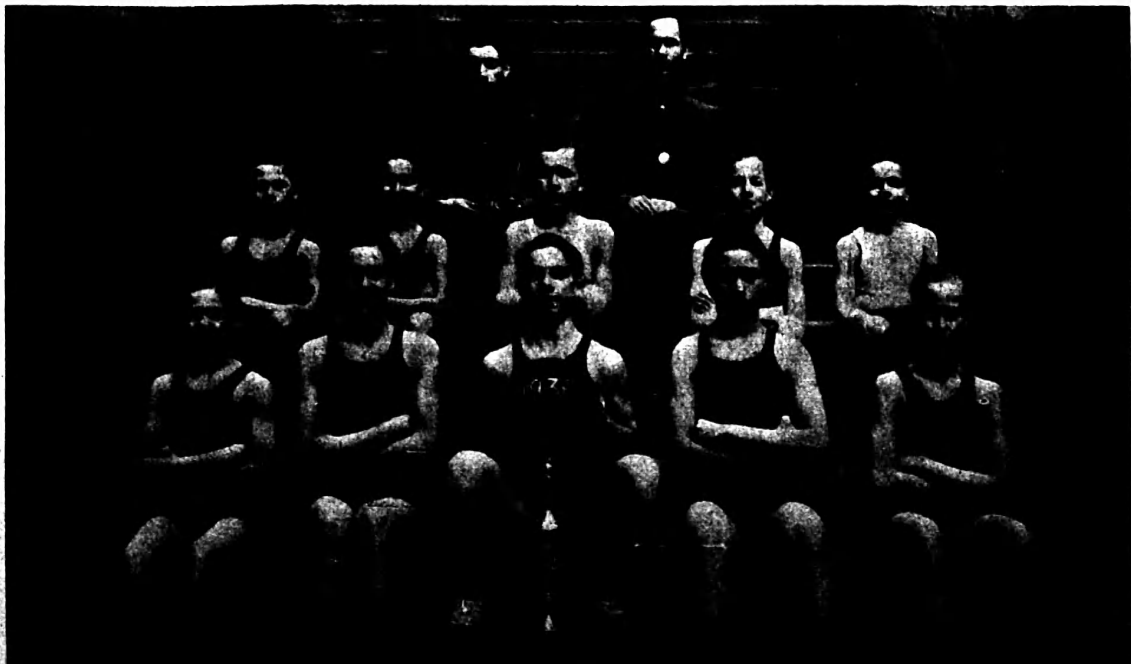
Some schools are working toward the objective of making mechanical hearing aids available to all the children all the time, in order that no stone may be left unturned in the attempt to discover and to stimulate remnants of hearing hitherto unused. One school reports regarding two entering classes in which a hearing aid was used by every

⁶ Florida School for the Deaf and the Blind. President's Biennial Report, 1936-38. p. 14.



The grace and poise of these girls are no less than their skill in archery.

Champions of the county junior league.



child all day or for as much of the day as was logically possible with small children:

The majority of the pupils in these two classes have about 50 percent residual hearing, but none had speech upon entering school. Their progress, not only in speech development, but in general educational acceleration, has been remarkable, and this experience has proven to our satisfaction that the use of hearing aids with all deaf children as much of the time as possible during the first 5 school years of the child's life is vastly important. These early years are the important ones for speech development, for the patterns of speech and voice that are fixed during that time will mark and probably limit the degree of speech efficiency any pupil will ultimately attain. We dare not take a chance, therefore, in denying to any deaf child during that period the opportunity for acoustic training merely because he may appear to have no residual hearing. Remarkable use is made by many children of even only a slight amount of hearing.⁷

Rhythm

Because he cannot hear, the deaf child is oblivious to the existence of rhythmical sequences in the world of sound, and he is therefore unable to translate them into the rhythmical sequence of speech or the natural grace of the body. As a result, one often sees in untaught deaf children a shuffling gait, awkward posture, and clumsy movements of all kinds; and from those who have had a rigorous training in speech one frequently hears a series of explosive sounds in staccato measure instead of the smoothness of voice found among hearing children. Some stimulus other than sound must be utilized to make them appreciate and imitate the rhythm of natural speech as well as the balance and poise of the body. In order to accomplish this, every school for the deaf makes extensive use of the piano. The vibrating strings of the instrument can be readily perceived by the deaf child through tactile experience. This medium, supplemented by the visual stimulus of his teacher's example, helps him to learn to interpret time, accent, pitch, and phrasing, and gradually to put into his own voice the rhythmical flow which he "hears."

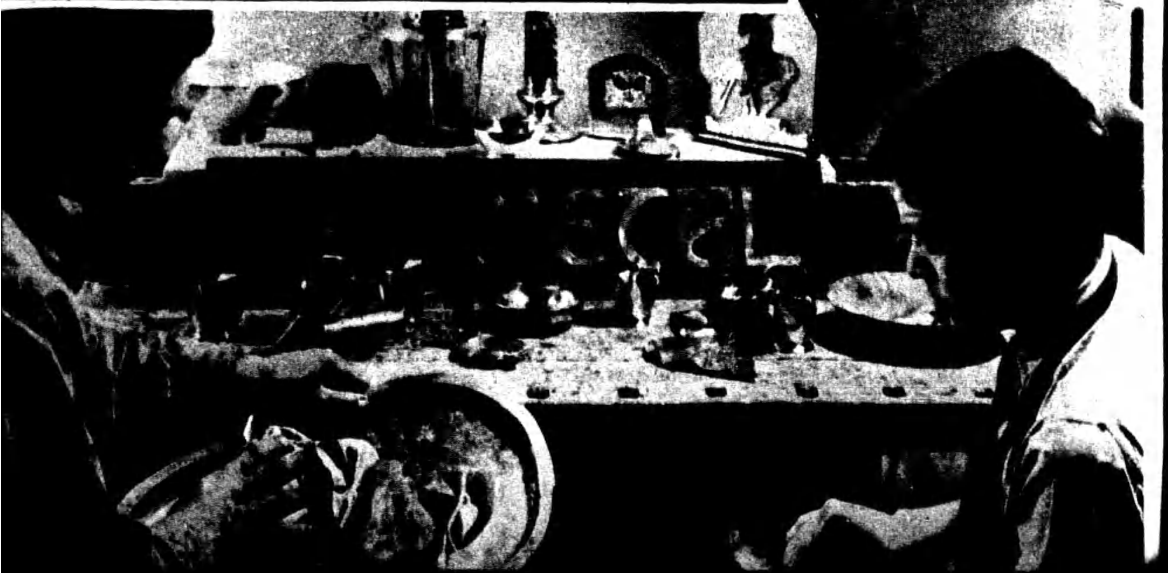
The teacher may accompany the exercises in rhythmical speech with simple rhythmic actions. These in turn constitute the basis for the development of more complicated movements, such as marching, skipping, and even dancing. The grace and perfect time demonstrated by the children are sometimes so remarkable that it is difficult to convince the audience that they do not actually hear the music which accompanies their dances.

When the teaching of rhythm is correlated with auricular training, as already described, the child who has even a small amount of residual hearing has the advantage of using a triple approach of sound, touch,

⁷ Seventy-first Annual Report of the Lexington School for the Deaf of New York City, 1937. p. 15.



Various forms of art give creative occupational outlets.



and sight to the development of rhythmical speech and action. The teacher of rhythm in one school says of such a program:⁸

Throughout its development, rhythm has had an ever-widening scope. Beginning with the sense of rhythm in the body, it has been incorporated in speech training through a tactile approach and more recently it has been correlated with speech through an auditory approach. . . . Its vital connection with both the physical development of the child and its correlation in his speech proves it may no longer be viewed in the light of a passing fancy, but it has become an essential factor in the education of every deaf child.

Toy orchestras, rhythm bands, and even a brass band of deaf pupils are some of the outcomes of an effective rhythm program. The military training offered in some schools is, among other things, a form of expression of rhythmical action. Of its two rhythm bands, one school writes that "more than 50 children are enrolled in the organizations. The children learn the symbols of 20 percussion⁹ instruments. Music is read from simple scores sketched on charts for use with piano accompaniment. The band has 13 pieces in its repertoire and the instruments include rhythm sticks, jingle clogs, sleigh bells, cymbals, triangles, tambourines, wood blocks, drums, bird whistles, xylophones, castanets, and a Chinese gong."⁹

The same school writes of its brass band that "the organization is frequently called upon to play for parades, conventions, and the dances and athletic functions at the school. Known throughout the country for their music, they have played at an International Kiwanis convention; have given a serenade at the Governor's mansion in Springfield; frequently broadcasted over the radio; performed in the main ring of the Sells-Floto circus at a special Kiwanis day celebration in Chicago; and toured the East with a Chautauqua."¹⁰

"Extracurricular" Activities

As with other types of handicapped pupils, so with the deaf, every effort is made in most residential schools to enrich the educational program with so-called extracurricular activities of a socializing nature. Membership in the State interscholastic athletic association, organization of Scout troops and groups with similar functions, literary societies, dramatics, debating, hobby clubs, trips to points of interest, parties of various types, and, last but not least, religious and social service activities are all included in the schedule of the up-to-date school. One superintendent writes: "Our recreational and social program has been a full one. All of the organizations have done

⁸ Kent, Margaret S. Suggestions for teaching rhythm to the deaf. Frederick, Md., Maryland State School for the Deaf, 1938. p. 14.

⁹ The Illinois School for the Deaf (Illustrated booklet of information). p. 9.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, pp. 17, 18.



These are future homemakers learning the science and art of the kitchen and the dining room.



very creditable work. Participation in the many activities has developed a better moral and social attitude on the part of the student body. They have been stimulated by the newly developed interests and enthusiasms to still further activity. These activities, in many instances, have provided the best possible learning situations."¹¹

Occupational Experiences

Like all residential schools, the school for the deaf keeps ever in mind the ultimate objective of returning its graduates to normal community life to take their places as self-supporting and respected citizens. Some persons with seriously impaired hearing have attained marked success in a professional pursuit, but most of them find it easier to make vocational adjustment through trade or industrial service, particularly of the types not requiring extensive communication with fellow workers. Therefore, in those schools which offer vocational training great stress is laid upon such activities. In some schools practically all of the work carried on in the vocational department is really prevocational and of an exploratory type, with the expectation that the student will receive more intensive training after he has left school through the vocational rehabilitation service of the State department of education. In others the vocational offerings are both intensive and extensive. One school for boys operates at least 22 different vocational activities, and it joins 2 other schools for the deaf in the same city in maintaining an employment service for graduates. In 1937 this school reported: "In spite of the employment crisis of the past years it has been possible to secure employment for practically all graduates of these schools since the employment service was inaugurated a little less than 3 years ago. It is quite evident that the advantages of a superior vocational training are reflected in this unusual record of employment."¹²

Because of the fact that academic progress of most deaf pupils is necessarily slow, schools which have a vocational or prevocational department permit many students to be enrolled for such work before they have reached the academic standard usually required in day schools. Students who seem to have made all the academic progress of which they are capable are often allowed to spend most of their time in the shops either for exploratory purposes or for intensive preparation. Among the many occupations for which training is given in various schools are: Applied electricity, art-metal work, auto mechanics, baking, barbering, bookbinding, cabinetmaking, commercial art, farming, floriculture, gardening, general carpentry, laundry work, linotype operating, painting, photography, poultry raising, power

¹¹ Indiana State School for the Deaf, General Information, 1936. p. 14.

¹² New York School for the Deaf, 119th Annual Report, 1937. p. 21.



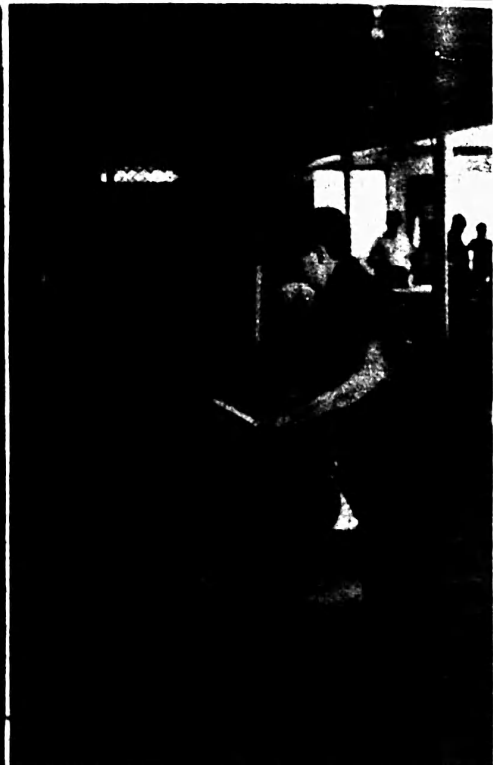
Personal services of the beauty salon and the barber shop are among the occupational fields for which deaf students prepare.





Deaf girls may also become proficient in millinery, tailoring, and dressmaking





Shoe repairing, linotyping, cabinet work and sheet metal work, are a few of the occupations for which deaf boys may prepare.



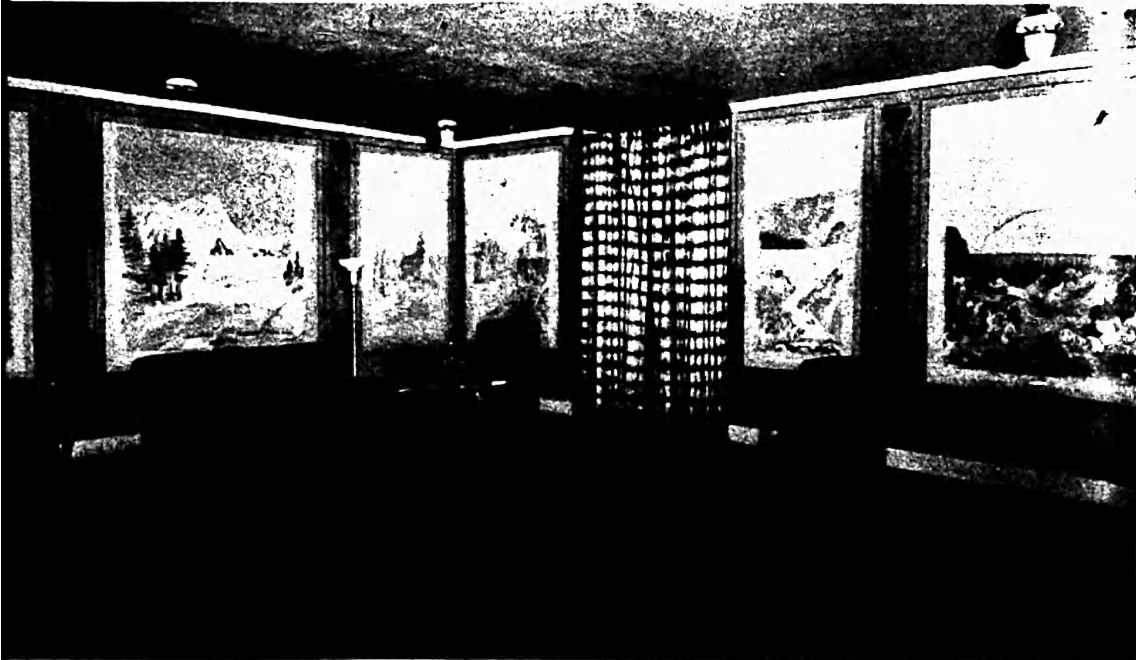
machine operating, printing, shoe repairing, sign painting, tailoring, upholstering, and welding. Particularly for girls there are various types of homemaking activities, beauty culture, costume design, millinery, typing, and a variety of art handicrafts.

Social Adjustment

Deaf people cannot live in a world of their own, apart from all that concerns hearing people. Theirs is the privilege, the right, and the responsibility to find happiness within the world, not away from it. And the achievement of that happiness depends upon two factors. The first is the extent to which they have been prepared to take their places in a hearing world as well-adjusted personalities willing to accept without bitterness certain limitations imposed upon them by reason of their handicap, yet able to achieve in spite of them. The second factor is the extent to which the hearing world in which they live is taught to appreciate the persons that they can be and the work that they can do.

Residential schools have a heavy responsibility in both these areas, and many of them are doing their utmost not only to educate deaf children, but also to educate a hearing public. Pupils are given every opportunity to mingle with hearing children, to visit in the homes of hearing people, to perform before a hearing public, and to demonstrate their occupational efficiency before hearing employers. They are helped to adjust the personality difficulties that inevitably arise in the growing-up process, which are sometimes exaggerated because of the physical handicap, and which without adjustment are an increasing menace to satisfactory human relationships. The teachers make their presence felt outside the school, participate in the work of community service clubs, affiliate actively with State teachers' organizations, and follow the progress of modern educational practices. The hearing public, on the other hand, is informed at every opportunity of the work of the school, is invited to see it in operation, is given tangible evidence of the achievements of its graduates, and is reminded of its needs.

All of these things contribute to the deaf pupil's possibilities for successful living in the days that are to come. As a member of our great American citizenry he should have his opportunity for happiness gained through well-rendered service. The residential school and the day school have much to give to each other in helping him to reach that goal.



In the reception room of a school for unadjusted girls are panels painted by the art class and draperies tied and dyed in the sewing room.

An attractive students' dining room in a school for socially maladjusted boys.



Chapter V: Residential Schools for the Socially Maladjusted

SEVERAL YEARS AGO the superintendent of a State training school for juvenile delinquents ascribed to three major causes the tremendous difficulties which such institutions experience in making their programs effective. These causes were: (1) Ignorance of the possibilities of training for the young people concerned; (2) failure to meet the expense of good training programs; (3) persistence of the traditional concept that the offender must be punished and that his stay in the correctional school must be hard and uncomfortable.

Probably the third of these factors is at the root of the other two; for if the public were thoroughly committed to the doctrine of salvaging socially maladjusted or delinquent youth through a program of reeducation rather than one of penalties, it would study the needs and the possibilities of training in an intensive way, and it would be willing to spend the money required to realize those possibilities. The programs of many State training schools are suffering under the burden of inadequate appropriations and some unfortunately also under political situations which make the young people committed to their care the victims of inefficient administration and teaching. The recognized educational groups within the State frequently know little about what is going on in such institutions and even turn away from them as being entirely outside of their sphere. Yet, if the objective of the institutions is one of reeducation, certainly they are—or should be—schools in every sense of the word, and as such they should share the interest and support of the State's educational leaders.

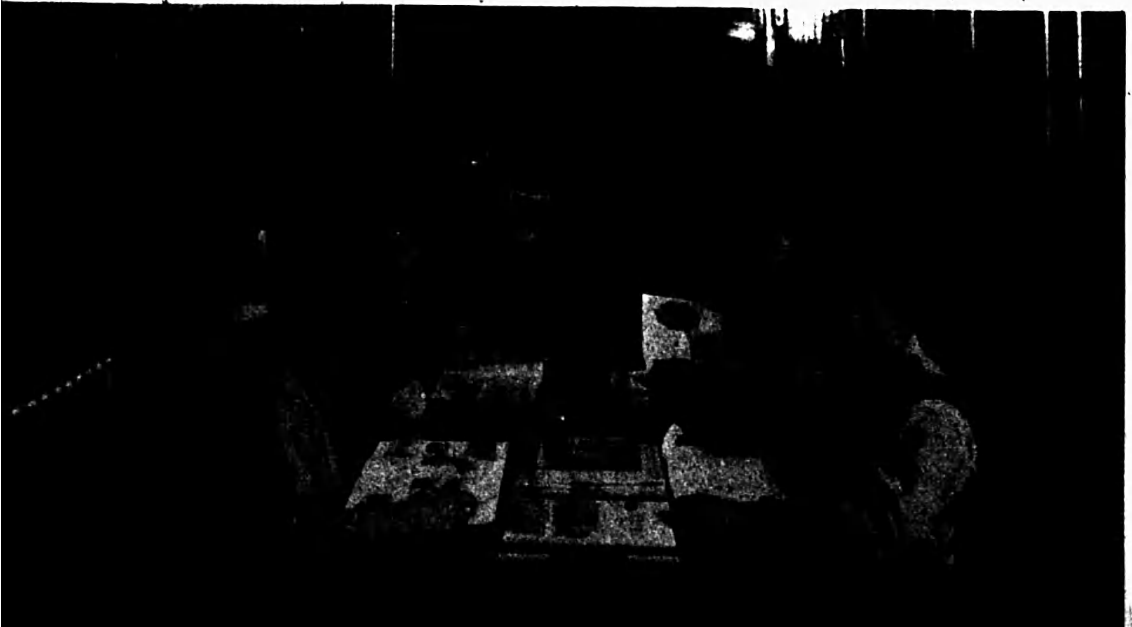
Administration

No doubt one of the elements interfering with such a relationship has been the separation, in most instances, of the administration of training schools for delinquents from that of other public schools of the State. Of the more than 150 institutions of this type in the United States, some operate under a separate board of trustees appointed by the Governor or by a private or denominational agency. Others are administered by the State department of public welfare, still others by the State board of control, the State department of institutions, or even the department of penal institutions. Some are connected with city or county welfare agencies. A few are an



These girls are enjoying themselves in their leisure time.

And these boys are engrossed with their reading in the library of the trade department of their school.



integral part of the State educational system and are administered entirely by the State or local educational authority, while a few others are responsible jointly to the department or board of education and to some other public or private agency.

A close administrative relationship to the recognized State educational agency is of course conducive to the acceptance of the residential institution as one of the schools of the State and to its participation in whatever advantages—and responsibilities accrue from such a connection. Many leaders in the field of delinquency are looking forward to the time when this relationship will more generally obtain. But, whatever the present administrative control, there is no reason why a cooperative relationship should not exist between the agency controlling the residential school and the State educational authority, in order that the best that the State has to give educationally may be offered to the young people in residential institutions as well as to those in the day schools. Only as all agencies concerned can work together sympathetically for the effective reeducation of the boy or girl can we expect the maximum benefit to be derived from the program.

Pupils Enrolled

The chief characteristic popularly kept in mind of the children committed by order of the court to an institution for juvenile delinquents is their antisocial behavior. This is certainly significant, but it is only one aspect of the pupil's problem. Individual differences in intelligence are as great in the residential school as in the day school. One school reports a range of intelligence quotients from 62 to 124; another has a range from 45 to 136. The median for most schools lies somewhere between 80 and 90. These facts alone indicate the types of educational adjustments that must be made to meet the intellectual needs of the pupils enrolled.

The fact that such intellectual needs were not met in the day school has probably in many cases been a contributing cause of commitment to a training school. Academic demands that exceed capacity and the persistent failure to challenge superior ability are both equally fatal to the child's sense of security and self-respect. Then, too, there is the problem of the pupil with normal intelligence but with a serious deficiency in one of the fundamental skills due to a special problem not discovered in the day school. All of these conditions the residential training school finds among the pupils admitted to it each year.

Similarly, there are wide divergences in social background, emotional attitudes, occupational interests, and mechanical abilities. One superintendent 8 years ago called attention to the fact that "boys finding their way into correctional schools are *not* altogether a group of underprivileged, low-grade lads of inferior intelligence and with



Anyone's sons these might be, for whom the modern training school provides sympathetic guidance.

limited education, and without social background."¹ He holds that "correctional schools (for boys), with fully 60 percent of their material amenable to training and with another 30 percent somewhat hopeful if given proper support and consideration, should be classed as educational institutions" which will give "opportunity for proper guidance, supervision, and training."

Aims of the School Program

An increasing number of training schools are attempting to meet the challenge inherent in this superintendent's statement and to put into their programs a vitality of purpose and of instructional content that will both appeal to the boys and girls and be of enduring value to them. The return of the pupil to the community as a fairly well-adjusted individual capable of entering into normal community life is their recognized objective.

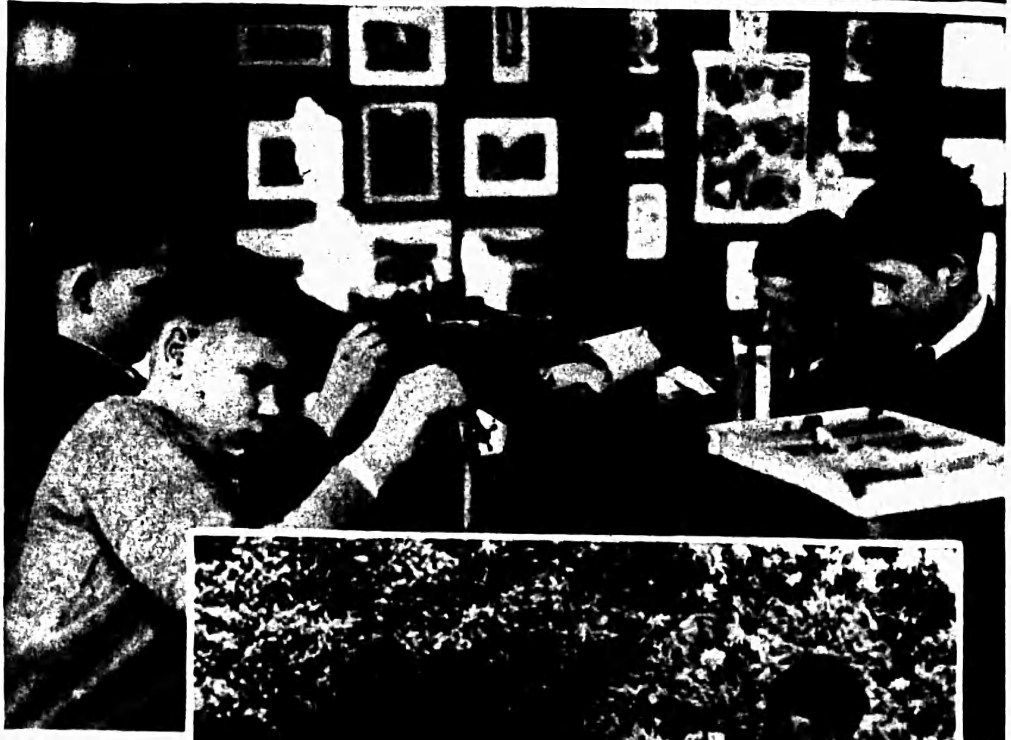
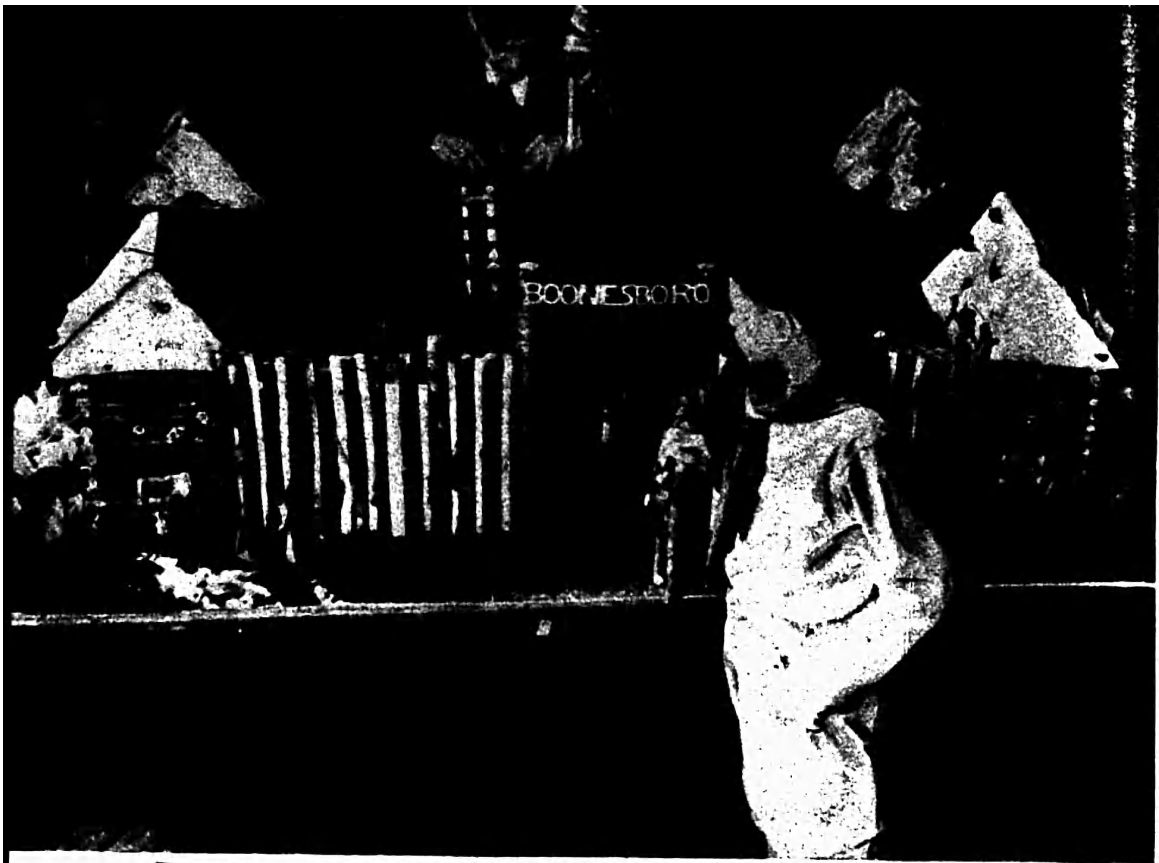
As an example of recent efforts in this direction may be cited the experience of one State school,² the administrators of which in 1936 decided to revise the educational program in such a way as to meet better the individual needs of every boy enrolled. Accordingly, an assistant in psychology at the State university, who had an educational background, was selected as director of education. Recent college graduates who possessed the interest and other qualifications necessary to deal with problem boys were employed as teachers. In their staff were included a full-time librarian, a director of public-school music, three college graduates with majors in physical education and recreation, a teacher of industrial arts, and an instructor in crafts. Existing organization of the school program, curricular content and methods, extracurricular activities, and personnel records were all critically examined, and more progressive practices installed in keeping with modern educational ideals.

In commenting upon the development of the program during the ensuing 2 years, the superintendent of the training school writes:

This has been an experimental program. The curriculum and methods evolved are flexible enough to meet the needs of all the boys and will further develop as conditions demand. In its advancement, the spirit of challenge to accept or reject traditional methods and procedures has been encouraged. That the objectives outlined are attained to an unusually high degree is evidenced by the enthusiastic response with which the program is accepted by the boys and the sense of accomplishment which they feel from a task well done, no matter how elementary it be.

¹ Close, O. H. What should be the training program of a correctional school? *The Journal of Juvenile Research* 15:251-268, October 1931.

² Minnesota State Training School for Boys, Red Wing, Minn. The information here given and the quotation cited are taken from a report of the superintendent entitled "Program of the School Department," issued in 1939.



Units of experience in
Community building,
candle-making, and
photography.

One private school, receiving State pupils, expresses its threefold aim thus: "First, social adjustment; second, training in vocation and academic subjects; and third, desirable work habits."³ This school further states that "social adjustment is of prime consideration in the grouping of children. The factors of age, size, and ability govern grade placement. Traditional school grades are disregarded." The work in this school—as in most such schools—is divided into two major fields, academic and vocational. "The instruction at all levels is shaped around the interest of the children, with enough fixity to mould general trends, and with enough flexibility to meet the needs of the individuals of the group. The opportunity is provided for each child to work at an optimum capacity." Remedial procedures in special subject difficulties are instituted, units of work have an important place in the program, and vocational and semivocational pursuits are presented as "finding fields."

A State school for girls holds that "a program without undue repression, providing the required academic instruction, good vocational training, recreational facilities, sound religious teaching and character development—these provide the only suitable means of rehabilitating the lives of these girls, who are the victims of broken homes, poor neighborhood surroundings, immoral influences, and lack of any constructive factors in their lives. The feeling of security which comes with increased ability, with the development of self-expression, with the development of responsibility through our student government councils—this is what enables a girl to take her place, after training, in the community and function as a desirable citizen."⁴

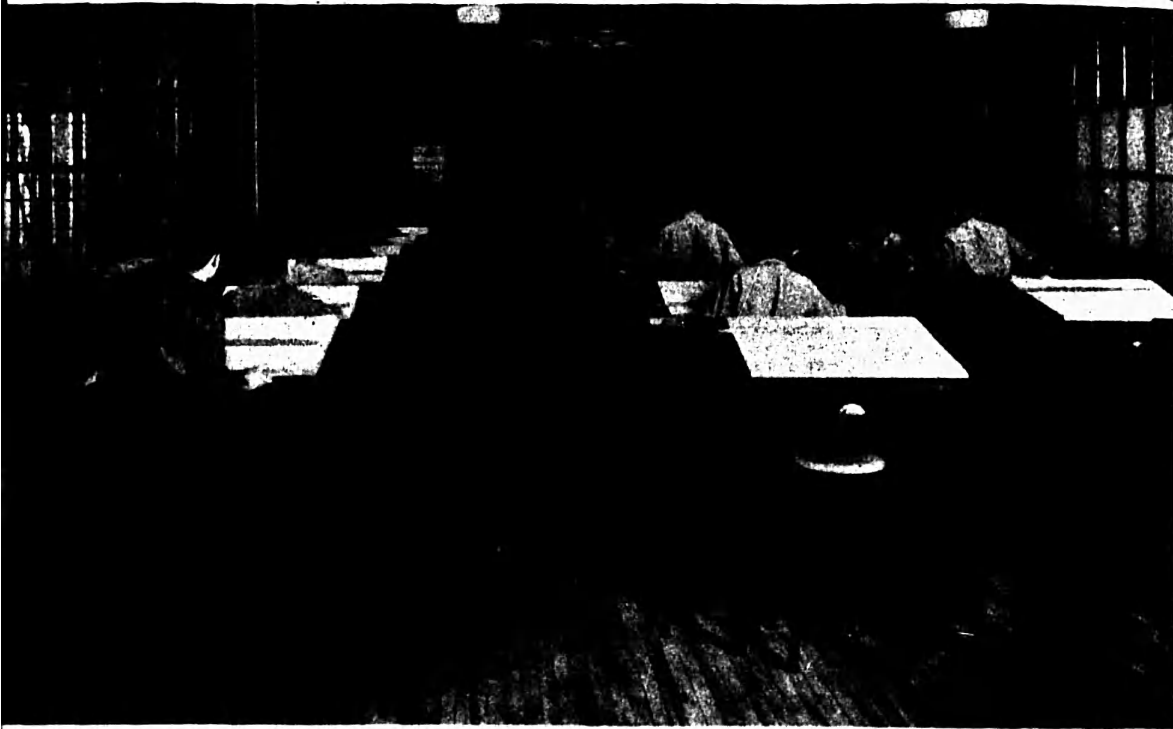
In preparing for a satisfactory return to community life, the modern training school makes it possible for the boy or girl who wishes to continue a regular high-school program to do so without loss of credit. The work done at the training school is evaluated in terms of units and can be applied toward graduation in any high school of the State. The superintendent of a school enrolling 65 girls writes that, in addition to an elementary teacher, there are 2 qualified high-school teachers who follow the "State course of study in order that students leaving before they have finished high school will be able to continue academic work without loss of credit."⁵ Courses in music, German, and French are offered in addition to the more usual ones in English, social studies, mathematics, and science.

A school of more than 200 girls offers a full elementary course and has a high-school commercial department through which high-school

³ The Children's Village, Dobbs Ferry-on-Hudson, N. Y. Children who need special training and education: What can we do for them? p. 7.

⁴ A story of progress, State Training School for Girls, Birmingham, Ala., 1939. p. 13.

⁵ From typed report contributed by the Oregon State Industrial School for Girls, Salem, Oreg., 1938.



Freehand drawing, drafting, and interior decorating afford opportunity for creative design.



credits can be earned.⁶ Another school for both boys and girls, with an enrollment of almost 400, has a faculty of 22 teachers, with a fully accredited elementary and high-school curriculum, including both academic and vocational courses.⁷

A school for older boys reports an average of 90 students each year completing correspondence courses furnished by the State university and State department of education.⁸ In this school "regular classroom work is taught in a modern school building and instruction is given in elementary and high-school subjects, including a class in mechanical drawing, typing, shorthand, and bookkeeping. Night schools, in addition to teaching the above subjects, carry on classroom studies in agriculture and the trades. . . . Vocational books, magazines, or correspondence courses are available for the use of any boy in any trade if he desires to improve himself by evening study. Satisfactory classroom and vocational work is valued in terms of units and can be applied toward graduation in any school."

Units of Experience

If the present-day method of teaching through the use of integrated units of experience has merit in the day schools, it should be no less applicable to residential schools, in which the pupils are in special need of purposeful instruction. A few training schools have seen the possibilities of this method for creating desirable learning situations and are making extensive use of it especially on the elementary level. A school for girls reports a project on Mexico, which included a study of the history of Mexico, life among the Mexicans, their habits and form of dress, and the art of the Aztecs. The girls read stories about Mexico, learned Mexican songs and dances, decorated the room in colorful Mexican style, made Mexican pottery, constructed a Mexican village, and at the end of the project prepared a pageant depicting scenes in Mexico, for which they made their own costumes.⁹

In another school a group of younger boys enthusiastically carried on a unit on "Farmyard Neighbors," in which the teachers of science, music, speech, recreation, and arts and crafts cooperated with the homeroom teacher in planning their work so as to stress the study of farm life. Intermediate groups in the same school studied "Pioneering," with all of its ramifications and implications. Through its dynamic activities in all fields of the curriculum this unit became a true medium for character education.¹⁰

⁶ From typed report contributed by State Industrial School for Girls, Tecumseh, Okla., 1938.

⁷ From reports contributed by Ormsby Village, Anchorage, Ky., 1938.

⁸ The Preston School of Industry, Ione, Calif. (Leaflet of information.)

⁹ From typed report contributed by Oaklawn School for Girls, Howard, R. I., 1938.

¹⁰ "Farmyard Neighbors" and "Pioneering" are units of learning which have been put into printed form, published by The Children's Village, Dobbs Ferry-on-Hudson, N. Y.



Result of a group project in masonry.

← A general shop with various activities.



↑ The print shop is a busy place.

→ Growing things have a charm.



Vocational Emphasis

Ten or more years ago William Burnham named as three essentials of mental health a challenging task, a constructive plan, and well-directed freedom. All three of these still apply, and they are significant in relation to the pupil's personal, social, and vocational future. Not the least of the needs of the socially maladjusted young person is the opportunity to be successful in some form of work, and the vocational emphasis in almost all training schools is an attempt to meet this need. In some schools maintenance or production work still occupies an undue amount of the pupil's time, but in others definite instructional units are offered in a variety of occupational fields, and routine maintenance work is reserved to a large extent for those who lack ability to profit from academic or vocational training. Some schools participate in the State program for vocational education, sharing both the benefits and the duties attached thereto. In these the director of vocational education in the State education department has general supervision of the development of the program.

Agriculture in all of its various phases is a common field of training but numerous trade courses are also offered. One school, in stressing its function as a prevocational and vocational school, conditions the length of the boy's stay primarily upon the time he needs to complete his training in the vocation of his choice, with due consideration given to conduct. When he leaves the school, it is to start working at his chosen trade. The shops are genuine training centers and not merely places of industrial employment for purposes of production in the interests of the institution. Among the units of training offered are general shop carpentry, masonry, painting, and printing. Related subjects of an academic type are taught in connection with the vocational work.¹¹

Another school reports "seven shops well-equipped for vocational and prevocational instruction. Boys of 15 years of age and above are assigned to a shop for at least 3 half days a week. In a case where a desired vocation is not determined, the pupil may have some time in two or three shops as interest-finding or prevocational work."¹² The trades taught are printing, plumbing, auto mechanics, electricity, carpentry, masonry, and painting.

For girls the occupational preparation relates chiefly to commercial, domestic, and personal service. Shorthand, typing, and bookkeeping appeal to some. Household arts and science, child care, home nursing and hygiene, and allied activities are helpful in preparing girls either for remunerative employment or for marriage. Poultry

¹¹ From reports contributed by the Glen Mills Schools for Boys, Glen Mills, Pa.

¹² Annual Report of The Children's Village, Dobbs Ferry-on-Hudson, N. Y. Vol. 86, 1937. P. 41.



Artistic temperaments find expression in sketching, in quilting, and in costuming.



husbandry, gardening, and certain types of farm work make the girl who plans to go back to a rural community better able to take up the responsibilities that will face her there.

Cosmetology proves a very popular course where it is available. One school reports that "a full course in cosmetology is taught and each student must complete it and have 1,000 hours of practice. Then the student takes the State examination and upon receiving her license may work in any beauty parlor. The department is 3 years old. There have been 47 graduates, 43 of whom have been placed in self-supporting positions."¹³

"Extracurricular" Activities

If social readjustment is accepted as the first aim of training schools, they must be responsible not only for the academic and vocational preparation of their pupils, but also for providing social life, recreational activities, moral instruction, and religious contacts, such as those which are found in normal community experiences. One school, for example, reports that "many activities which in most schools are extracurricular are included here in the curriculum."¹⁴ Among its offerings it lists football, basketball, hockey, band, glee club, orchestra, school paper, school yearbook, dramatics, scouting, school pep club, public speaking, hiking, sewing, knitting, and bridge clubs.

This school is a member of the State and regional high-school associations. It participates in athletics, musical festivals, and debates with other schools. The school choir has given a series of programs at the Sunday evening services of the various churches in the city. Frequent excursions are made into the city to visit model houses, demonstrations, picture shows, manufacturing and other plants so as to enable the pupils to gain clearer insight into commercial and productive enterprises of the community. The superintendent writes: "We are finding an increasing willingness on the part of the public to accept our children on the same basis as the pupils of other junior and senior high-schools of the community."

A resident pastor leads the religious activities of the school, which include the weekly church services and Bible school and two Christian Endeavor organizations. A chapel is also in use on Sundays for children of the Catholic faith, with a chaplain in attendance.

Another school reports that it accepts as its task "to take boys who have been given up in public schools and interest them in the same activities in which they were not interested in their home-schools. . . . The extracurricular contests are especially valuable in giving the boys contacts with public-school activities, and make it

¹³ From report contributed by State Industrial School for Girls, Tecumseh, Okla., 1939.

¹⁴ From reports contributed by Ormsby Village, Anchorage, Ky., 1938.



Beauty culture is an attractive calling for some girls—

But others prefer office work.



easier for them to adjust themselves to school work when they return to their homes." ¹⁵ This school is a member of the State athletic, music, declamatory, and forensic associations.

Still another school reports that "few of our boys leave the school without being proficient in swimming, diving, and Red Cross life-saving. They are all taught to know and love such games as basketball, volleyball, baseball, and football. Surprisingly enough, they do not know these common games when they come to us." ¹⁶

Psychological and Guidance Service

The social adjustment of a socially maladjusted individual cannot be achieved without intensive study of his likes and dislikes, his abilities and disabilities, his strengths and weaknesses, his emotional responses, his vocational aptitudes, his environmental history, and all that goes to make up the person that he is. Hence psychological and guidance service of a specialized type is indispensable in a training school. In a few schools a well-equipped mental-hygiene clinic has been installed, with physical, psychological, psychiatric, and social service. All pupils are carefully examined upon admission and the clinical recommendations are carried out by the educational and other personnel of the institution, subject to modifications as advised through continued study.

An evaluation of the mental abilities of the children is deemed of prime necessity. Progressive training schools use the findings of both psychological and educational achievement tests to aid in grade placement, in plans for remedial procedures, and in the choice of avocational activity in keeping with the pupil's interest and capacity. And all of this must be done on an intensely individual basis.

It has already been indicated that every training school enrolls a considerable number of pupils who are unable to do what is considered standard school work, and in some cases even those who must be classed among the mentally defective and who really belong in a separate institution for the defective delinquent. As long as these remain in an institution for the socially maladjusted, however, the curriculum must be modified accordingly, just as it is adjusted in the day schools to meet the needs of mentally deficient children in special classes.

Carefully kept cumulative records are an important element in the total guidance program. These can be a veritable gold mine of information to point the way toward proper media of adjustment. All that the physician, the psychologist, the guidance worker, the teacher, and the social worker find out about the boy or girl contributes some-

¹⁵ Thirty-fifth Biennial Report of the Superintendent and Fifteenth Biennial Report of the State Agents of the Training School for Boys, Eldora, Iowa, 1936. p. 37.

¹⁶ From typed report contributed by Florida Industrial School for Boys, Marianna, Fla., 1938.



Swimming, folk dancing,
and gymnastics help
to build sturdy bodies.



thing to his story of progress. The residential training school serving its charges effectively uses every available device for making its guidance program a personally supervised one, in which pupil and counselor work together toward a solution of the youth's greatest problem—that of finding a way to make good in terms of his own personality.

A Letter

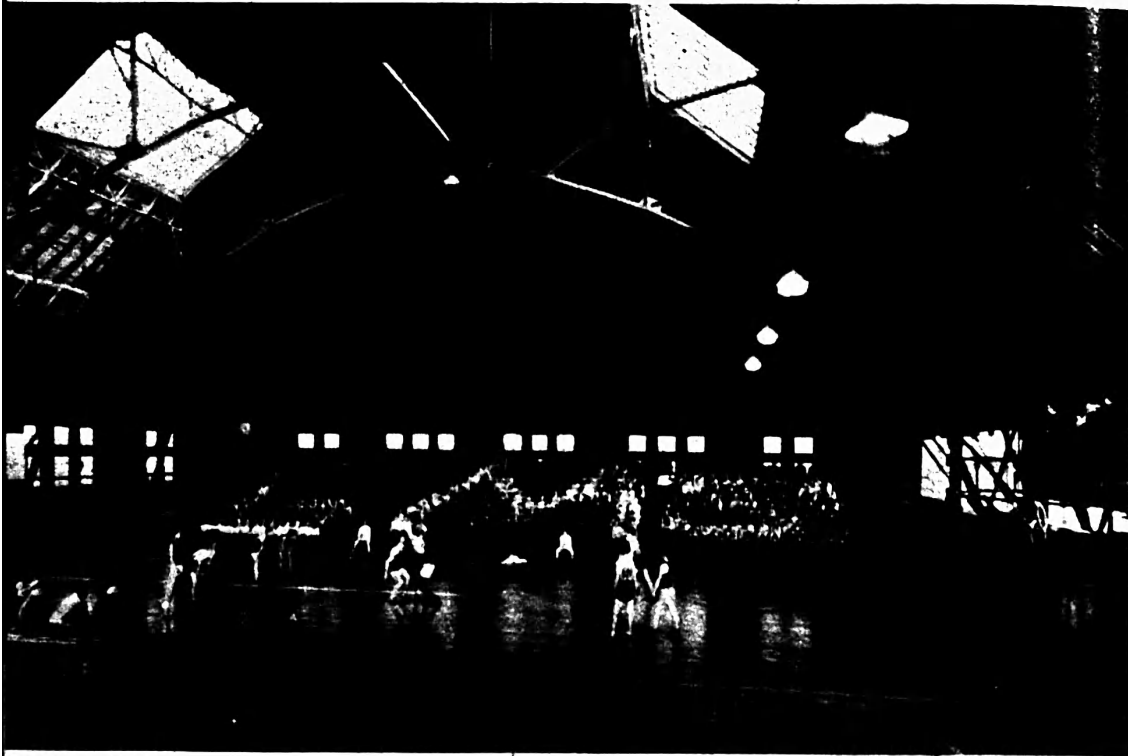
Institutionalization has its weaknesses. Political control, inefficient administration, lack of adequate buildings and equipment, unsatisfactory curriculum, poorly qualified teachers, absence of a personal guidance program, lack of understanding of pupils' needs are all faults which may be found in some residential schools just as they are found in some day-school systems. Moreover, inherent in institutionalization there are disadvantages that have been weighed carefully against its advantages. Regimentation is all too easy and too common. Some leaders in social work are studying the potentialities of foster-home care and other means of changing the environment of the offender without institutionalization. Significant success has been attributed to some of the means used in contrast with the failures of the institution. Such failures must be admitted—too many of them. But there are also successes—successes conditioned to a large extent by public attitude and public support of a program in keeping with the highest ideals of education. What one girl said upon the eve of leaving a State training school for a period of parole is a suggestion of what one should like every youth to be able to say as a result of his stay in such a school:

I have learned to work. I know that I can go to any home and work and know what I am doing rather than having to wait for someone to come to me and tell me what I should do next and how I should do it. I have learned a new meaning of cooperation. I know that unless I cooperate with the person that is next to me I will not get my work done, and if I do get it done it may not be done as it should be. There are other people in this world besides me and they sometimes like a little recognition. I can't expect to get all I can for myself and not give anything to the other person and still make friends. And above all else I want to make friends.¹⁷

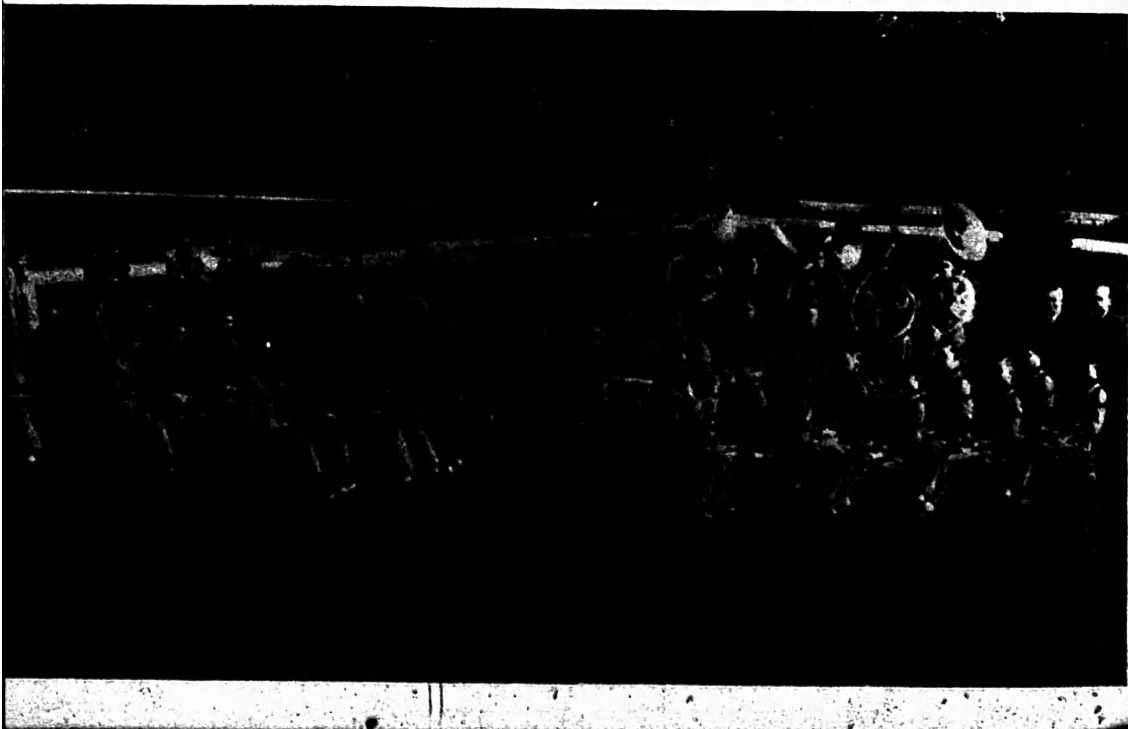
Another girl who had left the same training school and had subsequently been graduated from one of the day high schools of the State wrote:

My experience at the training school has taught me that you just can't ignore all the rules of nature and God and man and not pay the penalty. And it's never worth the penalty. I have realized more clearly than ever, since I have been home, how

¹⁷ From a paper delivered by one of the girls of the Iowa Training School for Girls, Mitchellville, Iowa, at the Quarterly Conference of the Superintendents and Agents of the State Board of Control, 1938.



The boys have opportunity for sports and music.



wrong I was. I, myself, am much happier. I have friends that never would have accepted me before, and I have fun without being "bad."

Not long ago a radio program brought to the microphone a young man who as a boy had been sent by an understanding judge to an industrial training school where he "could learn to be an electrician as good as his father was." Without hesitation this young man paid tribute over the radio to the judge who had pointed the way and to the school which had changed the course of his life through its program of educational and social rehabilitation. He now has a home and children of his own, and he is a trusted employee of a large electrical plant. The testimony which he gave constituted a rousing challenge to the public and to educators everywhere: First, to help *prevent* delinquency through a purposeful day-school program; and, second, to help *correct* delinquency through sincere support of a vitalized training-school program and other provisions for those whose antisocial ways have not yielded to the guidance which the day school has been able to give.



A picture book nook made just for them.

What could be more fun than finger painting on the lawn?



The floats of a circus parade bring a thrill to these children.

Chapter VI: Residential Schools for the Mentally Deficient

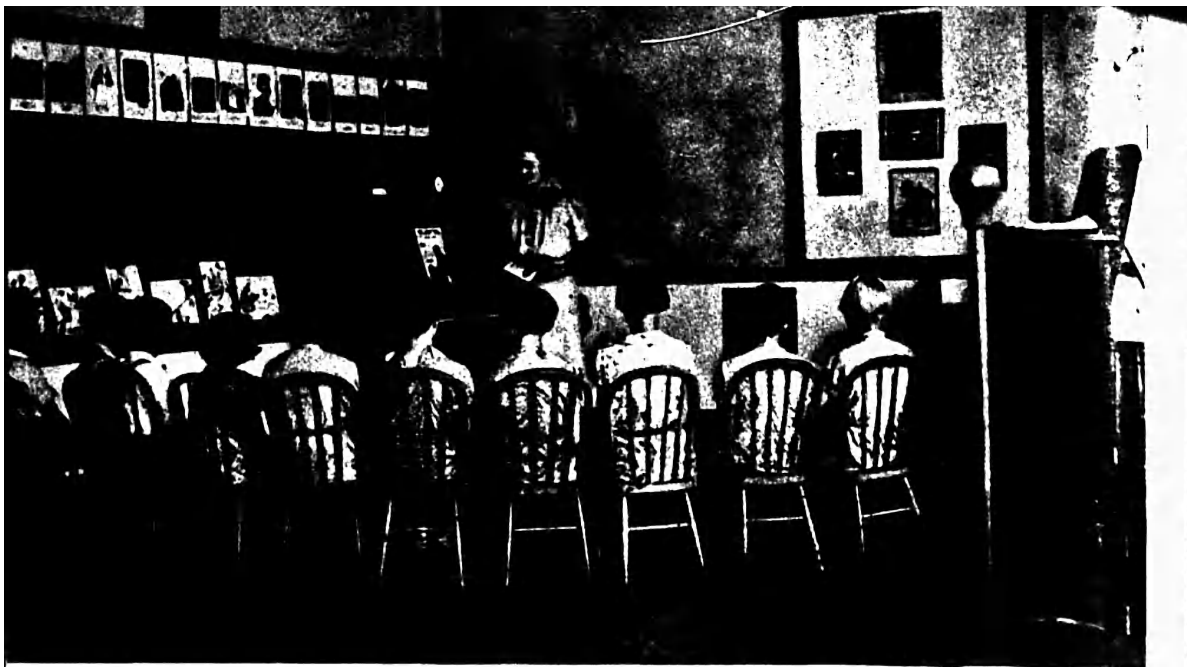
WHEN A CHILD has been committed by order of the court to a State institution for the "feeble-minded," it is popularly supposed that his intellectual condition is hopeless. In the eyes of the community he is ostracized—relegated to institutional life for the rest of his days—unsuited to live among normal people. The door of community interest is closed upon him and he becomes a "forgotten man."

It is undoubtedly true that a considerable percentage of the approximately 100,000 inmates, young and old, of institutions for the mentally deficient rightfully belong to the category of permanent dependents. But it is equally true that even those who are permanently dependent because of a serious mental deficiency are not for this reason hopelessly uneducable. Some indeed are, and they lead a vegetative existence. But the degrees of mental deficiency found in an institution extend over a wide range. At the bottom of the scale are those who must be classed as idiots. Others are not so far from normal or border-line intelligence, and between the two extremes one finds a very large number of imbeciles and morons. It is a well-known fact that numerous inmates of residential institutions for the feeble-minded have an intellectual ability equal to that of many persons who are at large.

Why, then, are they there? Because complicating situations, such as antisocial behavior or inadequate home or community supervision, have made such placement advisable. Yet society still faces the responsibility for their education—education which recognizes their limitations, develops their capacities, and prepares them either to live happily and constructively within the institution or to resume their activities in the community outside the institution.

The Place of Education in the Institution

The degree to which residential institutions for the mentally deficient discharge their educational responsibility varies widely among the States. Some institutions are predominantly custodial in character, emphasizing the physical care of the inmates and physical work by the inmates to promote institutional industries. Others give to the educational program the prominence which it deserves, fulfilling the



This classroom looks like any primary classroom in a day school.



This reading and study nook has a fascinating atmosphere.

A poor reader but well versed in baseball, this boy found an outlet and incidentally some reading ability in making a scrapbook.



purposes of the earliest schools in the United States established in the middle of the nineteenth century "for teaching and training idiotic children."¹

From one point of view the entire life of the institution may be considered an educational experience. Work in the fields, in the cottages, or in the institutional shops can be of significant instructional value if it is carried on as a means to pupil development and not merely as an end in itself deemed useful to the institution. Likewise, supervised recreational activities constitute a potent factor in growth and are therefore a valid part of the total educational program. Yet within this total structure of institutional life there is a segment which corresponds to that which is called "school"—an organized program of work in classroom, gymnasium, music room, shops, and laboratories, carried on for those pupils who can profit by it or by any part of it. As one superintendent says: "The school occupies the same place in the institution that any public day school occupies in its community."² According to reports sent to the Office of Education in 1936 by 130 institutions for the feeble-minded in the United States, about one-fourth of the total number of inmates of these institutions were engaged in school work.

This proportion varies, of course, with the type of population found in the institution. Some institutions are reserved for the higher grade of mentally defective children and young people, and in these the percentage of inmates actively enrolled in school is expected to be higher than in institutions with a population much more unselected as to both intelligence and age. One public residential school, for example, which is primarily designed for adolescents with intelligence quotients of 50 or above, reports an average daily resident population of almost 700 and an average daily attendance in school of approximately 400. Those who are not in school are boys and girls past the age of 16, who are engaged in full-time trade training of the nature of an apprenticeship. A private school enrolling about 200 children whose intelligence is at the imbecile level or higher reports them all as participating in school work.

Children at these levels of intelligence are admittedly entitled to an education within the limits of their capacity. The superintendent of one State institution says in his annual report: "We feel that all of the trainable mental defectives should receive some training by the school department until they have definitely learned as much from an academic standpoint as their intellectual capacity will permit."³

¹ From bound volume of documents and reports of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, 1852.

² From typed report contributed by Northern Wisconsin Colony and Training School, Chippewa Falls, Wis., 1938.

³ Report of the Mansfield State Training School and Hospital, Mansfield Depot, Conn. State of Connecticut Public Document No. 65, 1936, p. 11.



↑
These girls are ready for
classwork.



←
A unit on cotton proves of
absorbing interest to this
girl.

The School Program

The plan of school activities in residential schools can best be compared with the program of special classes for mentally retarded children in day schools. There is the same need for making the material of instruction simple and concrete, familiar to the pupil's experience and within his comprehension. There is the same emphasis upon the development of his sensory and motor abilities, the same recognition of his academic limitations, the same need for consideration of "the whole child," with all of his idiosyncrasies, defects, interests, and emotions. In fact, the residential school has a distinct advantage over the day school in that it has the *whole child* the *whole day* and the *whole year*. It thus has a greater opportunity to study every phase of his life and to unify the entire institutional program about the child as a center.

The progressive residential school accepts as its first objective the maximum physical and mental health of its charges. It eradicates every physical defect yielding to treatment and makes the general environment of the child contribute to contentment and social adjustment within the confines of institutional life. The pupil's education begins with sensory training and the development of muscular control, for which the classroom, the gymnasium, and the playground offer abundant opportunities.

In one State institution⁴ with an unselected population the divisions of the school program are indicated as: (1) nursery school; (2) kindergarten; (3) preprimary to sixth grade. These remind one of similar divisions in many modern elementary school systems. No class in this school numbers more than 15 pupils, and each child has the opportunity for academic instruction, industrial arts or occupational therapy, physical education and recreation, band, chorus, dramatics, and speech correction as needed.

From a county institution serving the higher grades of mental defectives comes the statement that "the day school proper consists of eight academic rooms, three handicraft rooms, five shops, a cooking room, and a sewing room. Each of these is considered vital and important in the training of our children and one is not given precedence over another. The children's time is divided about equally between the academic classes and a manual assignment. There is a constant striving to keep the two fields closely allied and correlated. At the age of 16 years, a boy or girl is given an opportunity for a full day of vocational training as it applies to practical situations. A few months before his sixteenth birthday a boy or girl may take advantage of this opportunity if it is felt by those who know and understand the child that it is for his best interest."⁵

⁴ District Training School, Laurel, Md. (From typed report, 1938.)

⁵ From typed report contributed by Wayne County Training School, Northville, Mich., 1938.



The school's most skilled jigsaw operator.



A lard pail, items of waste, some paint—
and here is the completed bird house.



Academic work is correlated with
shop needs.

Experience Units

Academic skills are the right of every child, and mastery of even the simplest elements of reading, writing, and numbers can bring untold satisfaction to the mentally deficient. Each pupil in the well-conducted residential school is encouraged to go as far as he can in academic accomplishment and not infrequently one finds pupils doing fifth or sixth grade work, or achieving even higher standards in certain fields.

But academic skills are valuable only insofar as the pupil can apply them to the experiences of his everyday life. Units of experience, which integrate the learning of the child, have just as important a place in the residential school as in the day school. If the experience and interests of the child can be used as the approach to teaching the fundamental processes common to every child's education, a learning situation results which makes his education a meaningful unit instead of being composed of isolated compartments, no one of which seems to him to have any connection with any other.

In one school,⁶ for example, the teacher of an intermediate group aroused in the pupils an interest in children of other lands, and the result was a unit of activity relating to Holland, its people, and its customs. Pictures, stories, and poems constituted the background of inspiration for study and creative work. A trip from New Jersey to Holland via the wall map was great fun. Spelling, writing, language, and arithmetic lessons drew their content from the story of Holland. Freehand crayon drawings, spatter work, cut-outs, and soap carvings depicted Dutch children, flowers, windmills, boats, and landscapes. Songs of Holland became the feature of the music hour and original rhymes were set to music. Dutch folk dances were an excellent medium for physical education. The climax came when the children staged a puppet show for which they constructed all the material and planned the action. Thus the unit provided opportunity for the correlation of all the curriculum fields in one complete project.

An older group of girls in another State school⁷ used the springtime days for a study of birds and found the haunts of many of them in the institution grounds and the woods nearby. Each girl wrote her own story of the bird as she found it, then supplemented the story with a picture of the bird which she drew and colored, and made and painted clay models of birds. Some constructed bird houses. Bird songs and birds' calls were played on the phonograph, and the class music hour gave the opportunity for learning some of these. The joy received from the opportunity of knowing better their little feathered friends could not help but be reflected in the whole demeanor of these girls.

⁶ Vineland State School, Vineland, N. J. (From typed report, 1938.)

⁷ Sonoma State Home, Eldridge, Calif. (From typed report, 1938.)



Some homemaking activities to prepare the girls for future responsibilities.



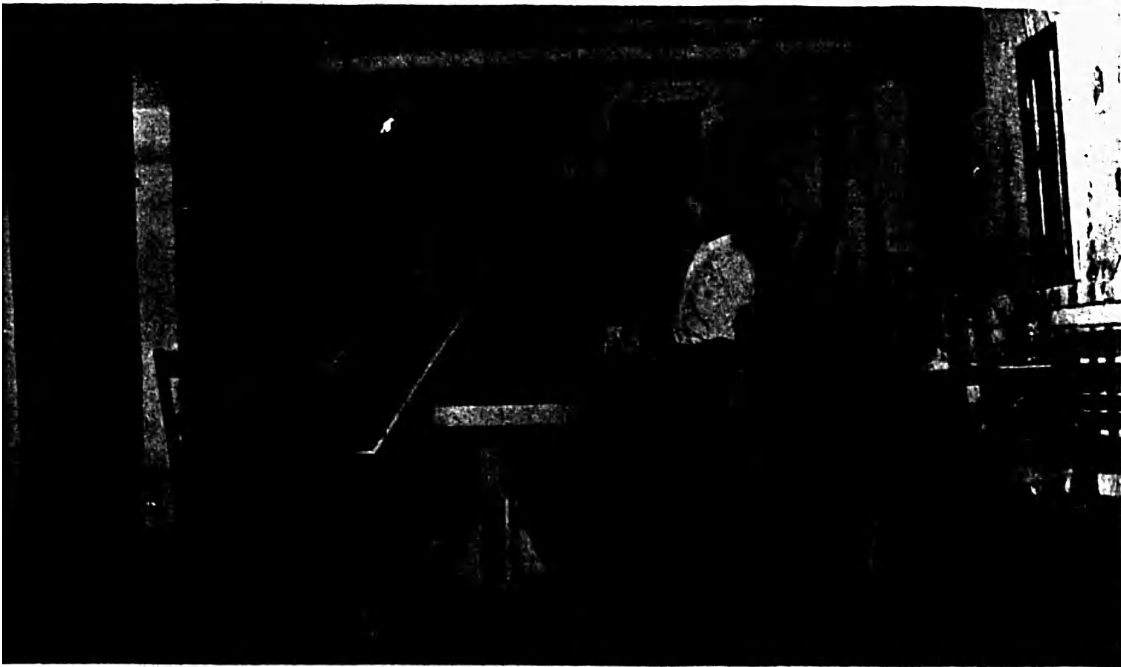
It seemed as though some of the music of the birds were transferred into their lives.

In the county school to which reference has already been made the project method of instruction is found to be "a very useful approach in the training of subnormal children. Sources of projects are abundant in whatever the children are doing in handwork classes, in the cooking room, the sewing room, and the manual training shop, in the gymnasium, in their play, or at home. Frequently several subjects may be motivated through a single project. For example, a teacher has vitalized arithmetic, reading, writing, spelling, and language by means of having the girls work up a budget of living requirements. The purpose of the activity was to correlate all other school activities and to carry over to life in the home. The children, imagining themselves paid an hourly rate, were budgeting their earnings as though they were adults, figuring closely on the necessary requirements out of a meager salary, making their own problems, and not even forgetting to allow for a possible rainy day by depositing some of their earnings in the bank."⁸

In this same school "a maple-grove project resulted from a trip to the maple grove located on the grounds. The children saw 700 maple trees with 700 pails to receive the sap; they saw how the sap was boiled and made into maple syrup; and learned that it took about 40 gallons of sap to make a gallon of syrup. In the classroom they reconstructed the scene. There were the trees with the paper pails hanging from them, the snow-covered ground. There was the boiling hut, with the miniature tanks filled with real sap from the trees. Paper men and boys represented the workers. And how interested the children were! It had been their project, their choice as a unit of instruction for nature study, health education, reading, writing, spelling, and arithmetic."⁸

Similarly planned units of work reported from these and other schools for the mentally deficient deal with the varied and interesting experiences of communication, transportation, Indian life, flowers, wild animals, the farm, the store, the home, and numerous other topics commonly used in regular day schools. Boys and girls of a given age are interested in many of the same things regardless of their level of academic intelligence. It is the task of education to adjust the content of the unit and the standards of expected achievement in accordance with the capacity of the students to learn, whether they are in day schools or in residential schools.

⁸ Haskell, Robert H., An organization for the training of high-grade mental defectives, Proceedings of the Fifty-Sixth Annual Session of the American Association for the Study of the Feebleminded, Philadelphia, Pa. 1932. pp. 260, 261.



Creative Expression

Residential schools recognize the need of every child for some avenue of creative expression. To satisfy this need they assign an important place to music, art, dramatics, handicraft, and other creative outlets. Orchestras and bands organized among the pupils do very creditable work. Dramatic performances are sometimes of a high order. The results of hand work are heralded far and wide. In fact, persons visiting a residential school for the first time are frequently amazed at what they see being accomplished through the educational program. "If mentally deficient children can do that," one hears a visitor say, "what should we expect of normal children?" Another says, "I don't believe these children are feeble-minded. No feeble-minded child could do that. I couldn't do it myself."

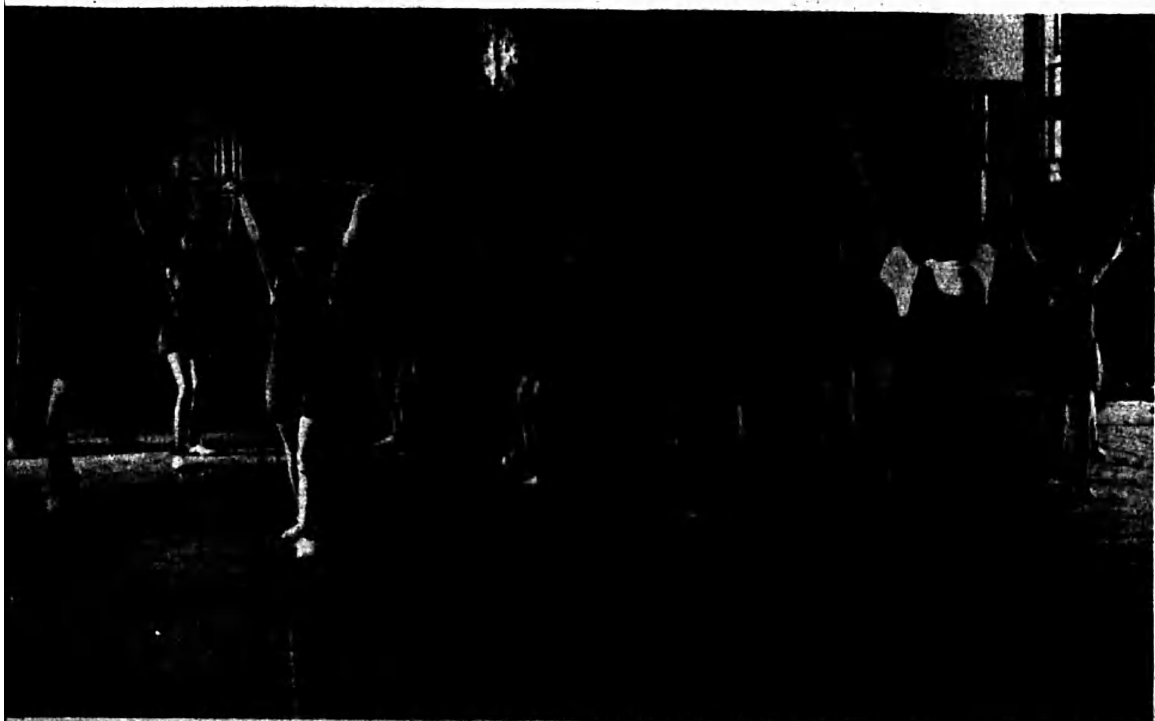
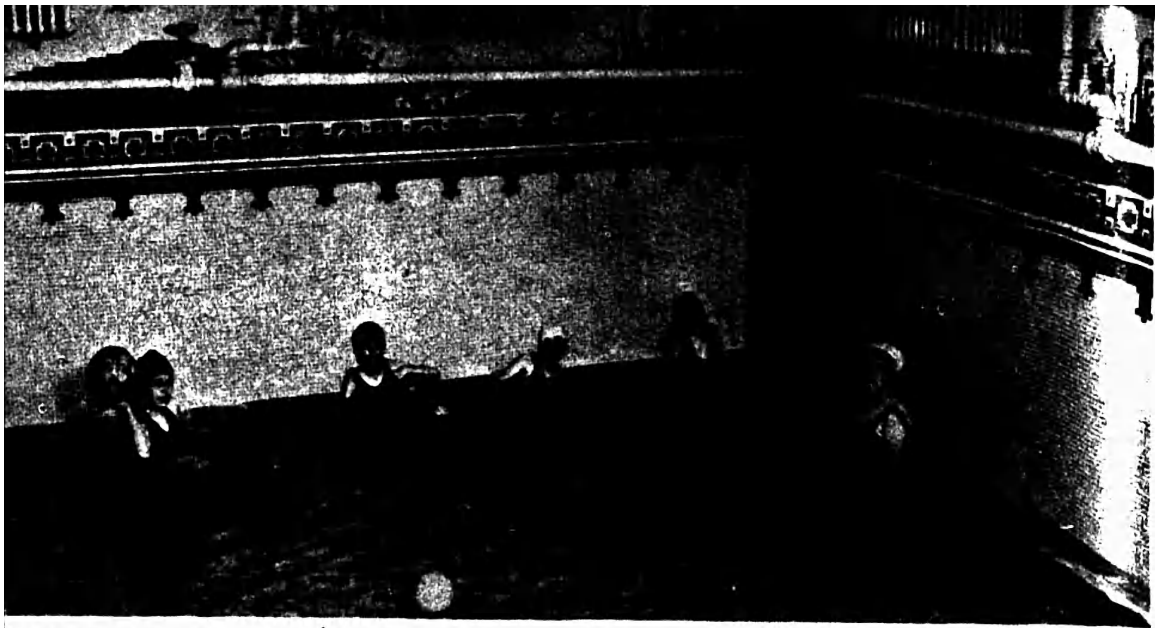
It is true that some routine mechanical skills are mastered by mentally deficient persons through persistent practice to a degree seemingly inconsistent with their mental ages. But no one yet knows what the limits of achievement for particular mental ages are in many directions other than the academic. And again let it be said that the members of residential schools for the mentally deficient are *not* all of extremely low intelligence. Many of them approximate in academic capacity some of the retarded pupils enrolled in day school. To these—and to all—every opportunity should be given to develop creative ability in whatever direction it can find expression.

Physical Education and Recreation

If the residential school is to realize its objective of maximum physical and mental health for each person in its care, it must place its program of physical education and wholesome recreation near the top of its list of curricular offerings—not mere formal gymnastics, although these have their place especially for individual remedial work, but an organized and supervised program of bodily exercise and outdoor activities that stimulate interest as well as circulation. Some schools see this need so vividly that they have in progress extensive schedules of sports, hobbies, and clubs, which fulfill a double function as socializing influences and means of physical development.

"Basketball has become the popular winter pastime of the boys,"⁹ writes one superintendent. "We have two teams that play every Tuesday night throughout the basketball season. The first team plays against the teams of junior-high and high-school boys in the Junior League in Chippewa Falls, and occasionally against teams from Eau Claire Y. M. C. A. The other team, made up of older boys, plays against the best teams we can find in the surrounding towns.

⁹ From typed report contributed by Northern Wisconsin Colony and Training School, Chippewa Falls, Wis., 1928.



Some physical activities and sports that help to build stronger bodies and greater poise.

The Colony boys give these teams stiff competition, winning last season approximately 70 percent of their games. To close the season last year, we played off a tournament among all the boys who had been out for basketball, and the interest and enthusiasm shown by all who participated were most gratifying."

The same school reports that its Boy Scout troop has completed 11 years of registered membership. The troop has taken several hikes during the year. It put on a program at the cemetery on Memorial Day. It has directed traffic and guided visitors at the institution, and its members have gone on searching parties for boys who had wandered away from the playground. Another school with a more highly selected population reports approximately 150 children working under an active Scout program.

A school¹⁰ in the South tells of a Boy Scout who designed and sketched a table, presented it to the shop instructor for criticism and acceptance. Then he finished the product as one part of his work for a merit badge in woodwork. Another Scout wrote a composition on music, presented it to his academic teacher for a critical survey of techniques, and to his music teacher for approval of content.¹¹ This boy is working for a merit badge in music.

Basketball and Scouting are only two of the myriad types of outdoor activities encouraged for both boys and girls. Baseball and softball teams have been organized. Archery, skating, badminton, swimming, tumbling and pyramid building, volley ball, folk dancing, pageantry, excursions, and various types of outdoor games are all suitable in their season and they fill a valuable place in the education of mentally deficient children. To what heights physical skill and muscular control can attain among them is amply demonstrated in one of the pictures shown on the opposite page.

Another phase of recreational activity emanates from the school library. It might be thought by some that recreational reading would have no place in the lives of mentally deficient children, and it is true that it must be carefully guided and supervised if interest is to be aroused and maintained. Yet in some institutions the school library is a very active place. One school reports that "the boys and girls have a period once a week to come to the library, select the books they may want to read, and take for a week or longer to the cottages in which they live. Many of the children make their own selections; others need help from the librarian."¹¹

The librarian in another institution writes:

If you would spend a day in our library, you might see a group of kindergarten boys busy with picture books in the hour they have between breakfast and the opening of school; at 9 o'clock

¹⁰ State Training School, Clinton, S. O. (From typed report, 1939.)

¹¹ From typed report contributed by Iowa State School, Glenwood, Iowa, 1938.



↑
Boys at work in the manual training shop.

→
A seriously retarded girl learns to weave.

↓
An exhibit of which any school may be proud.



a long line of custodial girls arriving with sacks full of books which they are taking to exchange for those girls in their building who are unable to come each week. Other periods of the day teachers bring their classes for a half-hour among the books. They might be browsing that day, or they might be hearing book talks, or learning how to locate books and use the tools of the library.

A library for the feeble-minded should be, I feel, a place where they may relax from the routine of institution life and develop their own interests; where they may browse and discover, with our guidance, new fields that they will perhaps never be able to explore first hand. I want that kind of atmosphere in the library. I want others to think as the little girl did on her first visit after the library had been treated to freshly stippled cream and green walls—"Why, it's just like being out in the world, isn't it?"¹²

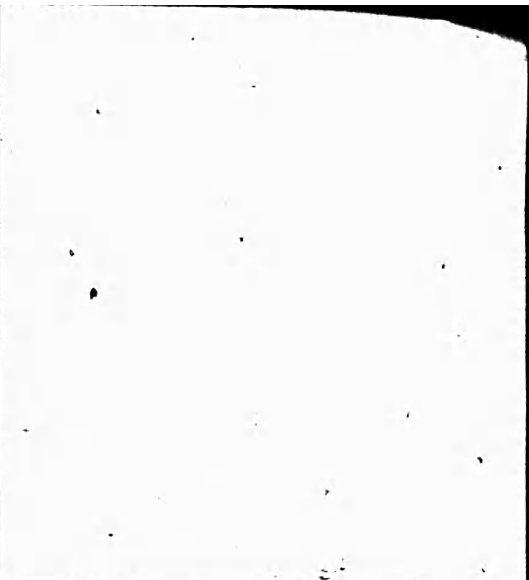
Psychological Service and Research

One of the objectives of the American Association on Mental Deficiency is stated as "Mental examination of all backward children. Early recognition of existing mental defects affords the greatest opportunity for the child." Early recognition of disabilities in learning may also lead to the eradication of those which are remediable; early recognition of the strengths and weaknesses of the child may lead to the capitalization of his assets; and early recognition of emotional and physical difficulties may lead to the removal of inhibitions to learning.

It is for these reasons that some residential schools for the mentally deficient place so much importance upon the availability of psychological service, not only for the institution as a whole but in an intensive way for the children enrolled in school. In addition to intelligence tests, both of verbal and performance type, which are ordinarily used for the initial diagnosis of mental capacity, some schools use tests of manual dexterity, tests of practical judgment, interest and aptitude tests, and scales of personality and social maturity. Achievement is measured from time to time through standardized educational tests particularly in reading, arithmetic, and spelling. Cumulative records and periodic reports indicate each child's progress physically, educationally, and socially.

All these data serve the same primary purpose in residential schools as in day schools—the guidance of the individual child in the light of his own needs and possibilities. Unfortunately State appropriations made for residential schools for the mentally deficient are frequently insufficient to make it possible to develop the school program along the lines of psychological guidance for the maximum good of each

¹² Heyerdahl, Tordis M. A day in a library for the feeble-minded, *Minnesota Library Notes and News*, p. 182, 183, June 1938.



Practical jobs in the
sheet-metal shop.



pupil; but some schools have been able to make definite contributions in this phase of their service.

A second use of cumulative psychological data is that of research in the interests of the best educational treatment for all mentally deficient children. Medical research and treatment have long been accepted as important functions of the residential institution. Educational research is coming to be recognized as an equally important responsibility, but again meager funds all too often prevent the inauguration of adequate facilities. There are many challenging problems which can most effectively be attacked under the controlled conditions of a residential school; and there are a few schools in which scientific studies are being made, designed to evaluate and to improve educational procedure.

Occupational Experiences

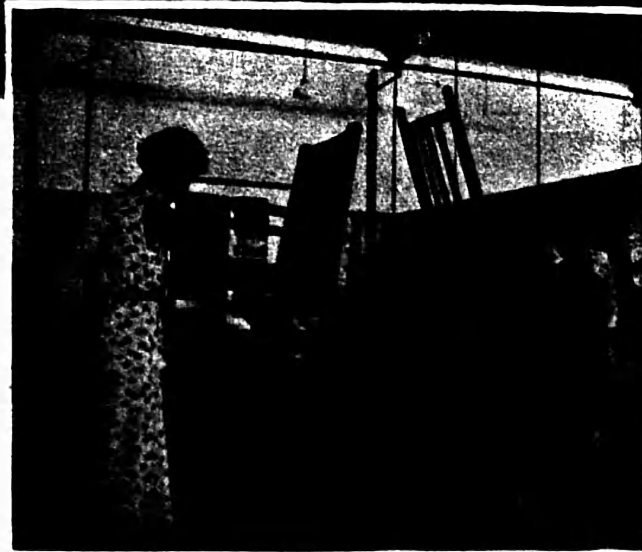
One of the important factors in the social adjustment of the mentally deficient is their occupational training. Residential schools offer a wide variety of experiences designed to make the individual at least partially self-supporting, either as a member of the institution or as a citizen returned to the community. They make persistent efforts to prepare for community life all those who are socially and occupationally equal to the change into a less restricted environment. Those who must remain in the institution indefinitely are taught whenever possible to contribute something of their own labor to its maintenance. Yet the modern school for the feeble-minded does not exploit the pupil for the sake of the institution. It considers of first importance the pupil's individual guidance and development. To this end exploratory occupational courses have a distinct place in the residential school as they have in the day school for all who can profit by them.

Among the offerings of prevocational nature in which pupils can try out their abilities in some residential schools are various forms of domestic service, needlework, arts and crafts, and beauty-parlor service for the girls; for the boys, woodwork, shoe repairing, general farm work, poultry raising, baking, cement and plaster work, and numerous others. It is recognized that most of the pupils in the school will never become skilled tradesmen or tradeswomen capable of working independently, but many of them *can* become able helpers responsible for routine tasks. And many are placed in such a capacity.

Schools restricting their enrollment to the higher grade of mental defectives carry on organized programs of vocational training specifically planned for the needs of this group and pointed toward the possibility of their later employment in the community, even though they



Girls learn to be helpers in other fields besides the home.



may be still continuing under the supervision of the institution. One school¹³ lists among its occupational offerings for girls: (1) Domestic science (cooking, housekeeping, meal planning and buying, serving, use of mechanical and other equipment, home nursing, and personal appearance and manners); (2) laundry (sorting clothes, washing clothes, starching and hanging of clothes, ironing clothes, and use of mechanical equipment); (3) sewing (various types of stitches, seams, and hems, patches, sewing on fasteners, darning, dressmaking, and use of mechanical equipment); (4) beauty-parlor technique (hair cutting, shampooing, scalp treatments, waving and curling hair, manicuring, personal hygiene, sterilization of implements). "When the girls finish their vocational training and have graduated, receiving a diploma, they are placed in colony houses under supervision and from there they go out to work in the private homes in the community as domestics. These girls are in great demand."

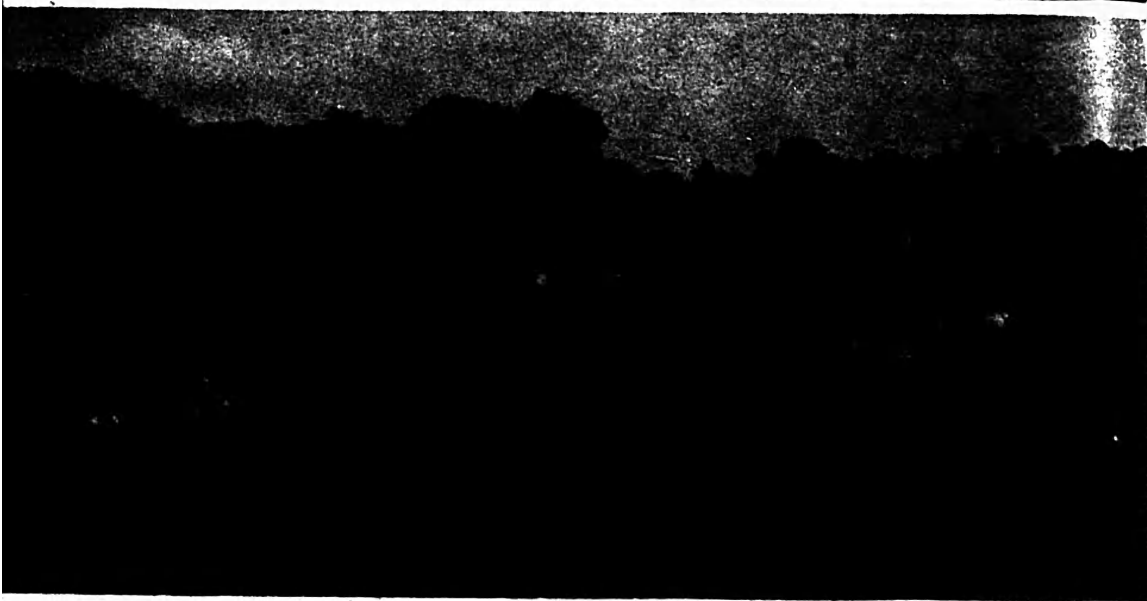
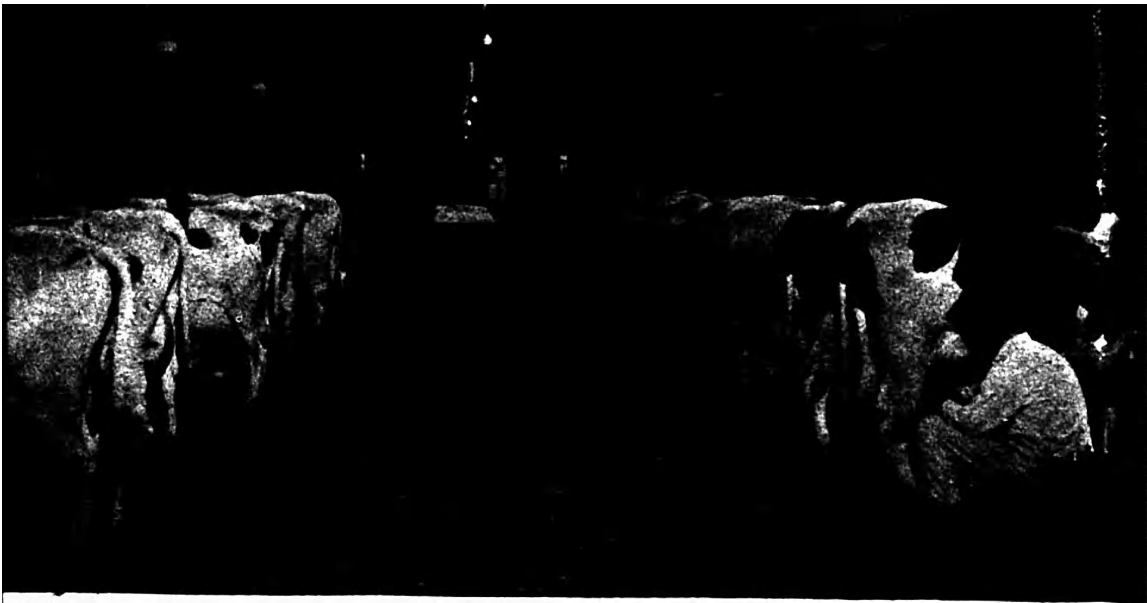
The types of vocational training for boys offered in this same school include shoe repair, baking, general farm work, produce raising, poultry raising, printing, and various types of manual arts. The boys, too, when they have completed their school work, including vocational training, are placed in the parole colony of the institution. From the colony they go out to the community to work, but during the entire parole period they are kept under strict supervision.

Relationship to State Educational Program

Residential institutions for the feeble-minded are for the most part administered by State institutional or welfare agencies. The eleemosynary character of the institutions has obviously been the influencing factor in this relationship. The same situation has in the past applied to State schools for the blind and the deaf, but these in increasing number are taking on a relationship to the State educational department which points toward the furtherance of an integrated State educational program.

It is reported from one school that certificates of completion are now being granted by the county school authorities to pupils who have made satisfactory progress in the residential school. It is not known in how many other cases this is true, but it represents a significant step in the direction of recognizing the educational work being done in residential schools for the mentally deficient and of placing them in a relationship to the county or State school system which should be mutually beneficial.

¹³ Syracuse State School, Syracuse, N. Y. (From typed report, 1938.)



Agricultural activities offer many boys opportunity for work.

In a conference held by the Office of Education in 1934; the following statement was made by Dr. Edgar A. Doll, of the Training School at Vineland, a well-known institution for the mentally deficient:

There is a tendency also for the State institutions to fall outside the usual supervisory agencies which State departments of education may provide. Some State schools or institutions are in welfare departments; others are in educational departments. In any case, these public institutions provide school departments that often operate without State supervision. The experiences of the public-school system ought to be carried over into the educational departments of public institutions, and this should be provided by empowering State departments of education to supervise all State institutions, or at least the educational departments of such institutions.¹⁴

Residential and day schools for the mentally deficient supplement each other. Examples might be cited of successes and failures among each, of strengths and weaknesses, of advantages and disadvantages in their method of operation. But to the extent to which each attempts to serve the *educational* needs of its charges, it seems that they have a common obligation to fulfill to the State's educational objectives and a common right to expect from the State all it can give in supervisory service. Both are dedicated to the greatest possible development and happiness of those whose intellectual horizon is at best seriously restricted—and that through no fault of their own.

¹⁴ U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education. Coordination of effort for the education of exceptional children. (Bulletin 1935, No. 7), p. 68.

OTHER U. S. OFFICE OF EDUCATION PUBLICATIONS ON THE EDUCATION OF EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

(Available from the Superintendent of Documents, United States Government
Printing Office, Washington, D. C., at the prices specified.)

Organization for Child Guidance within the Schools. (Bulletin 1939, No. 15.) 20 cents.

Hospital Schools in the United States. (Bulletin 1938, No. 17.) 15 cents.

Statistics of Special Schools and Classes for Exceptional Children. (Bulletin 1937, No. 2, Volume II, Chapter VI.) 20 cents.

Occupational Experiences for Handicapped Adolescents in Day Schools. (Bulletin 1937, No. 30.) 15 cents.

Opportunities for the Preparation of Teachers of Exceptional Children. (Bulletin 1937, No. 17.) 10 cents.

An Annotated Bibliography on the Education and Psychology of Exceptional Children. (Pamphlet No. 71, 1937.) 10 cents.

The Deaf and the Hard-of-Hearing in the Occupational World. (Bulletin 1936, No. 13.) 15 cents.

A Guide to Curriculum Adjustment for Mentally Retarded Children. (Bulletin 1936, No. 11.) 30 cents.

What Every Teacher Should Know About the Physical Condition of Her Pupils. (Pamphlet No. 68.) 5 cents.

Coordination of Effort for the Education of Exceptional Children. (Bulletin 1935, No. 7.) 10 cents.

Teachers' Problems with Exceptional Children:

Pamphlet No. 40. I. Blind and Partially Seeing Children. 5 cents.

Pamphlet No. 41. II. Gifted Children. 5 cents.

Pamphlet No. 49. III. Mentally Retarded Children. 10 cents.

Pamphlet No. 54. IV. Deaf and Hard-of-Hearing Children. 5 cents.

Pamphlet No. 55. V. Crippled Children. 5 cents.

Pamphlet No. 56. VI. Children of Lowered Vitality. 5 cents.

Organization for Exceptional Children Within State Departments of Education. (Pamphlet No. 42.) 5 cents.

Group Activities for Mentally Retarded Children. A Symposium. (Bulletin, 1933, No. 7.) 20 cents.

Adjustment of Behavior Problems of School Children. (Bulletin 1932, No. 18.) 10 cents.

Parents' Problems With Exceptional Children. (Bulletin 1932, No. 14.) 15 cents.