1938

An historical survey of the development of education for special types in Massachusetts.

Olive Smith
University of Massachusetts Amherst

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AN HISTORICAL SURVEY OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION FOR SPECIAL TYPES IN MASSACHUSETTS

SMITH - 1938
AN HISTORICAL SURVEY OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION FOR SPECIAL TYPES IN MASSACHUSETTS

by

Olive Smith

Thesis Submitted for degree of Master of Science

Massachusetts State College Amherst, Massachusetts

1938
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PROCEDURE

Research readings of general references were undertaken in order to make a survey of the extent of education offered to special types of handicapped persons in the past. The way in which each type of education was started, as agitated by private educators and agencies, was revealed. The manner in which the work was carried on was unfolded.

Material was obtained by personal visits, correspondence, state publications and contacts with Department officials.

Attendance at the Joint Conference on Mental Health In Education sponsored by the Massachusetts Society for Mental Hygiene proved helpful. New view points were revealed.

The character of the work done, the numbers involved, the results seen, and the general policy followed are among the points discussed.

Work for the deaf, blind, mentally retarded, wayward, crippled, normal adults and disabled adults are among the types considered.
CHAPTER I -- INTRODUCTION
INTRODUCTION

There has grown up in the state of Massachusetts a policy of care of special types of handicapped citizens that is broadly educational. This program includes the training of all children who are deaf or hard of hearing, blind or partially seeing, mentally retarded or feebleminded, school offenders or wayward, and the crippled. This type of education, through specialized schools, methods and classes, for those whose work is impeded by some physical or mental handicap, is a rather recent development of education. There have always been such children, but it was only the private agencies which made any attempt to meet their educational needs. The recognition of them by educational systems and the extension of public school facilities to include them along with other children is the new outlook. It is only right that better educational opportunities should be furnished these groups of handicapped as they will form part of the future citizenry.

A more modern development is adult education, providing for the schooling of foreigners, and of citizens wishing to improve their condition in life, and the training of the disabled. Adult alien education serves as a protection to newcomers from exploitation and abuse. A determining factor as to whether the foreign-born will become assets or liabilities is the attitude of the State in the extension of such educational opportunity. An agency for stimulating both young and mature minds toward continuous growth in understanding and thinking is
university extensional education; while few investments have yielded as large a return as that invested in the rehabilitation of the disabled.

The varied treatments given these separate groups together with backgrounds and other attendant factors are subjected to an analytical study for the purpose of showing how the state of Massachusetts was educated to the necessity of taking the responsibility for training its handicapped to enable them a place in society. Certain comparisons are made, and the question as to the value of such work is discussed.
CHAPTER II -- THE EDUCATION OF THE DEAF
EDUCATION OF THE DEAF

For almost two hundred years, nothing was done to enable the handicapped, such as the deaf, to acquire any education. The law of 1647 required the State of Massachusetts to provide only the fundamentals to those able to learn them through normal methods. As adults, the deaf were dependent upon friends, relatives, or the town in which they resided. Altogether a great amount of money was spent for their support, rather than for their training.¹

LEADERS

The deaf of today owe a great deal to two leaders, Mr. Gallaudet and Mr. Mann, the agitators responsible for the modern education of the deaf. In 1819, Gallaudet was experimenting with "special type" instruction at Hartford, Connecticut. Later, Massachusetts sent twenty deaf children there at the expense of the state. In 1843, Horace Mann stressed the necessity of teaching the deaf. He had spent the preceding years abroad; and it was in 1843, that he commented favorably in his seventh report upon the german way of teaching the deaf—the oral method. He emphasized need for a change from the finger-spelling to this oral method, which advocated the use of speech and lip reading and excluded all signs. Because teachers of the deaf did not agree with Mr. Mann, no such change took place until 1867.

MASSACHUSETTS LAW FOR THE EDUCATION OF DEAF

At this time, the Massachusetts legislature passed a law

¹ - History of Education in United States - Cubberley, Elwood
which is still in force in 1938. As stated in Chapter 76, Section 2A of the General Laws, it reads: "Every person in control of a deaf child between the ages of seven and eighteen shall cause such child to attend some suitable school, approved by the department, where the deaf are taught speech and speech reading; provided, that this section shall not apply to such a child whose mental condition or whose physical condition in other respects than deafness is such as to render such attendance inexpedient or impractical or who is being given private instruction, approved by the department, during the time the public schools are in session . . . ."2

SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF

From this law have grown the several schools which deaf children, residents of Massachusetts may attend. These are indicated in the following table.

SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF AND DATE OF FOUNDATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>American School, West Hartford, Conn.</td>
<td>1819</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clarke School, Northampton, Mass.</td>
<td>1867</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horace Mann School, Roxbury, Mass.</td>
<td>1869</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beverly School, Beverly, Mass.</td>
<td>1879</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boston School, Randolph, Mass.</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lynn Day Class for Deaf, Lynn, Mass.</td>
<td>1923</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Day Classes in Larger Cities</td>
<td>1925 on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boston, Worcester, Springfield, Cambridge, Sommerville, etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2 - General Laws of the State of Massachusetts - 1932
CLARKE SCHOOL

The history, background, and aims of each school is discussed to show the development from this law which fostered them. Later, in 1867, a bill providing for the incorporation of the "Clarke Institution For Deaf Mutes" and the provision for the training of other deaf children at state expense was passed. As soon as this school was established, it was endowed by John Clarke of Northampton. The present site was purchased and many buildings erected from this fund. Other large gifts were donated by Mr. and Mrs. Edwin Gilmore, Mrs. Hubbard, Mrs. Alexander Bell, Mr. and Mrs. Calvin Coolidge and Mrs. John Skinner. These donations have enabled Clarke Institution to fit boys and girls for high school. The organization consists of three distinct groups, each constituting a family and department by itself; - the Lower, Middle and Upper schools.

HORACE MANN SCHOOL

The Horace Mann Day School, founded two years later, was organized similarly except that its pupils commuted from their homes. The state adopted the policy of paying all carfares. The present hours are from nine until two. The totally deaf spend four years in different classes of the first grade, and then proceed yearly until they complete the ninth grade. In recent years cooking, sewing, printing and woodwork have been added to the curriculum.

3 - Clarke School for Deaf -- Bulletin -- 1935-36
4 - Circular - Horace Mann School - 1936 -- Lecture by Miss Henderson - Principal
NEW ENGLAND SCHOOL AT BEVERLY

Twelve years after the passage of the law, the New England School at Beverly was started; its aim being better speech, better lip reading and a more usable type of program. More trade teaching was done here than at the other schools. Classes in sewing, cooking, rugmaking and general housekeeping have always engaged the attention of girls out of school hours, while the boys received instruction in the shops, in repair work, and in making pieces of furniture, shelves, cabinets and practical things for the house. With such instruction, the students have found it easier to become self-supporting in later life.5

BOSTON SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF

The last school to be established, the Boston School For The Deaf, was different in one respect, in that it has always been taught by the Catholic sisters.6

LYNN DAY CLASS

A new trend of the law of 1867 was initiated in 1923 when the first class for the deaf was introduced into the public schools of Lynn. The children were arranged in classes according to their abilities, and when they had covered a certain amount of work, they were transferred to the Horace Mann School. This experiment has been continued. In 1938 the children not only come from all parts of the city, but from

5 -- New England School For Deaf - Bulletin - 1927
6 -- Letter from Mr. Francis Phelan - Superintendent, Boston School For Deaf
several other towns, such as Revere, Swampscott, Salem, Saugus, and Peabody. These pupils are met by a state paid attendant, who escorts them to and from their respective cars. 7

Similar day classes followed in New Bedford, Springfield and Worcester.

Such schools have been organized principally for children, deaf from birth. They know nothing of language, and no one knows what they are thinking. Their personal relations are prevented; their expressions and impressions are limited. They must be directed, and taught tolerance, kindness and unselfishness. These schools with sympathetic, skilled teachers are able to do this.

ADVANTAGES OF ORAL METHOD

The method in use in all the schools is the oral type which teaches lip reading and speech. This system opens up a natural communication between speaking and speechless people. It places the deaf-mute again in the family circle, gives him a share in the conversation, and relieves the solitude which otherwise falls to his lot. This system is favored by educators because it teaches the orderly use of language. Caroline Yale, long a teacher and principal at the Clarke Institution, was of the opinion that deaf-mutes taught by the pure oral method never forgot after leaving school the knowledge they had acquired, but increased it by conversation and reading. 8

Lately, good results have been attained through the use

7 -- Letter from Miss Grace Waldron - Principal Lynn Day Class
8 -- Caroline Yale -- Years of Building
of instruments. Children having an appreciable amount of hearing derive benefit and pleasure from their use. There is noted improvement in speech.

INDUSTRIAL TRAINING

The importance of industrial training is now being recognized. Trades and occupations suitable for the deaf and dumb are taught. This becomes a means of support for these handicapped individuals. The mechanical arts, printing, and lithography are a few of the things undertaken.

ENTRANCE AGE

The maximum age at which the deaf-mute should be admitted into school is from eight to ten years. Pupils are admitted to the Clarke School at the age of three. The minimum age of entrance to the other schools is six years.

LENGTH OF PERIOD OF INSTRUCTION

The ideal length of the period of instruction should be about eight years. At all of the schools for the deaf in Massachusetts, pupils are able to remain from ten to twelve years.

These facts concerning entrance age and length of stay definitely show that Massachusetts is giving its deaf an ideal opportunity for education.

The following table shows the relationship between the numbers benefiting from such education and the cost for the provision.
SUMMARY OF DATA

SCOPE AND COST OF DEAF EDUCATION

1932 - 33

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schools and Classes</th>
<th>Names of Principals Teachers Including Principals</th>
<th>Total Pupils</th>
<th>Pupils Admitted to School</th>
<th>State Expenditure for Tuition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beverly School</td>
<td>Nettie McDaniel</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>83 10 11</td>
<td>$56,148.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boston School</td>
<td>Francis Phelan</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>197 11 21</td>
<td>93,566.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clarke School</td>
<td>Frank Reiter</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>117 17 16</td>
<td>95,575.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horace Mann</td>
<td>Jennie Henderson</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>189 31 29</td>
<td>65,619.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lynn Day Class</td>
<td>Grace Waldron</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18 3 3</td>
<td>3,977.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Bedford</td>
<td>Mildred Palmer</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12 3 4</td>
<td>1,479.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Springfield</td>
<td>Edith Kendall</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14 3 1</td>
<td>2,543.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worcester</td>
<td>Katherine Feeley</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>23 3 2</td>
<td>3,962.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American School</td>
<td>Frank Wheeler</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5,500.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total: 98         653          81         87         $328,373.52

TUITION

The deaf are thus educated at the expense of the state of Massachusetts. Parents, if able, however reimburse the state for the cost of board in boarding schools, in part or full, but not exceeding six dollars per week.

9 -- All figures from Annual Report of Department of Education - No. 2 - Part I - 1933
The total deaf in Massachusetts arranged according to ages shows the numbers benefiting from this specialized schooling.

**TOTAL DEAF ACCORDING TO AGE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Range</th>
<th>Total Known According To Age - 1819</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Under 5 yrs.</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 - 9 yrs.</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 - 14</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 - 19</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 - 24</td>
<td>130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 - 44</td>
<td>484</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45 - 64</td>
<td>463</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65 and over</td>
<td>364</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the total number 1819, 1368 or about 75% have attended schools for the deaf. As for the other 25%, some have been in the public schools, while others had home education approved by the department. These figures display that the majority of the deaf are now being cared for in state schools, and the others are under state supervision either in the public schools or at home. From this, it may be gathered that the state is certainly assuming its responsibility to this type of individual.

10 -- All figures from Blind and Deaf Mutes in United States - Bureau of Census - 1930
WORK OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Sharing this trust are the public schools in fifteen cities, presented in the chart on the following page, which detect cases of poor hearing and increasing deafness, and provide proper guidance for these children. These schools have a doctor or nurse give the audiometer test annually to all its pupils. The percent of hearing ability is diagnosed by means of the key to the test by the classroom teacher. Those with hearing losses are retested. When the loss is certain, the school nurse or doctor then visits the parents of such children. If these children are in the first, second or third grades, they usually can keep up with their class work by being seated near the teacher. By the time they reach the fourth grade, they are taught lip reading, attending such classes two or three times weekly. With this aid, if they can not keep up their classes, they are sent to a school for the deaf. These cities, like the state department of education, are adequately meeting the needs of their hard of hearing.
### PROVISIONS FOR LIP READING

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cities and Towns</th>
<th>Pupils Receiving Instruction</th>
<th>Periods per Week</th>
<th>Length of Period</th>
<th>Number of Teachers</th>
<th>Expenditures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boston</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>(2)</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(2)</td>
<td>60-90</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>120</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worcester</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>$2,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Springfield</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2,300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fall River</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>1-2</td>
<td>30-45</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambridge</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>30-45</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1,996</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Bedford</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>30-60</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1,646</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somerville</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20-30-40</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1,742</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lynn</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>1-2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1,967</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newton</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>1-2</td>
<td>40-60</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1,908</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Everett</td>
<td>(11)</td>
<td>(3)</td>
<td>(45 1/10)</td>
<td>200</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(35)</td>
<td>(2)</td>
<td>(40 5/5)</td>
<td>1,080</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chelsea</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1,720</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waltham</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2/5</td>
<td>720</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Springfield</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>3/5</td>
<td>576</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greenfield</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>1/10</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Watertown</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>P.T.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Totals           | 15                            | 1212             | 26-29            | 15                | $19,575.00   |
|                  |                               |                  |                  | Boston missing Watertown |

---

12 -- Annual Report - Department of Education -- 1932-3
What about the other 318 cities and towns in the State? No provisions are made by them for helping their hard of hearing. Lack of the proper public opinion on the part of the citizens causes an insufficient budget. This means the handicapped are completely ignored. Since lip reading is a comparatively new phase, it is expected that this movement will require time before being universally adopted.

In summarizing, the efforts of Gallaudet and Mann caused the passage of the law of 1867. This in turn led to the establishment of state schools where the needs of the totally deaf are being adequately met. It also caused the formation in fifteen cities of hard of hearing classes, which are giving excellent help to their afflicted. This latter development is merely the beginning of a policy which it is hoped will be adopted by the remaining communities of the State in order to form a widespread and efficient program for the deaf.
CHAPTER III - THE EDUCATION OF THE BLIND
EDUCATION OF THE BLIND

DEFINITION OF BLINDNESS

What constitutes a blind person? The only children who should be classified as blind are those with less than ten percent vision. It is the education for this type of child that will be discussed now.¹

The first provision for the fundamental education of children in America, the law of 1647, was only for the normal. The instruction of the blind was neglected for one hundred and eighty two years. During that time, these handicapped were objects of pity and charity.²

PROVISIONS FOR PRESENT EDUCATION OF BLIND

Since 1867, Massachusetts has provided by law for the training of the blind. The bill will not be quoted here since it is the same as that for the deaf as stated in the preceding chapter.³ Today, even the blind babies of pre-school age are cared for, at the Boston Nursery for Blind Babies. Children of school age are educated at Perkins Institution at Watertown or in their own homes by home teachers. During 1932-3, there were seven home teachers in the state, who called at 1,488 homes, gave 4,642 lessons, and traveled 60,697 miles.⁴

¹ — Perkins Institution And Massachusetts School For The Blind - A Radio Interview - Dr. Gabriel Farrell - 1937
² — Public Education In The United States - Elwood Cubberley
³ — Commonwealth of Massachusetts - General Laws Relating To Education - No. 7 - 1932
⁴ — Commonwealth of Massachusetts - Bulletin - Education Of Handicapped - 1932-3
A bureau of information and industrial aid is operated by the division of the blind to help them in finding employment.

BEGINNING OF EDUCATION FOR BLIND

How did this education for the blind begin? The agitation was started by Dr. John Fisher who returned to Boston from Paris resolved to provide for the blind of Massachusetts the same care given such handicapped in France. After enlisting the aid of friends, a committee was formed which petitioned to the Legislature an Act of Incorporation. This was granted March 2, 1829, establishing The New England Asylum For The Blind, the first school for those without sight in America.5

DR. SAMUEL HOWE

Since the foundation of this school, there have been only four directors. Dr. Samuel Gridley Howe was the first. Before commencing the experience of teaching the blind, he went to Europe to seek information, and collect books and apparatus. In July 1832, he had six pupils at the school which was conducted in his father's house. As soon as the work was in regular operation and its efficiency shown, applications for admission increased rapidly. Dr. Howe is reckoned as the chief benefactor because of his services extending from 1831-76. He devoted his talent and his influence to its success until he made it the most efficient and the most famous school of its kind.6 To quote Dr. Farrell, the present director,

5 -- Cubberley - op. cit.
6 -- Perkins Institution And Massachusetts School For The Blind - Bulletin - 1936
"Dr. Howe is the spirit which has kept Perkins moving forward so that today the blind are prepared for poised and useful lives." 7

MR. MICHAEL ANAGNOS

Dr. Howe was succeeded from 1876-1906 by his Greek protege and son-in-law, Michael Anagnos. Mr. Anagnos created the Howe Memorial Press for publishing embossed books for the manufacture of appliances for the education of the blind. Another great contribution was his founding of the first school for little blind children in 1887 held in Jamaica Plain.

MR. EDWARD E. ALLEN

In 1907 the directorship of this school fell to Edward E. Allen. Before coming to Perkins, he was the head of the school for the blind in Philadelphia, where he had just rebuilt the school plant on a garden site outside of the city. He made a similar improvement at Perkins. In 1912, the Institution, and in 1913, the Kindergarten were housed in the beautiful new plant at Watertown. The site chosen was an old estate of thirty-four acres on the banks of the Charles River. Dr. Allen retired in 1931.

DR. GABRIEL FARRELL

In July of the same year, Dr. Gabriel Farrell became the fourth and present director. During his term, a special department has been established to teach the deaf-blind. Another plan he has inaugurated is that of admitting a child

7 -- Lecture at Massachusetts Conference on Mental Hygiene - March 1938 - by Dr. Gabriel Farrell
accompanied by a teacher who also receives instruction. After two years' training the work can be continued in the home school for the deaf or blind and other children may come to get their start at Perkins.

To show how the state was educated to the necessity of training the blind, let us go back to 1829 and trace the financial history. In 1829 the Legislature appropriated funds which lasted until 1832. Next, it granted outright $6000 upon condition that the government have the right to recommend twenty blind children of citizens of Massachusetts as beneficiaries. The grant was increased to $30,000, and all Massachusetts' blind children were admitted as pupils until sufficiently instructed. A certain amount was received from other states sending students and from private donations, the largest of which was from Mr. William Oliver -- $50,000.

PERKINS INSTITUTION

During the early years Colonel Thomas Perkins became interested in the little school and gave for its use his large house on Pearl Street, Boston. The need for larger quarters was soon apparent, and in 1839, the great hotel in South Boston was purchased. This was made possible by the assent of Colonel Perkins to the sale of the house he had given the school. He also donated a control of money, estimated at $40,000. Because of his attitude, the trustees changed the name of the school to Perkins Institution and Massachusetts Asylum for the Blind. This name was again changed in 1877 to
Perkins Institution and Massachusetts School For The Blind, the present name.\(^8\)

The following table explains the cost per child at Perkins today.

1936 - PER CAPITA COST AT PERKINS INSTITUTION\(^9\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total amount spent on each child</th>
<th>Tuition Fee of Each Child</th>
<th>Portion of Endowment Fund Spent on Each Child</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$1,000.00</td>
<td>$600.00 paid in part or full by parents if able. State pays part or all if necessary</td>
<td>$400.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Total State expenditures | $98,820.00 (1932-33) |

It was the amounts donated by so many individuals toward Perkins that influenced the state to annually appropriate a larger sum for the education of its blind citizens. Since this training fits a large proportion of the blind for independence, the state has been repaid. For the blind in general, a distinctly better economic showing is made for those who have attended school than for those who have not. The proportion of the total blind of the United States in 1920 gainfully occupied among the former is three times as great as among the latter, 27.1\% versus 9.2\%.

\(^8\) -- Cubberley - op. cit.
The following figures show this same trend.

UNITED STATES BLIND - 1920

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total Attending School</th>
<th>Gainfully Occupied</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>19,778</td>
<td>27.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5,365</td>
<td>28.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attending Schools For The Blind</th>
<th>Gainfully Occupied</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12,017</td>
<td>34.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4,134</td>
<td>39.2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

BRAILLE

As yet, nothing has been said of the method used in schools for the blind. The first task in educating these handicapped is to teach the fingers to take the place of the eyes. The system by which this is accomplished is Braille. It consists of raised dots. Different combinations of a cell of six dots represents letters and numbers which sensitive fingers soon learn to read.

One of the advantages of Braille over raised letters formerly used is the fact that it can be written. Braille characters are punched out on paper with a stylus. A difficulty in writing braille which might disturb seeing people is the fact that it must be done in reverse, working from right to left so that when the paper is turned over, the impressions may be read in the accustomed way. At first, this is slow,
but proficient writers soon attain a considerable speed. To facilitate writing, Perkins Institution makes a Braille writer that is something like a typewriter. All of the pupils learn to use a regular typewriter early, and are also taught pencil writing.

Many Braille books are available. A great many are coming constantly from five presses in the United States, one of which is connected with Perkins. Any blind person wishing embossed reading matter has only to write to the library of the Perkins Institution -- a library of fifteen thousand volumes -- and books will be sent without charge.11

A quotation from Helen Keller sums up the value of Braille devised in 1825: "The magic wand with which he wrought this miracle was a group of six dots, in which the vertical line consists of three dots and the horizontal of two. The combination of these in various positions produces characters to each of which we assign a particular meaning just as the seeing do to characters in print. Sixty-three combinations of these six dots may be used; Braille's invention was as marvelous as any fairy tale. Only six dots! Yet when he touched a blank sheet of paper, it became alive with words that sparkled in the darkness of the blind."12

MEDICAL TREATMENT

Entrance requirements to Perkins are less than ten percent

11 -- Radio Interview - op. cit.
12 -- Radio Talk from National Educational Association Conference-Atlantic City - February 1938
vision. Every child has his eyes examined as soon as admitted; and when anything can be done to improve or conserve his sight, necessary measures are taken. Operations are performed at the Massachusetts Eye and Ear Infirmary. The Perkins medical staff gives treatments and care at the school. 13

The following tables summarize other facts about Perkins.

PERKINS INSTITUTION 1932 - 33

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Enrolled</th>
<th>Admitted</th>
<th>Discharged</th>
<th>Age of Entrance</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>School Organization</th>
<th>Totally Blind</th>
<th>Less than 10% Vision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>244</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>5-19 yrs.</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>6-3-3</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>183</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>plan</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

HIGH SCHOOL OF PERKINS

Courses

Boys
- Farming and Poultry Trades
- Basketry, Caning,
- Mattress Work,
- Carpentry, Piano tuning, Leather work,
- Automobile Mechanics

Girls
- Occupations
- Sewing, Dictaphone,
- Transcribing, Switchboard, Mother's Helpers

Extra-Curricular Activities

Boys
- Football and Track School Paper
- Scouts
- Clubs
- Socials

Girls
- Field Sports
- School Paper
- Scouts
- Clubs
- Socials

14 -- Commonwealth of Massachusetts - Department of Education - 1932-3
Another department at Perkins instructs deaf-blind children. Speech is acquired by repeated drill in the fundamental sounds until a normal voice is produced. To understand speech, word meaning must be associated with minutely varying vibrations. At first this is stimulated by an electrical device. Later the vibrations are "heard" through the fingers placed on the face of the person talking. They are taught to read and write with braille. A wooden floor laid on rubber enables the children to experience the companionship of footsteps; and because of its vibration, to take part in rhythmic exercises, enjoying games and marching.

In 1930 in Massachusetts there were 65 blind-deaf mutes, and 2,539 blind persons. These are the people provided for by this education of the blind.

SIGHT SAVING CLASSES

What about the children with more than ten percent vision? Many cities represented in the next table meet the needs of such pupils by maintaining sight-saving classes which are held in the public day schools, and by supplying special desks, lighting facilities and textbooks of large type. The State assists by an annual expenditure of $500. per class for this work.\(^\text{15}\)
SIGHT-SAVING CLASSES - 1932-33

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cities and Towns</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Children</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boston</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>186</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambridge</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Bedford</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fall River</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worcester</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brockton</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newton</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chelsea</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Revere</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Everett</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somerville</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medford</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lynn</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salem</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lowell</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holyoke</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Springfield</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Framingham</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Watertown</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brookline</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total</th>
<th>20</th>
<th>38</th>
<th>502</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>State Expenditure</td>
<td>$19,000 per year</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The work of these communities is the nucleus around which other towns must spread if the public schools are to do their share. Since the State has done its part, and twenty cities have set good examples, the others should be spurred to do likewise.

During the past year 1936-7, however, the number of classes decreased to 31, with 370 children enrolled. This was owing to smaller city appropriations to the school department. More sight conservation movements would prevent such sways of public
opinion and trends like this wouldn't occur.

To conclude, we realize that since 1829 any child with less than ten percent vision has had the opportunity for an education, and since 1867, all the afflicted, between the ages of seven and eighteen, have been taken care of at Perkins Institution. By 1887, provisions had been made for babies, first at Jamaica Plain, and later, as a part of Perkins. Responsible for the successfulness of the work have been the four leaders, Dr. S. G. Howe, Mr. M. Anagnos, Dr. E. E. Allen and Dr. G. Farrell. The method which made it possible for the blind to read and write has been Braille. Now the most recent department of the school teaches deaf-blind children not only to read and write but also to speak and hear. The State Department certainly has reason to be proud of its progress in fitting the blind for independence.

We must remember, however, that there are hundreds of children with more than ten percent vision who also need help. At present, there are only twenty communities which are meeting the needs of these partially seeing through sight-saving classes. Will the other 303 boroughs assume their duties and establish similar systems? Until that time comes, those public schools will prevent the State from having a superior network of education for the blind.
CHAPTER IV -- EDUCATION OF MENTAL DEFECTIVES
WHAT CONSTITUTES A MENTAL DEFECTIVE

The mental defective usually lacks average characteristics in intelligence and in two or three other factors. Today the State of Massachusetts feels it a duty to provide suitable training and supervision for all mental defectives so that the many who fail in one or two characteristics only may lead the life of the great average.  

MENTAL DEFECTIVES OF EARLY HISTORY OF AMERICA

The State did not feel or assume such a duty for a great number of years. Education was given only to those able to grasp it. The mental defectives were not self-supporting; many of them led unmoral lives; others were a menace to society.  

BEGINNING OF TRAINING DEFECTIVES

The real beginning of the training of the mentally deficient was made in France by Edouard Sequin (1812-1880). In 1839, he established at Paris the first school for the training of the feeble-minded.

In America, Gallaudet had tried to educate such children in 1820. About 1839, this class of children attracted the attention of Dr. Howe, who then made an attempt to teach blind idiots received at the Institute For The Blind. After being successful in this work, Dr. Howe addressed the public to draw attention to the worthiness of the venture.

---

1 -- Lecture - Mental Hygiene And The Mentally Retarded at Massachusetts Conference in Boston - March 1938 - by Dr. Ransom Greene
2 -- Cubberley - op. cit.
the public schools. Epileptics are cared for at Monson.

The following tables present facts about the work of these schools.

MENTAL DEFECTIVES AND EPILEPTICS IN MASSACHUSETTS - 1935

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total at beginning of year</th>
<th>On admission</th>
<th>Total admissions</th>
<th>End of year</th>
<th>On discharge</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6,206</td>
<td>922</td>
<td>724</td>
<td>630</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6,947</td>
<td>962</td>
<td>320</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

EXPENDITURES FOR INSTITUTIONAL CARE - 1935

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cost per Child per Year</th>
<th>Total Average Cost of Each Child Admitted</th>
<th>Average Total Cost</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$450</td>
<td>$2,600</td>
<td>$2,656,800.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ORGANIZATION OF SCHOOLS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Custodial Department</th>
<th>Research Department</th>
<th>Medical Department</th>
<th>Impression Type Studies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>For low equipped</td>
<td>For study and classi-</td>
<td>New medical treat-</td>
<td>For trainable pupils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>fication of pupils</td>
<td>ment</td>
<td>Domestic Science</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Embroidery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Weaving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Knitting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Trades for boys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Emphasis on reading,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>music, art</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The three institutions for the feeble-minded are very much alike, but there are a few differences. The Wrentham State School has a summer playground conducted by three teachers. Mornings are devoted to younger children who enjoy ring games, stories, and walks to the dairy and other departments. Archery, badminton and croquet is the program for the older boys and girls. An annual tournament is held at the close of every season, each dormitory competing for honors.\(^5\)

FERNALD SCHOOL

At the Walter E. Fernald School, a training course for attendants is conducted twice annually. The curriculum for this is carefully selected and provided through the training in practical nursing as well as special attention given to the care of the feebleminded.

The Superintendent of the Fernald School, Dr. Ransom Greene, is at present making a complete study of one thousand cases in his institution, and of another thousand cases followed-up from out-patient observation. He is helped by his social service, psychological and medical departments. Papers are prepared for publication.\(^6\)

No record could be obtained of any special work that might be carried on at Belchertown.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR WORK

That these institutions are worthwhile is seen by the

\(^5\) -- Commonwealth of Massachusetts - Wrentham State School - Annual Report - 1935
\(^6\) -- Commonwealth of Massachusetts - Fernald State School - Annual Report - 1936
increase in opportunities for work given the patients. Those of moron level are trained as helpers in various kinds of manual work. The schools make investigations of homes and environments before placements are made. Poultry or dairy farms offer the best openings for boys, since homes as well as work are provided.

SPECIAL CLASSES

Some public schools of the cities and towns in Massachusetts are doing outstanding work in educating the mental defectives through special classes. These are maintained for those three or more years mentally retarded. The many pupils who find it impossible to keep up with the work of the special classes are then sent to an institution.\(^7\)

It was in 1919 that the law was enacted which required the establishment of special classes in each town having ten or more children who were three years retarded in school classes. This law also legalized the operation of traveling clinics, and the Massachusetts Department of Mental Diseases was given authority to conduct or supervise the examinations.\(^8\)

TRAVELING CLINICS

Since it was the movement for traveling clinics which led to the passage of the law for special classes, a study of this history was made. Over thirty years ago, Dr. Walter Fernald created an out-patient department at his school in Waverley to

---

7 -- Westfield State Teachers College Conference of School Superintendents and Committees of Massachusetts - May 1937 Newspaper Report
8 -- Commonwealth of Massachusetts - General Laws Relating to Education - Bulletin - No. 7 - 1932
examine, diagnose, and render advice in cases referred from
the community. Later, educators began to look for some
reliable method of diagnosing cases of retarded children in
public schools and appealed to Dr. Fernald. He devised a plan
whereby his out-patient clinic would become a traveling unit
and visit each school, conducting an examination of the re-
tarded children therein. The first clinic started in 1914,
and the second in 1917, under the late Dr. George Wallace.
In 1919, as previously stated, these were legalized and special
classes became a necessity. Two years later, the clinics
were created to operate from each of the fourteen institutions
under the Department of Mental Diseases: Belchertown, Boston
Psychopathic, Boston State, Danvers, Foxborough, Gardner,
Grafton, Medfield, Monson, Northampton, Taunton, Walter Fernald,
Westborough, Worcester, and Wrentham. The personnel of these
clinics, a psychiatrist, a psychologist and a social worker,
was trained in the procedure of carrying out Dr. Fernald's
ten-point examination.

TEN POINT SCALE EXAMINATION

The "Ten-Point Scale Examination" studies the following
factors: - family history, personal and developmental history,
school progress; social history; personal characteristics and
social conduct; economic efficiency; practical knowledge;
school work; physical examination; and psychological tests.
Thus, a complete picture of each child's strong and weak points
are obtained. Scientific treatment is possible after such a
diagnosis.
Assisting in various phases of the test are the school teacher, nurse and visiting teacher. Whenever possible, the parents are interviewed by the psychiatrist after the results are known. Recommendations are outlined to the Superintendent of Schools.  

SIZE OF THE PROBLEM

The following tables show the size of the problem for the retarded children within the public schools and demonstrate the volume of work accomplished by the clinics.

INTELLECTUAL STATUS OF THOSE EXAMINED BY SCHOOL CLINIC EXAMINATIONS - 1936

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total</th>
<th>I.Q.</th>
<th>I.Q.</th>
<th>I.Q.</th>
<th>I.Q.</th>
<th>I.Q.</th>
<th>Diagnosis</th>
<th>Average Age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0-69</td>
<td>70-79</td>
<td>80-89</td>
<td>90-1.09</td>
<td>1.10-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Examinations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>6,468</td>
<td>1,372</td>
<td>1,872</td>
<td>1,535</td>
<td>1,362</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>100.</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>28.9</td>
<td>23.7</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Re-examinations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>1,918</td>
<td>763</td>
<td>630</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>100.</td>
<td>39.8</td>
<td>32.8</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

9 -- Commonwealth of Massachusetts - Division of Mental Deficiency - Annual Report - 1936
**TOTAL EXAMINATIONS AND TOWNS - 1936**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clinics</th>
<th>Number of Towns in Which Clinics Were Conducted</th>
<th>Total School Clinic Exams</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Belchertown</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>578</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boston Psychopathic</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boston State</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>426</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Danvers</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>717</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foxborough</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>472</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gardner</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>492</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grafton</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>1,311</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medfield</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>351</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monson</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>461</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northampton</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>305</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taunton</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>676</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fernald</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1,172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Westborough</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worcester</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>248</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wrentham</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>906</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Division of Mental Hygiene</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>16</strong></td>
<td><strong>218</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>8,386</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Why didn't the other 105 towns in the State have children examined? No information could be found which would answer this question.

Of all examinations, 2,559 or 50.5 percent were recommended for special classes; and 390 or 3.8 percent for placement in a state school. It is seen there is great need for additional special class provision.

The average cost of each examination for the year 1936 was $5.40. The total cost in conducting 8,386 examinations was $45,294.52, a comparatively small expenditure considering the benefits derived.

The following table shows the statistics available of
special classes throughout the state.

1932-33 FULL TIME SPECIAL CLASSES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cities and Towns</th>
<th>Classes Children</th>
<th>Size of Classes</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Total Support</th>
<th>Per Pupil Cost</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1-10</td>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>16-18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>398</td>
<td>6532</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>263</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>404</td>
<td>$895,943.54</td>
<td>$137.55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PART TIME

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Size of Classes</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Total Support</th>
<th>Per Pupil Cost</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>16-18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>95</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>2317</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>254,124.06</td>
<td>$109.60</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TOTAL IN STATE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Size of Classes</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Total Support</th>
<th>Per Pupil Cost</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>16-18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>133</td>
<td>554</td>
<td>8840</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>334</td>
<td>558</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1,150,0067.60</td>
<td>150.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These figures show there were, in 1932-3, 190 towns and cities in which there were no classes for mentally retarded, again emphasizing need for more provisions.

The average cost of educating a normal child in the public schools is $90.40 per year; while the average cost of educating a child in special class is $40.00 more. The fact that a year in a state institution costs $450. shows the necessity of developing state wide organization of special classes.

CURRICULUM OF SPECIAL CLASSES

Subjects taught in special classes include reading, oral and written language, social studies, character education, arithmetic, science, penmanship, drawing, household, manual and industrial arts and physical training. Thus, the curriculum

10 -- Commonwealth of Massachusetts - Annual Report - 1932-3 - Department of Education
is similar to that of the public schools.\textsuperscript{11}

The classes are housed with other public school children of their chronological and social age. Since children in classes for the retarded will become in adult life members of the community, they should attend and participate in normal school life and play with normal children.

The next table indicates the organization used in communities having three or more classes.

**SUBDIVISIONS OF THREE OR MORE CLASSES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Low Group</th>
<th>Middle Group</th>
<th>Advanced Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>Girls</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

More can be accomplished in classes composed of pupils of similar mental ability.

The schools listed as having special classes are simply pioneers in the establishment of specialized service for children below average in intelligence or adjustment. These classes are merely taking care of the outstanding cases of mental retardation. Reports show that for every mental defective failing in school work, there are three children of higher mental grade who do not make a success of their work. Thus it is a general opinion among specialists in this field that the special class organization is simply a nucleus about which an expansion program should be built.

\textsuperscript{11} Commonwealth of Massachusetts - Manual For Special Classes - 1932
In conclusion, the education of the mentally deficient was definitely begun by the State in 1848, when an experimental school was organized under Dr. Samuel Howe at Perkins. Its success led to the erection of the first school of this type in South Boston in 1856. During this same period, private schools were started in Wrentham, Belchertown and Waltham, but these soon became state-supported. By 1935 there were almost 7000 boys and girls under the supervision of these schools. That good work is being done is indicated by the large numbers of morons who are enabled to work as farm and home helpers. The State program is an excellent one.

Since 1919, many of the public schools have maintained special classes for pupils three or more years retarded, examinations and diagnoses being conducted by traveling clinics working in cooperation with the State Department of Mental Diseases. The legislation responsible for these classes only affects communities having ten or more retarded, and so doesn’t care for one third of the State. Until special education for deficient children in these sections is provided, the system as organized in the public schools is in the beginning stage.
CHAPTER V - EDUCATION OF THE WAYWARD
DEFINITION OF WAYWARD

The wayward child might be an habitual truant, absentee or school offender; or one who is simply unable to adjust satisfactorily in his community.

The idea of providing training for the wayward is not new and is not of American origin. Houses of correction which provided training for children and adults sprang up in England in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.¹

In 1818-1819, Professor John Griscom of New York spent a year visiting these Houses of Correction, and examined other schools, colleges and charitable institutions. His descriptions, in particular, of his visit to Pestalozzi awakened interest; and the chief influence of the book he wrote proved to be along lines of vocational and reformatory education. It was this book which caused the beginning of such special education in the United States.

The first institution, the New York House of Refuge, was private. Massachusetts was strongly influenced, through this example, to begin the education of the wayward.

HOUSE OF REFORMATION

Accordingly in 1826, the department called the House of Reformation was established in the Old House of Correction. It was a municipal enterprise from the beginning and the example was followed by other cities. To keep tabs on every

¹ — L. M. Robinson - Penology in the United States
child, a system of marking was begun. Upon admittance, the children were graded according to age and morality. The new arrivals were placed in a good grade at the start. Classes were kept small, and much of the work was individual. The rooms had hard benches, tools and other equipment for teaching expression subjects. Some of the children were handled well, and were kept so orderly, that they were later turned back into regular schools. All these methods were copied from Professor Griscom's European descriptions.²

STATE REFORM SCHOOLS

In 1847, the State Reform School was founded at Westboro, and the legislature passed the law requiring commitments of all boys unable to adjust in any community. The name of this school was later changed to the Lyman School For Boys.

In 1855, the State Reform School for Girls was founded at Lancaster, and was operated in the same manner as the School For Boys.

During the latter half of the nineteenth century, three reform schools were started to provide training for adults. These included an institution for both sexes -- the State Farm at Bridgewater - 1866; the Reformatory Prison for Women - 1874; the Reformatory Prison For Men - 1884.

By 1809, another institution for boys was needed. The answer was the Industrial School For Boys at Shirley.

² -- History of Education in the United States - Elwood Cubberly
CHARACTER OF EARLY REFORMATORIES

In all of these reform schools, the early education emphasized the teaching of health, chiefly because the inmates were in need of nurture and cleanliness. Habits of eating were not even established. Another phase of health was moral education, this subject forming a vital part of the curriculum because of the necessity for such knowledge. The early curriculum however did not include manual training, nor field and garden work for they were not known nor understood. An average day consisted of three hours of schooling (reading, writing and arithmetic), and seven to eight hours at labor (cane seating, domestic labor, etc.).

For petty offenses, inmates were sent to dungeons, solitary cells, or were given short diets, lengthy work periods and hard labor chores.

CHARACTER OF REFORM SCHOOLS TODAY

In comparison, a new child at a reformatory today is placed with a group of other arrivals, and is provided with an active program. During this time, his attitudes toward work, play, masters and others are studied; mental and physical examinations are given. At the end of a month, a treatment has been outlined.

This program consists of four factors: academic, occupational, home life and recreational activities. In academic activities, emphasis is placed upon reading and expression, use

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3 -- S. J. Barrows - Reformatory System in the United States
4 -- Commonwealth of Massachusetts - Annual Report of the Trustees of Massachusetts Training Schools - 1936
of the library encouraged in hopes that leisure time will be more wisely used upon leaving the schools. An effort is made to raise the level of reading tastes and to choose the wise selections of worthwhile things from the newspapers and periodicals. Fundamental training is given in proper conduct in group discussion, and in the development of every day conversation. In occupational activities, emphasis is laid on instruction of industry and the ability to do things. Farms offer splendid opportunities for the teaching of agriculture, and pay well for the money and labor involved. Since all the schools are organized on the cottage system, the children of similar types living together, chances are available for the teaching of household duties. In home training efforts are made to establish habits of cleanliness, good manners, respect for the rights of others, service and loyalty to the home group, and pride in appearance and reputation. The recreational program consists of music, art, dramatics, sound pictures, leather craft, stamp collecting, reading, games, sports and athletics.

A summary of the work of the training schools for the children of Massachusetts is presented in the following table.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schools</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Date of Establishment</th>
<th>Admit- tance Age</th>
<th>Type of Instruction</th>
<th>Capacity of School</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lyman School for Boys</td>
<td>Westboro</td>
<td>1847</td>
<td>Under 15 years</td>
<td>Academic and Industrial</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial School for Boys</td>
<td>Shirley</td>
<td>1909</td>
<td>15 - 18 years</td>
<td>Academic with emphasis on industrial</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial School for Girls</td>
<td>Lancaster</td>
<td>1855</td>
<td>Under 17 yrs.</td>
<td>Academic and training in Domestic Arts</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

5 -- Juvenile Delinquents in Public Institutions - 1933 - Federal Census
The offenses for commitment are as follows:

**OFFENSES FOR COMMITMENTS - 1936**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Offenses</th>
<th>Lyman Industrial School for Boys</th>
<th>Industrial School for Girls</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Breaking and Entering</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Larceny</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>165</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breaking, Entering and Larceny</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delinquent</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Running Away</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Failure On Parole</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stubbornness</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unlawful Appropriation of Autom</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malicious Injury to Property</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Setting Fires</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assault and Battery</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carrying a Dangerous Weapon</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lewdness</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Torturing Animals</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indecent Exposure</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receiving Stolen Property</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intoxication</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

So, it is seen that breaking and entering; larceny; and breaking, entering and larceny are the main offenses causing commitments to reform schools.

COST OF MAINTENANCE OF REFORM SCHOOLS

The cost of maintenance as indicated below is quite expensive. The average cost for one individual on the basis of a forty week period is $425.60, which is over four times the amount of educating a child in the public schools.

COST OF MAINTENANCE - REFORM SCHOOLS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Superintendent</th>
<th>Available for Maintenance</th>
<th>Cost to the Commonwealth</th>
<th>Weekly Per Capita Cost</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lyman School</td>
<td>Charles Dubois</td>
<td>$250,120.68</td>
<td>$247,966.67</td>
<td>$12.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial School for Boys - Shirley</td>
<td>George Campbell</td>
<td>178,086.15</td>
<td>167,026.91</td>
<td>10.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial School for Girls</td>
<td>Catherine Campbell</td>
<td>151,195.56</td>
<td>139,486.19</td>
<td>9.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$554,479.77</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

LENGTH OF STAY

The average length of stay at these schools is:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Length of Stay</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lyman School For Boys</td>
<td>11.68 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial School For Boys</td>
<td>9.50 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial School For Girls</td>
<td>18.50 months</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These figures represent the year 1935-36.
A number of girls have stayed for longer periods than the average given in the above table due to the need for prolonged care because of mental or physical difficulties.

PAROLES

The boys and girls may be paroled at the discretion of the Board of Trustees of these schools. Then their supervision rests with either the Boys Parole Branch or the Girls Patrol Branch. The older ones are assisted in securing employment on Federal and local projects, while the younger wards are placed in foster homes. Upon becoming of age or receiving an honorable discharge, they receive a sum of money, which has been saved for them, from their wages. Nevertheless, despite vigilance and efforts of the parole visitors, there are many failures.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total on Parole</th>
<th>Paroled during year</th>
<th>Total Violating Parole List</th>
<th>Relocated</th>
<th>Total Returned</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lyman School</td>
<td>1346</td>
<td>556</td>
<td>1,902</td>
<td>314</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial School for Boys</td>
<td>1151</td>
<td>447</td>
<td>1,598</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial School for Girls</td>
<td>572</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>664</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>3069</td>
<td>1195</td>
<td>4,264</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>166</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Out of a total of 4,264 on parole, a total of 649 or approximately one-sixth failed. Of course the failures always stand out prominently while the successes often remain in the

background. Let us think of the 3,615 successes.

The conduct of all boys in both schools who became of age during the year ending November 1936 as presented next indicates that two thirds of this group become good citizens because of State supervision.

**STATUS OF CONDUCT**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status</th>
<th>Lyman Number</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Industrial School Number</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Doing well</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>36.85</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>34.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doing fairly well</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>20.11</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>30.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doing badly</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>24.58</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>21.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conduct unknown</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>18.46</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>14.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>179</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td><strong>246</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**COUNTY TRAINING SCHOOLS**

Another branch of the education of the wayward was begun in 1865 when a law was passed which authorized the county commissioners to establish houses of reformation for juvenile offenders. These continue to the present time as county training schools but have come to be limited to the care and training of school offenders as provided in Sections 2, 3, 4, and 5 of Chapter 77 of the General Laws.

**CHARACTER OF TRAINING**

The idea of this type of school is care through education, rather than confinement or punishment. Music, industrial arts, manual and domestic activities, play dramatics, group organization, construction and pre-vocational activities are
emphasized. Instruction leads toward trades or occupations. Much is done to improve attitudes and ideals so that these children will be better citizens and a help to society.

The schools are visited by the departments of education and public welfare, which departments give an annual report of them to the General Court.

The ages of children eligible to commitment are between seven and sixteen. Every child must be discharged at sixteen.

By computing facts given in the following table, it is discovered that the comparative cost of county training school maintenance is six times that of the public schools.

**COUNTY TRAINING SCHOOLS - 1934**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Total Number Admitted in School</th>
<th>Discharged During Year</th>
<th>Remaining at end of year</th>
<th>Av. Weekly Per Capita Cost</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Essex County</td>
<td>Lawrence</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hampden County</td>
<td>Springfield</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middlesex County</td>
<td>N. Chelmsford</td>
<td>193</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worcester County</td>
<td>Oakdale</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norfolk, Bristol &amp; Plymouth</td>
<td>Walpole</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Totals                 |              | 424                             | 169                    | 119                     | 306                       | $11.84                    |

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10 -- Commonwealth of Massachusetts - Annual Report of Department of Public Welfare - 1934
That expenses are to be met by the counties is provided in Section 1 of Chapter 77 of the General Laws: "The town from which an habitual truant, absentee, or school offender is committed to a county training school shall pay to the county maintaining it two dollars a week toward his support, and reports to the condition and progress of its pupils in said school shall be sent each month to the superintendent of schools of such town."

PROBATION SERVICE

The third branch of the education provided the wayward is that done by the probation service of the state. Massachusetts is called the "home of probation", because of its practice of placing so many of its offenders under supervision instead of in confinement.\footnote{11}

BEGINNINGS

The history of the probation movement began in 1869 when the Acts recognized the placing of juvenile offenders in private families. By 1878 the probation system began by law when the Mayor of Boston was authorized to appoint a probation officer and his duties were defined. Two years later, this same authority was extended to town and city governments. By 1891, the appointments were transferred to the Courts, and in 1898, the Supreme Court appointed the Probation officers. In 1906 the Juvenile Court of Boston was established, other cities and towns copying the idea.

\footnote{11 -- Commonwealth of Massachusetts Probation Manual - 1936}
MEANING OF PROBATION

The underlying theory of probation is based on fitting the punishment to the criminal and not to the crime. It operates outside of the reformatory and depends upon supervision and friendly contact. All the authorized courts in Massachusetts make use of probation, as it offers the greatest hope that some way may be found to stamp out crime.

Although much money is spent by the state on this type of education, many people are benefited. The following figures illustrate this statement.

COST OF PROBATION SERVICE - 1936

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Salaries</th>
<th>Pro-tem Officers</th>
<th>Clerical Expense</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Probation Officers</td>
<td>$446,484.28</td>
<td>$10,537.76</td>
<td>$146,157.16</td>
<td>$51,699.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$711,470.23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Board of Probation 8,335.00 --- 46,257.41 15,105.03 69,697.44

Total  $454,819.28 $10,537.76 $194,414.57 $51,699.12 $711,470.23

EXTENT OF PROBATION SERVICE - 1936

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Juvenile</th>
<th>Adults</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Straight Probation</td>
<td>1,731</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>6,720</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suspended Commitment</td>
<td>763</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>10,444</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suspended Fine</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>3,728</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2,559</td>
<td>226</td>
<td>20,892</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

12 -- Robinson - op. cit.
CONCLUSION

In analyzing the education of the wayward in Massachusetts, we discovered that the idea of correction began in 1826 when all offenders were imprisoned. Even after the establishment of reform schools in Westboro in 1847, in Lancaster in 1855 and in Shirley in 1909, the emphasis was placed upon labor and punishment rather than corrective education. There has been a gradual change, however, from the type of institution standing half way between a prison and a school to a newer form of a whole-hearted real school for children who have started on the road to crime. Thus the inmates of today, whether they are confined to the reformatories for serious offenses, to the county training schools for minor acts, or to the supervision of probation officers for little misdemeanors, are prompted to reach goals that will reduce sentences, gain extra credit in merit ratings and increase privileges.

Yet, these changes are not adequate for a flawless program. The many failures indicate the methods in use have not accomplished their object on many types. Reformatory waiting lists show the need for expansion. Nevertheless, since such splendid progress has been made during the period of its history, it is certain that a corrective policy will always be in progress.
CHAPTER VI -- EDUCATION OF THE Crippled
DEFINITION OF A CRIPPLE

The crippled child is a child that has a defect which causes a deformity or an interference with the normal function of the bones, muscles, or joints. The child's inability to attend school is emphasized rather than the exact nature of the disability.¹

SHIFT OF FORCE RESPONSIBLE FOR TRAINING CRIPPLES

Formerly the responsibility for the care and training of crippled children rested entirely on the shoulders of clinics, hospitals and private homes, philanthropically supported. Gradually this education is being shifted to agencies maintained at public expense. The most effective of these are state hospitals and special classes organized within local public school systems.

BEGINNINGS OF CARE FOR CRIPPLED

The history of the State's assumption of this type of education is within the years of the present century. As in the cases of other special type education, first attempts in the education of the crippled were private. About 1840, the House of Good Samaritan began to specialize in orthopedic cases and had the first general hospital orthopedic wards in the country. In 1849, The Children's Mission To Children, of Boston, began to aid post-operative children who needed care in foster homes. Guidance in these two hospitals was incidental.¹ The real beginning of training the crippled was made

¹ -- Lecture - Mental Hygiene And The Physically Handicapped Child - by Dr. Bronson Crothers of Childrens' Hospital at Boston
by the Industrial School For Crippled and Deformed Children, located in Boston, in 1893. At this time, it was the only school in America devoted to the special mental and industrial training of children whose bodies were deformed. The following year, the New England Peabody Home was founded. School work was carried along with convalescence.

STATE SUPPORT

It wasn't until 1904 that the state of Massachusetts realized that to uphold its educational ideal -- "education for all of the children of all of the people" -- it must establish a school for the crippled. Accordingly, the Legislature by law established the Massachusetts School and Home for Crippled and Deformed Children at Canton. Dr. Edward Bradford, who had been active in founding private schools for the crippled, became the first chairman of the Board of Trustees. They selected Dr. John E. Fish as Superintendent. He is still the director of this institution, the only state hospital school for the crippled in Massachusetts. Four children went to it during its first year. As soon as the school proved to be a success, it was filled to capacity and had a long waiting list. To accommodate the other cripples in the commonwealth, the state adopted the policy of giving aid to privately controlled hospital schools, some of which were established before the state schools, and others, which were founded at

2 -- Commonwealth of Massachusetts - Industrial School For Crippled Children - 40th Annual Report
3 -- New England Peabody Home - Annual Report - 1926-7
4 -- Commonwealth of Massachusetts - Hospital School - Annual Report - 1936
later dates. These Massachusetts Institutions, now offering specialized treatment and training, are represented in the following table.

MASSACHUSETTS INSTITUTIONS FOR CRIPPLED

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hospital Schools</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Capacity</th>
<th>Public School Curriculum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Massachusetts Hospital</td>
<td>Canton</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>Grades 1 - 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial School</td>
<td>Boston</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>Grades 1 - 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New England Peabody</td>
<td>Newton Center</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>Grades 1 - 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sol - E - Mar</td>
<td>South Dartmouth</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>Grades 1 - 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upway Field</td>
<td>Pittsfield</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>Grades 1 - 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shriners</td>
<td>Springfield</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>Grades 1 - 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hospital Cottages</td>
<td>Baldwinville</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>K - 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Westfield St. Sanatorium</td>
<td>Westfield</td>
<td>- -</td>
<td>Elementary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N. Reading</td>
<td>N. Reading</td>
<td>- -</td>
<td>Elementary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essex County</td>
<td>Hathorne</td>
<td>- -</td>
<td>Elementary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lakeville</td>
<td>Middleboro</td>
<td>- -</td>
<td>Elementary</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Other private hospitals which take charity patients include Childrens Hospital; Home for Incurables; House of Good Samaritan; and Massachusetts General -- all in Boston; and the Infantile Paralysis Commission, which operates from Harvard. The fact that all these hospitals have large waiting lists indicates the size of this problem.  

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5 -- Commonwealth of Massachusetts - 1938 Annual Census of Handicapped Children - Regulations
All of the institutions mentioned, with the exception of the Industrial School For The Crippled, are hospitals which maintain an educational program. There are resident medical, nursing and teaching staffs. Education and convalescence proceed together.

TYPES OF CRIPPLES TRAINED

An educational and vocational system has been developed, and both classes of crippled, permanently and temporarily handicapped, are provided for. The curriculum is modeled after that in the regular school classes. It is the ambition of every teacher of crippled children to say those who leave her classes after they are cured, re-enter public school classes in the grades which would have been theirs if they had remained well. This is very often possible because of much individual attention.

The school work in hospitals is always incidental to the physical care of the children as the health of each child is foremost. During convalescence, when the child is out of bed and able to attend school regularly, emphasis shifts to education.6

The entrance ages are from five to fifteen years and the length of stay is unlimited.

LENGTH OF DAILY INSTRUCTION

Hours are short—the longest school day amounting to two to three hours. Because of medical and surgical treatment,
there is much elasticity in the program of studies. Children leave their work and rest for short periods. Promotions are made freely from group to group at any time during the year when a pupil is able to do the work of the next grade.

EQUIPMENT OF INDOOR ROOMS

In the classrooms, the desks and seats are of the special adjustable sort. The backs and seats are movable at any angle. They are not usually fastened to the floor, as a child is often able to take a more comfortable position through a change of the desk or seat.

EQUIPMENT OF OUTDOOR CLASSES

Some rooms are especially designed for conducting outdoor classes. These are held on open platforms adjoining the building. Children sit in box-like chairs, with high backs extending to the floor, and with winged pieces at each side to break the wind. Warm clothing, caps and blankets are in abundance.

MASSACHUSETTS HOSPITAL SCHOOL

Some schools have certain differences. The following table of the Massachusetts Hospital School is enlightening.

MASSACHUSETTS HOSPITAL SCHOOL - 1930

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total Children Enrolled</th>
<th>Kindergarten</th>
<th>Twelve Elementary Classes</th>
<th>Pre-Vocational Classes</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>237</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7 -- The Care, Cure And Education Of The Crippled Child - by Henry Abt
Pre-vocational work includes training on the farm for the boys; domestic crafts in the cottages for the girls; and general trade work for both sexes.

INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL

The Industrial School For Crippled and Deformed Children is the only day school. Three motor busses bring the children to school. A hot dinner is served at noon. Any child, residing in the state, may attend the school without payment of tuition fee. Children are admitted as early as two years of age here, providing great benefit to the destitute.

HOSPITAL COTTAGES AT BALDWINVILLE

The hospital cottages at Baldwinville are supported by a permanent endowment fund and supervised by the Massachusetts State Commission of Mental Diseases.

SANITORIUMS

The sanatoriums which care for the tubercular children differ in that only the temporarily ill are given schooling. Their other type of patient is permanently ill and incurable. They are too sick for study and death comes eventually. There are two schoolrooms for the physically able, the primary and intermediate rooms. School is in session mornings only. 8

WORK OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS

The other agency responsible for the education of the crippled is the system of special classes and visiting teachers organized in the local public school systems. For many years,
a few cities, the first of which were Holyoke and Melrose, gave home instruction to those unable to attend school. A full-time teacher was employed.

LEGISLATION 1930 - 1932

In 1930 a law was passed requiring every town and city to determine annually the number of children of school age who were physically handicapped. Each community having five or more children so crippled that school attendance was impossible was required to employ a visiting teacher. This law was amended in 1932 to include all physically handicapped, i.e. the crippled, deaf and blind. From this legislation has resulted the facts presented in the table following.

HOME INSTRUCTION FOR PHYSICALLY HANDICAPPED - 1932 - 33

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cities</th>
<th>Visiting Teachers</th>
<th>Children</th>
<th>Cost Per Year</th>
<th>Cost For Each Child</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>67.6</td>
<td>509</td>
<td>$52,921.03</td>
<td>$103.97</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Towns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The curriculum of the public schools is followed in order to keep these children at the level of other children of their age who are in public school classes.\(^{10}\)

OPEN AIR CLASSES

Another branch of the work done by the public schools is the maintenance of open air classes. Those reported to the State Department are Boston, Cambridge, Chelsea, Newton, New Bedford, Holyoke, Springfield and Worcester. Supplies include warm wraps, meals with milk and eggs in abundance, and special chairs for outdoor use. Clinics are held often. The school doctors and nurses are of great help in rendering medical advice and assistance.

TEACHERS OF THE CRIPPLED

Teachers for all of these crippled children are regular teachers of the public school systems. They must have had at least three years experience before being employed as special teachers.

As in the aforementioned types of schooling, education for the physically disabled was initiated through private enterprise. In the earliest institutions, the House of the Good Samaritan and The Children's Mission To Children, education was only incidental. However, the real beginning was made in 1893 by the Industrial School for Crippled and Deformed Children, where special instruction was given to crippled children.
With this as a stimulus the State enacted legislation which founded the Massachusetts School and Home For Crippled and Deformed Children at Canton. To accommodate the scores who could not be benefited by this institution, the Commonwealth is granting aid through privately controlled hospital schools. Under this system hospital treatment and schooling are combined. Generally, elementary education predominates, although some vocational training is given to make the patients independent of the State when discharged.

Public school systems are also cooperating with the State as a result of legislation, passed in 1930 and modified in 1932, which requires each city or town, having five or more physically handicapped children, to employ visiting teachers to instruct those incapable of attending school. Of the many municipalities in Massachusetts, there were in 1932 only thirty-nine carrying on this obligation. This leaves many so afflicted untutored. However, since this is an entirely new program, there is hope that proper education to the needs of the crippled will receive the necessary funds to make this service state-wide.
CHAPTER VII - ADULT EDUCATION
ADULT EDUCATION

ADULT EDUCATION DEFINED

The educational opportunities provided for the improvement of adults form the content of the phrase -- adult education. The main agencies of this type of education are the university extension and the Americanization and citizenship class movements, which will be discussed in the order given.

DEFINITION OF UNIVERSITY EXTENSION

The term, university extension, describes a kind of education which includes home training, study clubs, summer and correspondence schools, reading circles and traveling libraries.

OVERVIEW OF ADULT EDUCATION 17-20th CENTURIES IN AMERICA

Let us go back to 1647 in America, and examine the education of the adults. The law of that year, which required that every child receive the fundamentals of education, didn’t contain provisions for the parents who lacked such basic knowledge. Most adults of that time knew very little of reading, writing and arithmetic, and the majority of the population of the United States knew nothing more than fundamentals until the present century. As for the foreign born who immigrated in such vast numbers during the last one hundred years, they lived their lives, with few exceptions, poorly adjusted to the social customs of this country, chiefly through a lack of knowledge of the English language. Not until recent years do
we find any attempts to remedy these conditions. The first step was the university extension movement.

BEGINNING OF UNIVERSITY EXTENSION

The phrase, university extension, originated in the discussions on reform prevalent in Oxford, England between 1840-1850. Professors thought the benefits of higher education should be extended to classes of students excluded from the University.¹

PUBLICATION OF WILLIAM SEWELL

The first publication to the country of England of this idea was a proposal made by Mr. William Sewell, Fellow and Senior Tutor of Exeter College in 1850. In a letter to the Vice-Chancellor of Oxford, he suggested the establishment of professorships and lectureships at Manchester and Birmingham in the midst of the densest population. He said, "Though it may be impossible to bring the masses requiring education to the University, may it not be possible to carry the University to them?" His plan, however, did not materialize.

HERVEY'S PLAN

In 1855, Lord Arthur Hervey published a recommendation for the establishment of lecture courses to aid members of Mechanics Institutes; but his scheme was frustrated because of inadequate railroad service.

UNIVERSITY EXAMINATIONS OPEN TO ALL

This led to the beginning of local examinations for adults and students at Oxford in 1857 and Cambridge in 1858.

¹ University Extension - Past, Present and Future - H. J. MacKinder - M. E. Sadler
Later, discourses were arranged in different centers under the supervision of these two universities to aid mechanics in passing the tests.

EXTENSION LECTURES

Popular lectures given in series began through the efforts of Professor James Stuart in 1867. Women school teachers were the first to hear these. When other groups of teachers made requests for more, the circuit began. By 1873, this scheme of extension lectures was adopted by local authorities, and was conducted under the supervision of Cambridge University. By 1877, the University at Oxford had a similar program, and to this University belongs the credit of the beginning of traveling libraries in 1887. 2

UNIVERSITY EXTENSION IN AMERICA

The English university extension movement was first fully presented to American audiences by Professor Herbert B. Adams of John Hopkins University, who spoke on the subject in an address given the American Library Association in 1887. The following winter the plan was put into effect in Buffalo, N. Y. in connection with the public library.

In 1888, Mr. Melvil Dewey urged the University Extension plan to the Regent of the University of New York State, where it became a part of the work in 1891. An appropriation of $10,000 was made by the Legislature for the support of the new work, this being the first state appropriation. 3

2 -- The University Afield - Hall Quest
3 -- Monographs on Education In the United States - Edited by Nicholas Butler
During this same year, more than two hundred such experiments were begun in nearly every state in the Union. This is attributed to the well developed system of Extension teaching which had grown up in England, and to the need for such educational opportunities. Perhaps a most important reason for the growth was the fact that foundations had been laid in America by previous agencies such as the American National Lyceum founded in 1831; and to the Chautauqua with its summer schools and Literary and Scientific Circle established in 1874.4

The General Society For Extension of University Teaching was organized in 1891, and held its first meeting in Philadelphia. Delegates included representatives of half a hundred of the best institutions of learning. Among those present was Michael Sadler, Secretary of the Oxford Delegacy, who then proceeded to spend several weeks in this country strengthening the system. The result of the meeting was a clearer idea of the principles advocated.

The following table shows the extent of growth of University Extension centers in Massachusetts in 1891.

---

4 -- Proceedings Of The First Annual Meeting Of The National Conference On University Extension - Compiled by George James
EXTENSION CENTERS IN MASSACHUSETTS - 1891

Centers
1. Attleboro
2. North Attleboro
3. Amherst
4. Cambridge
5. Westfield
6. Springfield

University Conducting Supervision
Brown University
Brown University
Amherst College
Harvard University
Trinity College, Hartford
Trinity College, Hartford

WANING INTEREST

The movement continued for two or three years and then enthusiasm waned in more than half the organizations spread over the United States. This was due to the lack of both suitable lectures and to distances to be traveled by the lecturers. Financial difficulty was a most decisive factor. With the exception of New York State, no legislatures showed any interests to keep the extension movements alive.

CORRESPONDENCE INSTRUCTION

Correspondence instruction was begun in 1892 when the University of Chicago made this type of teaching a subdivision of their extension department. Later, technical subjects were added to the purely cultural, and this kind of course was responsible for popular interest in extension education.

MASSACHUSETTS DEPARTMENT OF UNIVERSITY EXTENSION

That the movement was kept alive in Massachusetts and that
each year saw an increase in the numbers enrolled is illustrated by the following figures.\textsuperscript{8}

\textbf{INCREASE IN DEMANDS FOR UNIVERSITY EXTENSION COURSES IN BOSTON AND VICINITY}\textsuperscript{9}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Courses</th>
<th>Enrolment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1910-11</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>863</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1911-12</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1912-13</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>1060</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1913-14</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>1127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1914-15</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>1309</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1915-16</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>1544</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

By 1915 a Department of University Extension of the Massachusetts Board of Education was established under the provisions of Chapter 294 of the General Acts. The main divisions of this work were, (1) university extension courses for class instruction; (2) lecture courses; (3) correspondence courses. Other educational activities included visual instruction through the circulation of stereopticon slides and photographs; literary service through the circulation of books; references and aids for debates and other printed materials; advisory service for public officials; provision of musical and literary entertainments; and popular lectures.

The state was divided into twenty-six districts, each containing a center, usually located in the largest town in the district.

For the formation of a class there had to be at least

\textsuperscript{8} -- Commonwealth of Massachusetts - Department of University Extension - Annual Report - Vol. I - Jan. 1916
\textsuperscript{9} -- Commonwealth of Massachusetts - Second Annual Report - Department of University Extension - 1917
twenty registrations in the same subject. If there were less than twenty and more than ten in one community registering in the same course, they could organize a group for study, which class would meet regularly - weekly - for discussion. If there was an average attendance of eight, an instructor met them monthly. These principles are still in existence.

In the beginning, no tuition fees were charged. A student paid the cost only of the lesson pamphlets, stationery, text-books and postage; the State paid entirely for the instruction. Now, the State pays some but the student, by his contribution, really makes University Extension self-supporting.

NUMBERS BENEFITING FROM EXTENSION WORK

The following table gives an idea of the variety of the work in the State in 1917 and the great number of students reached by each institution.

EXTENSION WORK IN MASSACHUSETTS IN 1917 10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Enrolment</th>
<th>Courses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mass. Agricultural College</td>
<td>1,257</td>
<td>Correspondence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4,000</td>
<td>Community Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commission on Univ. Extension (Educational institutions near Boston)</td>
<td>1,419</td>
<td>Largely Class Work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lowell Institute</td>
<td>50 - 1,000</td>
<td>Lectures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School For Industrial Foremen</td>
<td>405</td>
<td>Class Work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Y. M. Catholic A. of Boston</td>
<td>1,574</td>
<td>Lectures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northeastern College</td>
<td>1,800</td>
<td>Lectures</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10 -- Commonwealth of Massachusetts - Department of University Extension - Annual Report - Vol. II - No. 2 - 1917
Institution | Enrolment | Courses
--- | --- | ---
6. Franklin Union | 2,223 | Lectures
7. Lowell Textile School | 301 | Lectures
8. Boston University Religious Education | 485 | Lectures
9. Recreational Leadership Boston | 300 | Lectures
10. School For Social Workers (Boston) | 51 | Lectures
11. Connecticut Valley Colleges | 60 | Lectures
12. Williams College | 164 | Lectures
14. Fall River Textile School | figures not available | Lectures
15. Smith School of Industry and Agriculture | figures not available | Lectures

Total in round numbers = 20,000

ADJUSTMENT TO WAR CONDITIONS

Even in its early history, University Extensional education formed a flexible curriculum. Thus, when the United States entered the World War, the classes were organized in spoken French for soldiers, sailors and nurses. Bulletins were published on saving food and coal. Manufacturers were offered the services of trained engineers to give demonstrations of coal saving in company engine rooms. Architectural and structural designers were trained as mechanical draftsmen for later employment in the War department. Mathematics was taught to Coast Artillery.  

11 -- Commonwealth of Massachusetts - Second Annual Report - Department of University Extension - 1917
12 -- Commonwealth of Massachusetts - Fourth Annual Report - Department of University Extension - Vol. IV - No. 2
NEW COURSES

So this elasticity has continued with the addition of new courses every year to meet changing social and economic conditions. In 1937, there were offered over one hundred courses in literature, music, art, drawing, English, foreign languages, history, economics, sociology, education, psychology, mathematics, science and law. Some of the courses are designed to give higher cultural knowledge, others business knowledge and still more, vocational knowledge. Teachers are aided by special arrangements.

The following list of new subjects undertaken in 1937 is valuable in showing this expansion of the work.

NEW UNIVERSITY EXTENSION COURSES - 1936-7

1. American Federal System of Government
2. Automatic Controls For Air Conditioning and Oil Burners
3. Bacteriology and Its Applications
4. Building A Pleasing Personality
5. Choric Speaking
6. Conservation of Natural Resources
7. Fabrics
8. Field Work In Physical Geography
9. First Aid and Public Health In Relation To Education
10. Gaelic
11. Hospital Library Service
12. Irish History
13. Metallography
14. Naval Architecture
15. Parallels And Contrasts In Literature
16. School Examination Preparation - Nautical School
17. Personal Management
18. Phonics
19. Postal Clerks' Examination
20. Principles of Fabric Structure
21. Island Geography
22. Preparation For Parole Officers' Exam
23. Preparation For Unemployment Compensation
24. Psychology of Radio Code Practice
25. Radio Dramatics

13 -- Commonwealth of Massachusetts - Bulletins of Department of University Extension - 1937 - Vol. 22
Recent organizations are study groups and radio broadcasts.

**ENROLMENT IN EXTENSION CLASSES**

The next data shows enrolment trends of the past ten years.

**ENROLMENT OF INSTRUCTION**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Correspondence</th>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Radio</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1927</td>
<td>4,459</td>
<td>31,067</td>
<td>2,276</td>
<td>37,802</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1928</td>
<td>3,169</td>
<td>32,363</td>
<td>1,027</td>
<td>36,559</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1929</td>
<td>4,676</td>
<td>31,324</td>
<td>352</td>
<td>36,352</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1930</td>
<td>4,140</td>
<td>32,347</td>
<td>324</td>
<td>36,811</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1931</td>
<td>3,976</td>
<td>33,218</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>37,373</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1932</td>
<td>3,043</td>
<td>27,850</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>30,970</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1933</td>
<td>2,762</td>
<td>27,276</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>30,135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1934</td>
<td>2,632</td>
<td>27,080</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>29,754</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1935</td>
<td>4,596</td>
<td>26,188</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>30,784</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1936</td>
<td>4,049</td>
<td>25,800</td>
<td>308</td>
<td>30,157</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Comparing the 1936 figures with previous years, a gain over the depression period 1931-4 is seen. Enrolment now represents a normal demand.

Although extension numbers have decreased, opportunities for instruction have increased. In 1936, there were 636 organized classes as compared with 584 of the preceding year.
STATE EXPENDITURE

The cost of this education for 1935-6 was: 15

State Expenditure - - - $175,412.82
Returned to State (Fees) - 147,517.14
Free Service
   (647 correspondence courses to
    prison inmates
   101 films loaned to schools ) 2,432.50
Net Cost to State 25,562.68
Net Cost to State Per Pupil .85

The amount of good that the Department is doing for all these thousands of people is perfectly wonderful especially upon meditation of the fact that $.85 is the total expenditure for each student.

VALUE OF UNIVERSITY EXTENSION EDUCATION

Some conclusions as to the place of university extension education would include the following:--

1. Promising minds of every community are gathered into classes and audiences where living questions of the day are discussed.

2. An increased number of people seek higher education, raising the level of society.

3. Gifted individuals not attracted to general education are able to take education benefited to their taste.

4. Great numbers of people who wish to combine business and education are stimulated and satisfied by the lectures.

5. There is a greater equalization of intellectual opportunity.

15 -- Commonwealth of Massachusetts - Fourth Report
Department of University Extension - 1920
The other means of adult education, Americanization and citizenship, has a briefer history. The beginnings are recent: the entrance of the United States in the World War. The war revealed the ignorance of English among large numbers of the foreign born; 350,000 or ten percent of the population of Massachusetts couldn't read or write English; 118,000 couldn't read or write any language; 300,000 or 90% were over twenty-one years of age.

Accordingly, the Department sought the cooperation of the industries in the State, believing that the teaching of English to non-English speaking employees would be helpful to the individuals themselves, to industry and to the community.

FEDERAL STATE PROGRAM

Thus such instruction was the starting point of all Americanization opportunities. A plan evolved -- The Federal State Program For Immigrant Education -- the purpose of which was the coordination of the activities of the state agencies interested in immigrant education, of local public school system, and of all other private and semi-private agencies interested in the work. The arrangement was accepted by school committees all over the state of Massachusetts. A director of education whose main duty was to interest the foreign born in learning English was appointed in each municipality. All classes were to be organized under direct supervision of public school authorities.
TEACHER TRAINING

At the present time, teachers of Americanization classes are required to possess certificates which are given by the Department of University Extension of courses in methods of teaching English to immigrants. The value of this is uniformity of Americanization classes throughout the State.16

SUMMARY OF ALIEN EDUCATION

A summary of the vast numbers who have taken advantage of Adult alien education since its establishment under the provisions of Chapter 39, Sections 9 and 10, of General Laws, is presented here.

ADULT ALIEN EDUCATION 1918 - 193617

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Enrolment</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Enrolment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1918-19</td>
<td>3,281</td>
<td>1927-28</td>
<td>25,101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1919-20</td>
<td>9,030</td>
<td>1928-29</td>
<td>24,846</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1920-21</td>
<td>20,475</td>
<td>1929-30</td>
<td>23,460</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1921-22</td>
<td>22,242</td>
<td>1930-31</td>
<td>23,698</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1922-23</td>
<td>27,658</td>
<td>1931-32</td>
<td>21,170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1923-24</td>
<td>32,337</td>
<td>1932-33</td>
<td>12,345</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1924-25</td>
<td>28,903</td>
<td>1933-34</td>
<td>10,569</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1925-26</td>
<td>27,759</td>
<td>1934-35</td>
<td>11,488</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1926-27</td>
<td>25,123</td>
<td>1935-36</td>
<td>12,489</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It can be readily seen that attendance has decreased considerably. Many classes formerly sponsored by factories and other private concerns had to be dropped during depression years. Five of these classes re-opened in 1935-36, indicative of an upward trend depending on financial stability.

16 -- Federal State Program For Immigrant Education, No. I - 1919
17 -- Commonwealth of Massachusetts - Annual Report - Department of Education - 1935-6
That most of the students are evening school attendants is seen by the facts below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1934-35</th>
<th>1935-36</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Number of Students</td>
<td>11,488</td>
<td>12,489</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Number of Classes</td>
<td>521</td>
<td>544</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In Evening Schools</td>
<td>363</td>
<td>376</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In Factories</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In Neighborhood Classes  (Clubs, Churches, etc.)</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>141</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PRESENT CURRICULUM

That a revival seems to be on its way is pointed out by a more broadened program, which includes dramatics, excursions, discussions, clubs, music, guided reading, exhibits, study groups and others.

The numbers of cities and towns providing directors in 1936, as gathered from the next data, is quite adequate. This is an average of one director for every five communities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Directors</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Full Time Directors</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part Time Directors</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The amount of reimbursement distributed by the State for 1936 was $59,038.46, approximately $5.00 per person. The State should feel elated at its ability to give, so cheaply, such unlimited advantages to its aliens.

VALUE OF AMERICANIZATION

Values are reaped by the State too through this assimilation of the foreign born into society. These people learn to
respect this country. Many are enabled to pass the citizenship tests, and so become active members of our democracy.

CONCLUSIONS

Thus, after over 250 years of providing nothing for the education of its adults, Massachusetts today gives these opportunities through two agencies — university extension for intellectual advancement and Americanization for citizenship. The idea of the former began in Oxford about the middle of the nineteenth century, and eventually resulted in extension lectures under the supervision of Cambridge and Oxford Universities. Immediately upon the introduction of the movement in America, it developed with rapidity. Since this kind of education managed to thrive for over a quarter of a century on private support, the Massachusetts legislature in 1915 established a Department of University Extension. Since that time, at a cost to the student of from $3.00 to $10.00 per credit, every year has seen improvements in both the quality and quantity of the courses.

The other agency — Americanization — was begun upon the discovery of language ignorance of foreigners as revealed by the World War. All supervision is under the public schools and so the beneficiaries pay nothing for their knowledge. Here, too, the program is ever broadening. Consequently the State, in return for its contributions to these groups of people, is composed of a society of a higher intellectual strata.
CHAPTER VIII - THE DISABLED
MEANING OF VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION

Education for the disabled is usually called Vocational Rehabilitation. The dictionary definition of "rehabilitation" is "restoration to a former state, capacity, privilege, or rank." Thus, there may be as many forms of rehabilitation as there are states or capacities to which reinstatement or restoration may be made. The definition in the national act is "the rendering of a physically disabled person fit to engage in a remunerative occupation." ¹

ATTITUDE LONG AGO TOWARD DISABLED

To trace the history of the growth of the rehabilitation movement we would have to begin with a description of the attitude of the primitive people toward the disabled. The physically weak were left on the mountain sides to die. For centuries public feeling toward such unfortunates was intolerant. When the practice of doing away with them was abandoned, they were social outcasts. It was a long time before this spirit began to change.

EARLY ATTITUDE OF ENGLISH

In the eighteenth century in England, the Government classified all people into three groups. The third class was composed of the disabled. During the same century, a constructive point of view was seen. Because of the rise of modern orthopedics, institutions were founded in many European centers

¹ Federal Government - Board For Vocational Education - Vocational Rehabilitation In The United States - Bulletin 1927
problem. For instance, many labor employers of industries felt responsible for those disabled in their employ and continued to keep them at work in minor positions. Again, many disabled persons through their own accord achieved self-rehabilitation. Efforts and accomplishments of such people as Helen Keller did much to bring about a constructive attitude of society toward the disabled.

By the early part of the present century the public realized the needs of the disabled. Private agencies, such as the New York Institute for the Crippled and Disabled, the Cleveland Association for Crippled and Disabled, and the Service League for the Handicapped in Chicago were pioneers in the helping of this group of people. Social agencies began to aid in the finding of employment for the physically disabled.

FACTORS HASTENING A REHABILITATION PROGRAM

Hastening the development of constructive rehabilitation was the growth of the problem. The expansion of manufacturing, and the speeding up of transportation brought about thousands of disabling accidents. This caused many states, beginning in 1911, to pass compensation acts. Money, however, didn't lessen the disability. An injured workman was entitled to more than this.

STATE LEGISLATION ACTION

The States next began to study the problem of providing rehabilitation for their industrially disabled. Massachusetts was the first to take legislative action. On May 28, 1918, an act was passed which provided for the training of persons
whose capacity to earn a living had been destroyed or impaired by industrial accident. The State Industrial Board was appointed the administrative agency.

SMITH-SEARS BILL

During this same period Congress was considering the enactment of similar legislation. A significant bearing on the whole situation was the entrance of the United States in the World War. European nations since 1914 had been rehabilitating disabled soldiers for other useful duties. Consequently the Federal Board for Vocational Education made a survey of this work abroad. The result was the passage of the Smith-Sears bill in June 1918, for vocational rehabilitation of disabled soldiers, sailors and marines, under the direction of the Federal Government.

FESS-KENYON ACT

In June, 1920, a similar act, the Fess-Kenyon Act, for the rehabilitation of persons disabled in industry was passed. It provided financial assistance to the States, which, in turn, had to assume direct responsibility for the rehabilitation of individuals. This legislation established as a public policy the principle that the Nation should share with the States the common responsibility for vocationally rehabilitating disabled citizens whose difficulties involve handicaps which might be overcome. The Federal Government agreed to make appropriations, encourage the work of the States, and give advice in all problems. 2

2 — Federal Government - Board For Vocational Education - First Pan-American Conference On Education, Rehabilitation, Reclamation and Recreation
AMENDMENT OF MASSACHUSETTS LAW

Massachusetts cooperated with the Federal Government by amending its state act of 1918. This amendment took place in May, 1921. Control of the program was removed from the Industrial Board to the State Board For Vocational Education.\(^3\)

WHO IS ELIGIBLE?

According to the Massachusetts law, "the services are available for any resident of Massachusetts, of legal employable age, either male or female, who has a physical disability which is a vocational handicap and who reasonably may be expected to be fitted for remunerative employment." Disability may be congenital or the result of an accident.\(^4\)

TYPE OF TRAINING

There are no special schools in the state set aside to do vocational rehabilitation work. The necessary training is accomplished through cooperation of other agencies, such as the public schools, industries, labor unions, insurance companies, hospitals, Public Employment Office; Department of Industrial Accidents, Division of the Blind, and the Department of Public Welfare. Education is arranged as near as possible to the residence of the handicapped. It may be a combination of two or more of the following forms or it may consist of one form as here shown.

\(^3\) Commonwealth of Massachusetts - Vocational Rehabilitation Bulletin - 1937
\(^4\) Commonwealth of Massachusetts - Vocational Rehabilitation Bulletin - 1937
### TYPES OF TRAINING

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Institutional</td>
<td>Suitable Course in trade, technical, agricultural or commercial schools—day or evening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment</td>
<td>Employment training in a factory, commercial establishment, etc. under supervision of a cooperative employer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correspondence</td>
<td>Courses during convalescence in preparation for more intensive training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tutorial</td>
<td>Tutor supplements correspondence course when individual can't contact other agencies</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The work is designed so that instruction is offered along the lines the incapacitated likes, or was formerly engaged in. Because of this provision, the disabled is quite apt to be successful.

**METHOD**

In order to accomplish vocational rehabilitation, often it is necessary to effect physical or moral restoration. The service of the vocational rehabilitation offered in the state is limited as far as expenditures are concerned to activities directed to vocational reestablishment; so when additional services are needed, other agencies throughout the state cooperate.

Thus there are two methods in rehabilitation. Physical restoration may itself be vocational rehabilitation; or physical restoration may be an antecedent to vocational rehabilitation, as the Section pays one-half the cost of an artificial appliance when such a purchase enables a handicapped person to undertake training.  

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5 -- Commonwealth of Massachusetts -- Annual Report - Department of Education - 1935 - 6
The whole work is organized on the case method system. Because of varying degrees of disability, education, age, capacity, energy, spirit or determination, each person requires individual assistance, advice, guidance and supervision, a service supplied by a rehabilitation agent. When training is necessary, the agent secures it from such facilities as are available in the particular community in which the person resides. The agent continues this service until the handicapped person has been definitely established in remunerative employment. In cases where employment training is practical, the Rehabilitation Section pays for the courses, tuition, the expense of travel to and from the place of instruction, necessary supplies and in certain cases, the living costs during the training.\textsuperscript{6}

THE STAFF 1921-1935

From 1921-1935, the staff of rehabilitation specialists in Massachusetts consisted of a supervisor and three assistants. In August 1935, the Legislature adopted the Social Security Act, which provided for expansion. Since that time, several groups of handicapped persons, to this date somewhat neglected, have been included in the program. These include the deaf, the hard of hearing, the cardiac, the arrested tubercular, and the paralysis cases. To care for these people, the staff was increased, so that in 1938, there is the supervisor, six assistants and an employment coordinator.\textsuperscript{7}

\textsuperscript{6} -- First Pan-American Conference - op. cit.
\textsuperscript{7} -- Annual Report - Massachusetts Department of Education - 1935-36 - op. cit.
The following statistical data will give some conception of the volume, scope, and characteristics of the rehabilitation program since its inception.

SUMMARY OF SERVICES -- 1921 - 1936

| Contacts | Prospects | Cases Listed | Registered Cases | Trants without training | Placed Rehabilitation | Closed Cases |  |
|----------|-----------|--------------|------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------|--------------|
| 79,716   | 9,580     | 4,151        | 2,053            | 777                     | 1,777                 | 1,651        |

COST OF SERVICE -- 1921 - 1935

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Federal Funds Available - Yearly</th>
<th>State Funds Appropriated Annually</th>
<th>Matching Federal Funds Appropriated</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$34,750.82</td>
<td>$15,000.00</td>
<td>$15,000.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1935 - 38</td>
<td></td>
<td>1935 - 38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$63,802.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

AGENCIES PROVIDING TRAINING 1935-6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total In Training</th>
<th>Public Institutions</th>
<th>Private Institutions</th>
<th>Correspondence Instruction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>168</td>
<td>29.76%</td>
<td>14.88%</td>
<td>5.36%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Classifications of registrants during 1935-6 is presented in the following table.\textsuperscript{7}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Groups</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- 21 years</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>26.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 - 30</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>31.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 - 40</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>19.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41 - 50</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>11.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51 - over</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>11.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unknown</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disability</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hand</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>11.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hands</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arm</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>6.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arms</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leg</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>30.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legs</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>5.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hand - Arm</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hand - Leg</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arm - Leg</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vision</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hearing</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>20.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Debility</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>18.89</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grs. 1 - 6</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>11.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot; 7 - 9</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>37.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot; 10 -12</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>38.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beyond 12</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>10.53</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Origin of Disability</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employment Accidents</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>21.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>19.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disease</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>48.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congenital</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>9.90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>239</td>
<td>73.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>26.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textsuperscript{7} -- op. cit.
From the preceding table, it is seen that the people affected by this type of education are of all ages, with all types of disabilities, resulting from many origins. Both men and women receive benefits, and previous education ranges from none to college work.

The economic value to the rehabilitated is shown by the following facts.

**STUDY OF FULL REHABILITATION - 1935-6**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total Cases</th>
<th>Average Weekly Earnings Before Training</th>
<th>Average Weekly Earnings After Training</th>
<th>Increase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>173</td>
<td>$3.18</td>
<td>$15.50</td>
<td>$12.38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The annual payroll of these cases amounted to $111,370.48. Since the amount expended yearly is about $60,000.00, this type of education is a wise economic investment.

The occupations for which training was given include:

1. Accountant
2. Arc welder
3. Artist - commercial
4. Artist - creative
5. Assembler - jewelry
6. Assembler - lamp bulbs
7. Assembler and solderer - jewelry
8. Automobile mechanic
9. Barber
10. Bookbinder
11. Bookkeeper
12. Cabinet-maker
13. Carpenter
14. Chemist-industrial
15. Cleaner and dyer
16. Clerk - factory
17. Clerk - office
18. Clerk - office and switchboard
19. Clerk - office machine operator
20. Clerk - office and switchboard
21. Clerical worker
22. Clerical worker - factory
23. Clerical worker - office
24. Composer
25. Cook
26. Craftsman
27. Draftsman
28. Elevator operator
29. Electrician
30. Engineer
31. Farmer
32. Furniture maker
33. Gas meter reader
34. Gardener
35. Gateway operator
36. General laborer
37. Glass blower
38. Gymnastic instructor
39. Hairdresser
40. Harness maker
41. Hardware merchant
42. Heat and air conditioning
43. Heat and air conditioning
44. Heat and air conditioning
45. Heating and ventilating
46. Heating and ventilating
47. Laboratory technician
48. Linotype operator
49. Machinist - automotive
50. Maintenance man
51. Manicurist
52. Matron
53. Mattress maker
54. Metal sorter
55. Milk inspector
56. Milliner
57. Milling machine operator
58. Needle worker-hand
59. Needle worker-hand & machinery
60. Nursery man's helper
61. Photo refinisher
62. Photo printer
63. Poultry helper
64. Power machine operator
65. Presser - clothes

7 -- op. cit.
20. Clerk - stock keeper
21. Compositor - hand
22. Compositor - machine
23. Compositor and press feeder
24. Comptometer operator
25. Dental mechanic
26. Designer - costume
27. Designer - textile
28. Dietician
29. Domestic
30. Draftsman
31. Dressmaker
32. Engineer - civil
33. Engineer - stationary
34. Factory sorter
35. Fireman - stationary
36. Floriculturist
37. Handicraft supervisor
38. Hospital attendant - male
39. Hospital attendant - female
40. Insurance underwriter
41. Iron worker - ornamental
42. Kitchen helper
43. Knitter-stocking machine
44. Laboratory assistant-chemical manufacturing
45. Laboratory assistant-paper manufacturing
46. Laboratory assistant - water analysis
47. Printer
48. Repairman - utensils
49. Repairman - radio
50. Salesman
51. Salesman - Photo engraving
52. Secretary
53. Sheet metal worker
54. Shipper
55. Shoe repairer
56. Shoe stitcher
57. Sign painter
58. Sign painter - posters
59. Stand Salesman
60. Stapling machine operator
61. Stenographer
62. Tailor
63. Textile worker
64. Timekeeper
65. Typist
66. Upholsterer
67. Watch and clock repairman
68. Watchmaker
69. Wood finisher
70. Wood operator
71. Wood shaper - guns
72. Wood worker
73. X-ray laboratory technician

EVALUATION

To summarize, there is, indeed, a striking contrast to the attitude of the people of Massachusetts today and of past years in their regard to the disabled of the State. Formerly objects of pity and dependent upon charity and good will for a livelihood, the incapacitated are now returned to industry or other remunerative occupations through Rehabilitation, which fits them for a place in the world from which they were forced by disease or injury. Here again private enterprise pointed the way. Many employers, feeling responsible for those injured in
their employ, furnished these injured with work adapted to their disabilities. The achievements of Helen Keller prompted several private institutions to pioneer in this field. Resulting successes led to a wide study in many states of this now pressing problem and Massachusetts again took the lead by providing for the training of persons whose earning capacity had been inhibited by industrial accident. The World War, which followed soon after, prompted the Federal Government to provide funds for the rehabilitation of citizens whose handicaps might be overcome through proper training.

Great progress has been made with respect to the volume of accomplishments, particularly in the light of the limited staff in operation. Because of its efficiency, vocational rehabilitation has justified itself on its economic returns to the State.
Chapter IX

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS
CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

The social consequences of countless handicapped persons, dependent on relatives, friends or the State, was brought to the attention of the public about one hundred years ago. Before that time, the education of the deaf, blind, feebleminded, wayward and crippled was confined to private schools. The treatment and training of these people had not even been considered as a responsibility of the Commonwealth. As for the hard of hearing, the partially blind, the less seriously retarded, the unstable and those of lowered vitality, these attended the public schools, and commonly they failed in school work; but this was considered as being unavoidable, not preventable. Gradually, however, Massachusetts realized it was a duty to fit the abler of these for occupations in order to make them self-supporting.

The following conclusions indicate the adequacy of the training given today to the afflicted. Adequacy is interpreted as:

1. Quantity -- A brief resume is presented, reviewing the numbers so handicapped throughout the State and municipalities, and those being cared for by means of public agencies.

2. Quantity -- Persons who are participating in profitable work have been considered as being benefited by the specific training in State institutions. In some branches, the figures were incomplete, making conclusions impossible. Regarding the quality of education resultant of public school
measures, no deductions could be reached. Data was unobtainable due to the newness of the work.

Deaf

The Massachusetts Department of Education by means of its own four schools, another which it supports and four day classes located in various cities, is responsibly undertaking the training of the deaf. According to the 1930 census there were in this State 508 known deaf children. Two years later, the annual report of the Department stated that 664 children were enrolled in their institutions, an indication that adequate instruction is provided. Owing to the recency of adoption, training for the hard of hearing is limited to fifteen cities, where 1212 children are taught lip-reading. Since 318 cities have not as yet adopted this system, the instruction of the hard of hearing is not sufficient.(1932-3)

Blind

No conclusion can be reached concerning the sufficiency of the capacity of Perkins since the proportion of the 1924 blind persons in the State in 1930, who had received training there, could not be determined. The value of this kind of education, however, is seen from figures indicating that three times as many trained blind in comparison to untrained, are gainfully employed. The facilities to aid those with more than ten percent vision are not far reaching, since only twenty localities, enrolling 502 children, maintain sight-saving classes (1932-3).
Mental Defectives

What is being done by the State Institutions for the feebleminded is seen by data showing an average yearly enrollment of 7000. Since the total number of defectives in the State is unknown, it can not be said if this 7000 represents all who need attention. Of this figure, however, a yearly average of 2500 individuals are working in a variety of occupations which shows that the training given is valuable. As for the program of the public schools, there were in 1932-3 133 communities which maintained special classes for 8340 retarded children. In each of the municipalities - having less than ten so handicapped - they housed those pupils in classes of the normal; this inadequacy being attributed to present deficient legislation.

Wayward

Since the State reformatories are ever filled to their capacities -- 1100, and have long waiting lists, it would seem that provision for this type of training is insufficient. The numbers cared for in the county training schools, 424, and in the probation service, 25,738 (1936), shows what is being done. No conclusion was reached, through lack of data, as to the adequacy of these agencies. Failures, forty percent of the cases from reformatories for children, and eighty percent from the Massachusetts Reformatory for adults, indicate quality with room for improvement.

Crippled

Kansas is a pioneer state because of its careful investi-
gation of the number of crippled needing instruction, and this information is of interest in judging the quantity of this type of education in Massachusetts. In 1930, out of a population of 1,880,999, there were 7000 in need of aid. The population of Massachusetts was 4,249,614, and those trained numbered 1398. Should percents for each state be similar, there probably are still many such children to be reached. As for the work done by the public schools, (1932-3) only 39 of 323 systems had visiting teachers. No material was available on the quality -- the numbers able to return to former classes at school.

**Adults**

What is being done by University Extension for those seeking self-improvement is seen by means of the 1936 survey which reveals 30,157 persons enrolled in over 100 courses. The figures for the same year inform us that 12,486 aliens were taking advantage of citizenship training. It is impossible to say whether a majority of those caring for intellectual advancement are able to take the work of University Extension; but light is thrown upon the value of the education of the foreign born by the decrease in their illiteracy. The percentage given for 1918 was 10%; for 1920, 4.7%; for 1930, 3.5%. Since the foreign born have composed the largest part of our illiteracy, this reduction was largely confined to the ranks of the aliens.

**Disabled**

Between 1921 and 1936, 2554 from a total of 4151 adult
disabled were reinstated to gainful pursuits thereby eliminating personal and industrial distress. The average weekly earnings of 173 cases under supervision of vocational rehabilitation in 1936 rose from $3.18 to $15.50, certainly an economic quality. The scope of the work undertaken is displayed by the fact that 92 different kinds of training were given.

POSSIBLE SUGGESTIONS

Three general recommendations affect all types of special education discussed in this thesis:

1. Public Opinion

Proof that the majority of the State's population do not realize the significance of specialized guidance is the fact that there are many towns and rural communities in which no provision is made for the qualified. Planned campaigns, using the newspapers, magazines and radio, and the showing of moving picture reels of present training would be helpful in swaying public opinion to the point of fuller cooperation.

2. Prevention

The care, training, placement and follow-up of the crippled is not sufficient. Prevention should be included. A united attack by the nation, state and cities against disease, poverty and ignorance could aid in removing the basic causes of these disabilities.

3. Financial Burden

Rural school districts, taxed to the limit to give schooling to the average, do not feel able to increase their
financial budgets to provide for the unfortunates. Thoughtful
consideration of plans for granting more state aid to these
poorer sections might remedy this situation.

Some specific suggestions follow:

**Deaf**

1. The day school has advantages over the residential. The afflicted child can live at home with his parents, and thus feels more secure. The school is able to maintain closer contact with the home, which cooperation solves many mental difficulties. The burden to the State is less, the residential schools costing $600 per pupil per year, day schools averaging $400. Would it be more effective to have more day than residential schools?

2. Another line of thought might be to try the experiment of grouping these children through school life, giving them one instructor -- a person who can teach lip-reading and who would thoroughly understand the situation.

**Blind**

3. Blindness arouses much popular interest, but little emphasis is placed upon safeguarding sight. Since nearly three-fourths of the blindness in the United States is preventable, would not conservation movements be worthwhile?

**Mental Defectives**

4. If mental defectives were to be retained in the community through a state wide organization of special classes, the huge saving involved could be used for research or for cases committed to the Division of Mental Diseases.
5. Might it not be helpful in the adjustment of the mental defectives who at sixteen must leave special classes if there were a plan to supervise them until of age?

Wayward

6. If every child could be known and understood in a friendly way by some teacher, perhaps reform could be accomplished because of the friendship. Could this type of method be used to advantage in dealing with those who are of probable failure material?

7. To eliminate many of the failures in the probation system, could more agents be employed? The additional appropriation needed might be gained by the support of the public in general.

The final possible plan, although general, has been left until the last, since it affects the role of leadership that Massachusetts has always played. In practically all fields of education, the Commonwealth has maintained a splendid record as a pioneer. Does it not seem rather strange that, in the present, this State should lack one piece of legislation — namely, sterilization, which would, in the distant future, largely eliminate the need for education of special types? Sterilization would be a protective measure for society. It would prevent the production of children who would inherit the same defects of their parents — the feebleminded, wayward, epileptic, insane, deaf, blind, and the other socially inadequates. This kind of law would have immediate effect, in that it would reduce the load on each succeeding generation.
instead of letting it become heavier as at present. Naturally the complete elimination of hereditary defects would be a long slow process, but this State would be traveling the road of reduction. Just as the other states have followed our leadership before, they would probably pass like legislation. Massachusetts would still be the pioneer.
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