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ADJUSTMENT OF SCHOOL ORGANIZA-
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GROUPS

BY

ROBERT ALEXANDER FYFE McDONALD, PH. D.
PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, BATES COLLEGE

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PREFACE

For numerous suggestions in the prosecution of this study the author desires to acknowledge gratefully his indebtedness to his instructors in Teachers College, including Dr. Henry Suzzallo, Dr. Paul Monroe, Dr. George D. Strayer, and Dr. Milo B. Hillegaş. Special acknowledgment is due Dr. Suzzallo, professor of Educational Sociology, under whose supervision the study has been conducted, and whose continued advice, encouragement, and guidance have been a large factor in the preparation of this dissertation. The thanks of the writer are also accorded to the one hundred and fifty school principals, superintendents, and directors who, through courteous and prompt replies to letters of inquiry, have contributed many valuable details embodied in this work.

Chapters II to XI, inclusive, contain graphic representations of particular educational movements, and for each of these graphs there is a corresponding appendix. The work of preparing a complete inventory of special schools and classes is a well-nigh impossible task, owing to the difficulty of securing accurate data with respect to a number of schools which very successfully elude being listed. Hence, the appendices at the close of this study cannot be considered exhaustive, but merely suggestive as to when, where, and in what form each general movement has originated and developed. The tributary details have been obtained from a variety of sources, including the annual reports of the United States Commissioner of Education, reports of individual institutions, correspondence, educational publications, and personal observation.

By utilizing only such data as seem reliable, the aim has been to designate, in each instance, the year and place in which class instruction in a particular department actually began. In several states legislative enactments have been passed either creating new corporations for educational undertakings or legalizing certain innovations in schools; but the actual developments have not appeared for some time, owing to a lack of necessary resources or administrative provision.



The terms "state" and "public," as used here, imply that such institutions are supported from public funds and are controlled by boards of directors selected either by political executives or by popular vote. The term "public," therefore, may be applied to a municipal, a county, a state, or a national institution. Whenever a school is found to be either controlled or supported, even in part, by a private individual, association, or corporation, such a school is termed "semi-public" or "private."

At the close of each chapter a list of sources and authorities is given. These are arranged and lettered, for the most part, according to the order in which the data have been employed in the discussion.

R. A. F. McD.

April 1, 1915.

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ADJUSTMENT OF SCHOOL ORGANIZATION TO VARIOUS POPULATION GROUPS

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

There is a theory having widespread acceptance in American life, which suggests that a democratic society should provide a system of education affording equal opportunity for the children of all its citizens. It implies that education is an individual privilege to which every child is entitled. It also asserts that the education of all is a necessity for the maintenance of liberal institutions. In seeking the realization of this democratic theory of educational opportunity, the state has decreed in its compulsory attendance laws that every child shall satisfy those minimal educational requirements which are essential to protect society against the specific dangers of illiteracy and ignorance. Furthermore, it has extended the privilege of education far beyond the compulsory attendance age, providing diverse opportunities so as to encourage every youth to approximate his maximum in attainment.

Such a theory of popular education is characteristically American, and its roots are discoverable far back in the earliest beginnings of colonial life. As early as 1645 the town of Roxbury, Massachusetts, in establishing a school, took thought "how necessary the education of their children in literature will be to fit them for public service both in church and commonwealth." (a: 61)

In the famous statute of 1647 the General Court of Massachusetts decreed the appointment of a teacher in every town with fifty householders "to teach all such children as shall resort to him to write and read," and was careful to lay down the additional stipulation that "those that send their children be not

oppressed by paying much more than they can have them taught for in other towns." (b:6)

Thus at the very beginning of American life, stress was laid upon the conception of schools open to all on terms oppressive to none. The religious theories of Puritanism were largely responsible for initiating this doctrine of educational opportunity and need into American thought;¹ it remained for the political theories of the Revolutionary and post-Revolutionary periods to vitalize and extend the conception of popular education.

The expressions of the great national leaders of this era will indicate the views widely held in American society at the beginning of the nineteenth century.

George Washington always cherished a deep interest in the matter of education. He says: "Knowledge is in every country the surest basis of public happiness. In one in which the measures of government receive their impressions so immediately from the sense of the community as in ours, it is proportionally essential." "Promote, then, as an object of primary importance, institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge. In proportion as the structure of the government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened." (c:7-8)

John Adams, the second president, speaking of American schools, said: "All the children of the inhabitants, the rich as well as the poor, have a right to go to these public schools." He again affirmed his belief when he said that "The whole people must take upon themselves the education of the whole people and must be willing to bear the expense of it. There should not be a district of one mile square without a school in it, not founded by a charitable individual, but maintained at the expense of the people themselves." (c:13)

Thomas Jefferson, the author of the Declaration of Independence, and the third statesman in the presidential succession, says: "If a nation expects to be ignorant and free in a state of civilization, it expects what never was and never will be." And again: "A system of general instruction which shall reach every description of our citizens, from the richest to the poorest, as it was the earliest, so will it be the latest of all the public concerns in which I shall permit myself to take an interest." (c:14)

¹ Fiske, *The Beginnings of New England*, p. 151.

DeWitt Clinton, who was twice governor of the State of New York, says: "The first duty of government, and the surest evidence of good government, is the encouragement of education. A general diffusion of knowledge is the precursor and protector of republican institutions, and in it we must confide as the conservative power that will watch over our liberties and guard them against fraud, intrigue, corruption, and violence." Again: "The fundamental error of Europe has been to confine the light of knowledge to the wealthy and the great, while the humble and the depressed have been as sedulously excluded from its participation. More just and rational views have been entertained on this subject in the United States. Here no privileged orders, no factitious distinctions in society, no hereditary nobility, no established religion, no royal prerogatives exist to interpose barriers between the people and to create distinct classifications in society. All men being considered as enjoying an equality of rights, the propriety and necessity of dispensing, without distinction, the blessings of education followed, of course." (c: 18-19)

These theories of the great public leaders exercised a constant influence upon actual institutions, as indicated by the incorporation of educational articles in the constitutions of individual states. In September, 1776, at the beginning of the War of Independence, the newly-completed state constitution of Pennsylvania provided that "A school or schools shall be established in each county by the legislature, for the convenient instruction of youth, with such salaries to the masters, paid by the public, as may enable them to instruct youth at low prices, and all useful learning shall be duly encouraged and promoted in one or more universities." (d)

Four other states included definite educational provisions in their constitutions of the Revolutionary and post-Revolutionary periods: North Carolina (1776), Georgia (1777),² Vermont (1777), and Massachusetts (1789).³ Ohio, organized as a part of the Northwest Territory by the Ordinance of 1787,⁴ made only indefinite provision for schools, until on becoming the first of the public-land states these regulations were improved. (d)

² Kilpatrick, W. H., and Cubberley, E. P., *State of Georgia*. In *Monroe's Cyclopedia of Education*, III.

³ Cubberley, E. P., *State of Massachusetts*, *op. cit.*, IV.

⁴ Cubberley, E. P., *State of Ohio*, *op. cit.*, IV.

Indiana, entering the Union in 1816, incorporated into her constitution the most definite school provisions up to that time. They included the following: "It shall be the duty of the general assembly, as soon as circumstances will permit, to provide by law for a general system of education, ascending in a regular gradation from township schools to a State university, wherein tuition shall be gratis, and equally open to all." This section marked a distinct advance, for no other state had yet provided by constitution for such a graduated system furnishing gratuitous instruction to all. (d)

The influence of democratic political thought on educational theory persisted, receiving fuller recognition with the coming of the Educational Revival. The leaders of this period, both political and educational, not only accepted the conception of schools as an opportunity for all, but labored vigorously for the fuller realization of the ideal. Such a dominant statesman as Daniel Webster once more expressed the relation between free government and educational provision. He said: "Education, to accomplish the ends of good government, should be universally diffused. Open the doors of the schoolhouses to all the children in the land. . . . On the diffusion of education among the people rest the preservation and perpetuation of our free institutions." (c: 20)

Horace Mann, statesman-educator, expressed the theory of the new educational activities of his time when he said: "Our common schools are a system of unsurpassable grandeur and efficiency. Their influences reach, with more or less directness and intensity, all the children belonging to the State—children who are soon to be the State." Again: "I believe in the existence of a great, immortal, immutable principle of natural law, or natural ethics—a principle antecedent to all human institutions, and incapable of being abrogated by any ordinance of man; a principle of divine origin, clearly legible in the ways of Providence as those ways are manifested in the order of nature and in the history of the race, which proves the *absolute right* to an education of every human being that comes into the world; and which, of course, proves the correlative duty of every government to see that the means of that education are provided for all." (c: 21-22)

The remarkable increase of activity in all matters relating to education, which developed about 1835, was due, in large meas-

ure, to the public interest in public schools, which was guided by such leaders as Horace Mann, Henry Barnard, and their associates. It led to many extensions of educational privilege.

Soon the Civil War intervened. But when it closed, the interest in popular education was again renewed. Nearly all the former slave-holding states framed new constitutions, and their educational articles made declarations similar to those of contemporary Northern constitutions. Popular education took so powerful a hold of the American mind that every state of the Union has made constitutional provision for public instruction, the newer constitutions of the West and South, as a rule, containing the amplest provision. (d)

In all enactments, both constitutional and statutory, there was an apparent effort to equalize educational opportunity by lessening the cost to the individual child and by making schools both numerous and easy of access. Compulsory attendance laws came into operation to restrain employers and parents from curtailing the educational opportunities of the youth, and thus, it is argued, an elementary education has been rendered available to all children up to a certain age. (e)

In spite of all the achievements in contemporaneous education, the fundamental social and political theory underlying public education is never lost sight of. Education as a social necessity and an individual privilege is still the pronouncement of the important political leaders when they speak on popular education. Says Woodrow Wilson: "Popular education is necessary for the preservation of those conditions of freedom, political and social, which are indispensable to free individual development. And, in the second place, no instrumentality less universal in its power and authority than government can secure popular education. . . . Without popular education, moreover, no government which rests upon popular action can long endure. The people must be schooled in the knowledge, and if possible in the virtues, upon which the maintenance and success of free institutions depend." (c: 34)

Says Theodore Roosevelt: "From the lowest grade of the public school to the highest form of university training, education in this country is at the disposal of every man, every woman, who chooses to work for and obtain it." (c: 35-36)

But is education at the disposal of every man and every woman? Practice is often remote from theory. It is obvious

that a school may exist near a blind person and still afford him no opportunity for education. A family of dependent children may be near a school, but unable to pay the incidentals involved in school attendance, and yet the welfare of the state is threatened by their ignorance. A feeble-minded child may be most regular in his attendance at school without receiving the least educational benefit. A child may be unruly or delinquent, and thus derive only a partial benefit from his attendance at school. That is to say, there are many groups of children who are not effectively reached, or not reached at all, by a conventional system of education originally devised for the talented few and later modified for the normal many. Of course, education in the usual sense will never help some, such as the insane and the low-grade idiot. Nature must provide a basis for training; no amount of democracy can create an educational opportunity for the mindless. On the other hand, there are groups of variates that can be, ought to be, and are, in part, more effectively educated to-day than a century ago.

Our problem in this study, therefore, is to discover how far educational opportunity has really been equalized. We wish to know how far a democratic theory of education has been fulfilled in practice and to note the forces by which this increased sensitiveness of school organization has been effected. Obviously it is quite impossible to include the responses of school organization to all varying groups.⁵ Hence, we shall study the school's accommodations to a selected series of people. These, taken as a whole, will serve as an index to the democracy of school administration and organization during the past century. The groups chosen for investigation will include those most apparently above or below the normal. At one extreme there will be the exceptionally gifted; at the other, the various types of subnormality such as have come within the school's recognition: (1) the physically defective—the deaf, the blind, the crippled, the anemic, and the tuberculous; (2) the feeble-minded; (3) the morally (and socially) deficient—the juvenile delinquent, the unruly, and the truant; (4) the border-line or intermediate types—the retarded, the epileptic, and the speech defective; (5) the environmentally exceptional—dependent and neglected children and non-English-speaking immigrants.

⁵ See Appendix I.

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CHAPTER II

PROVISIONS FOR THE DEAF

We find reference made to the deaf in the earliest records of mankind. For many centuries, however, the thinking world entertained the opinion that the effective instruction of such unfortunates was an impossibility. So general was this conception among the ancients that the success of St. John of Beverly, reported by the Venerable Bede, in teaching a deaf young man to speak and to read the lips, was regarded as a miraculous rather than an educational achievement. (a)

The history of modern deaf-mute education dates from about the middle of the eighteenth century, when schools were established in France, Scotland, and Germany by de l'Épée, Braidwood, and Heinicke, respectively. The first effort toward the education of the deaf in America was made in Virginia in the year 1812, by Colonel William Bolling, whose two brothers and a sister had been trained at Thomas Braidwood's school in Edinburgh, Scotland, between the years 1771 and 1783. By some chance John Braidwood, a grandson of the Scottish teacher, arrived in the city of Washington in 1812, and, being desirous of establishing a school for the deaf, he was referred to Colonel Bolling, who subsequently furnished him with funds and engaged him as tutor of his deaf children. Owing to his dissipation, however, Braidwood proved very unreliable, and after a number of spasmodic efforts the work had to be abandoned. (b)

The outstanding American pioneer in the education of the deaf was the Rev. Thomas Henry Gallaudet, of Hartford, Connecticut. After graduating from Yale and Andover Theological Seminary, through intimacy with a neighbor, Dr. Mason F. Cogswell, whose little daughter had lost her hearing, Gallaudet became deeply interested in the instruction of the deaf. In his anxiety for the education of his daughter Dr. Cogswell appealed to the Congregational clergymen of Connecticut to assist him in ascertaining the number of deaf persons in the state.

In 1812 the report of a special committee showed that the total was 84. (b) If a similar proportion existed in other states, there were probably 400 deaf persons in New England, and in the United States as a whole about 2,000—surely enough to warrant some specific provision for their education. At a meeting of wealthy and influential citizens, held in April, 1815, it was decided to send a suitable person to Europe to study the art of instructing the deaf and dumb. After some hesitation Gallaudet accepted the task and a month later sailed for England. There he unexpectedly encountered what has been aptly termed "the Braidwood monopoly," and was utterly unable to gain either an entrance to the British schools or any information as to their methods, except upon terms which he was obliged to decline. After several months of fruitless efforts to secure instruction in Britain, he crossed over to France and visited Sicard, de l'Épée's successor as head of the Royal Institution for the Deaf and Dumb at Paris. Sicard promptly arranged for him to have fullest opportunity to learn the French system by means of both observation and private instruction. Gallaudet returned to America in 1816, and in April of the following year opened the school at Hartford with twenty pupils. He was accompanied from Paris by Laurent Clerc, one of Sicard's most clever pupils and co-workers, and the young Frenchman proved of invaluable assistance in the education of the deaf at Hartford and elsewhere. (a, b)

We thus see that the education of the deaf in the United States was initiated through the personal efforts of one man, a physician, who was prompted by the sense of a personal tragedy in his own family.

The New York Institution was incorporated April 15, 1817, the very day the Hartford school was opened; and pupils began work there in May, 1818. The Pennsylvania Institution owes its origin to David G. Seixas, a Hebrew crockery dealer in Philadelphia, who about the year 1819 began teaching in his home a group of deaf children, five boys and six girls, who had been running neglected on the streets. (b) A year later a number of men whose interest had been enlisted, formed a corporation and established an institution with Mr. Seixas as its principal. (c) Schools were soon opened in Kentucky (1823), Ohio (1827), Indiana (1843), Georgia (1846), and other states, until in 1861

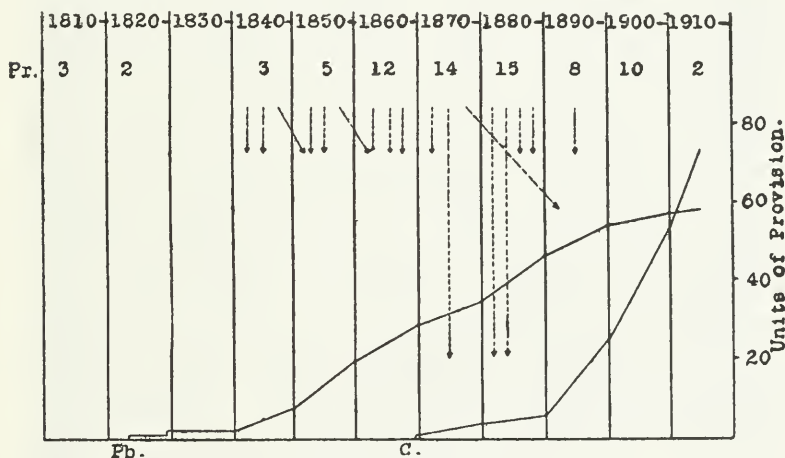
there was a total of 27 schools with an enrollment of more than 2,000 pupils. Kentucky has the distinction of founding the first purely state school. In 1864 the National Deaf-Mute College, the only institution in the world devoted to the higher education of the deaf, was opened in Washington, D. C., with Dr. Edward M. Gallaudet, the youngest son of the pioneer, as its president.

The first schools owed their existence to the contributions of charitable individuals. However, the supporters of the schools were not slow to perceive that deaf children had the same right as normal children to education at public expense. The justice of this claim being recognized, appropriations were made by the legislatures for this purpose. Often these took the form of per capita payments to incorporated schools, organized by benevolent individuals or societies, while in other cases the grants went directly to the establishing of state institutions. (d) From time to time a number of private schools were transferred to state control. An example of this is seen in the Ohio school, founded by a private corporation in 1827 and taken over by the state in 1829. By the year 1872 there were 31 states which had one or more private or state schools, while others, such as Delaware, Maine, Nevada, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont, realizing the need, made appropriations for the training of a certain number of their deaf at institutions in other states. (h) By 1913 there was a total of not less than 58 distinctly state institutions, each state in the Union, with the exception of four, having at least one institution for the deaf. These four states—Delaware, New Hampshire, Nevada, and Wyoming—continue to follow the plan of sending their deaf to other states for their education. Indiana has recently gone so far as to pass a law making the compulsory period for the school attendance of the deaf extend over twelve years, from the age of 7 to 19, the State School for the Deaf being designated as the place of instruction. (d)

In both the private and public institutions the students have been receiving intellectual, and usually industrial, training, but they seemed to form a class apart from the community. Being separated from their homes, they grew away from their families and home communities, becoming more and more dependent upon the special means of communication practised among themselves. This caused them to develop a tendency to as-

sociate exclusively with one another. The discovery of this fact, together with the realization that many deaf children throughout the country were not attending these institutions, led to the establishing of special classes for them in the public day schools. (e) The first city to make such provision permanently was Boston, where the Horace Mann School for the Deaf was opened in 1869. A school was started in Pittsburgh the same year, but was discontinued in 1876. In Chicago the success of classes, opened under private auspices in 1870, led the Board of Education to make such work a part of the city school system in 1875. (b) Other cities followed, until at the close of 1913 there were 73 cities providing day classes for the deaf in their public schools. (h, i)

Graph A shows the expansion of the work, by decades, from its inception in 1817.



GRAPH A. THE DEAF

Pr. indicates the number of private or semi-public institutions opened in each decade.

The curve rising from Pb. shows the increasing number of public or state institutions; the curve rising from C., the number of cities maintaining special public school classes.

Each arrow signifies a transfer from private control to public, or to a city Board of Education.

The rise in the curve for cities is especially significant when it is remembered that one gain represents a whole city school system in which there may be many classes. For example, during the year 1913-14 Chicago (g) had 30 classes, with an enrollment of 260 pupils; and New York City (l) had 31 classes, with an enrollment of 284 pupils.

In the year 1885 the Wisconsin legislature passed a bill providing for the establishment of special public school classes for deaf children in incorporated towns and cities. (b) This originated the so-called "Wisconsin system," which has subsequently served as a model for other states—notably Michigan, California, and New Jersey. For these classes the state makes a per capita appropriation, while classrooms are furnished and teachers employed by the city or town in which the school is located. In September, 1913, the Doster law came into effect in Ohio, whereby classes for the deaf, the blind, and the crippled are carried on under similar arrangements. In the other states classes are supported wholly by the city or town. (c, j, k)

The first schools established by de l'Épée, Braidwood, and Heinicke all employed the oral method, but the increase in the number of his pupils and the absence of adequate assistance caused de l'Épée to devise his system of signs as a means of teaching more rapidly. On the other hand, Heinicke and all his followers continued work along the original lines and developed a purely oral method which excluded all signs and manual spelling. In 1843 Horace Mann, then secretary of the Massachusetts State Board of Education, made a tour of Europe and after his return issued a report on what he regarded as the strong points of the German method. His report brought forth stern criticism from the sign teachers in this country, and the controversy became increasingly bitter with the establishment of such oral schools as Clarke Institute (1867), the New York Institution for the Improved Instruction of Deaf-Mutes (1867), and the Horace Mann School in Boston (1869). The contentions were: that articulation speech was only a branch of the instruction; that it was difficult, disagreeable, and wearisome to the pupils; that it could be utilized only with a small class, and was therefore costly; that it was not practicable as a means of religious instruction, and was imperfect and unreliable at best. The oral method, however, steadily won its way, and most of the larger schools introduced speech teaching and lip reading, especially for pupils who had become deaf after learning to speak. At the Twelfth International Convention of Instructors of the Deaf, held in New York in 1890, the Oral teachers organized a new body known as the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf. Five years

later the American Instructors adopted a constitution which declared them as "committed to no particular theory, method, or system," but heartily in favor of the motto: "Any method for good results; all methods, and wedded to none." (a)

In the public day schools the oral method has been adopted almost exclusively, and the pupils are encouraged to read the lips of their schoolmates and of all visitors. In some places contests in speaking have proved very effective in arousing the ambition and enthusiasm of the children to improve their speech and speech reading. At the close of the year 1912 there were more than 13,000 deaf pupils under instruction in the institutions and day schools of the United States. Of this number 75 per cent. were being taught speech. (d)

A department of this work which is becoming more and more emphasized is the kindergarten. Dr. Sandiford points out that "practically all children are born with a capacity for oral language, but if, through deafness, a child does not learn to speak before the age of four or five years, the capacity rapidly disappears. Teachers of the deaf are unanimous in saying that seven years of age, the normal age of entry into schools for the deaf, is much too late if adequate progress in speech is to be made. Infinitely better results are obtained when children are introduced to the school at three or even as early as two years of age. The reason is that the capacity for language has its optimal time between the ages of one and four years and, if advantage is not taken of it, the power gradually fades away. It is practically impossible to teach a deaf boy of more than ten years of age to speak." (m: 129) Among the cities which have introduced the kindergarten are Los Angeles (1898) and New York (1913-14).

Three examples may serve to illustrate the development of the curriculum in private and state institutions. The seventh annual report (1823) of the Hartford school says: "Some pupils stay at the Asylum only two years, and four is thought by many a pretty considerable time for completing their education. And yet in this time some hope that these infants in knowledge . . . can be taught how to write English with grammatical accuracy, to read books with understanding, and also have their minds opened to the reception of moral and religious truth, and to an acquaintance, perhaps, with arithmetic, geography, and

history, and, in addition to all this, become tolerably proficient in some mechanical employments," such as drawing, sewing, light housework, cabinetmaking, shoemaking, or tailoring. It was here in 1823 that the first trade school in America was established, and for years the schools for the deaf were the only ones that made any effort to teach trades to their pupils. (d)

At the Ohio Institution the term of instruction was at first three years, but it was extended successively to four, five, seven, and in 1866 to ten years. The importance of industrial training was soon recognized and proper accommodation and equipment have gradually been secured for shoemaking, printing, book-binding, and carpentry. On the average, in 1893 each pupil spent daily four and a half hours in school and two and a half in manual labor.

In the Indiana Institution the course of study in 1893 was so arranged as to cover ten years and was divided into primary, intermediate, and academic courses. The primary and intermediate courses embraced spelling, reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, history, and grammar. The two courses were divided into seven grades, five primary and two intermediate, and the time required to complete them was seven years. All pupils were allowed the benefit of these courses. The academic course comprised a three years' course of advanced primary and intermediate work, and a study of the sciences. Only pupils who completed the primary and intermediate courses creditably were allowed to pass into the academic. In order to render each pupil proficient in some useful occupation or trade, so as to be self-supporting on leaving the institution, all scholars were required to labor a part of each day: the girls at lighter housework and various kinds of needle-work; the boys at various trades, such as printing, cabinetmaking, tailoring, carpentry, shoemaking, chair-caning, farming, floriculture, and baking. In addition, the girls in the academic department were taught drawing, painting, modeling, designing, and wood-carving. Boys might be admitted to these classes. (b)

Besides the trades already mentioned, a number of institutions have recently introduced instruction in linotype operating. The boys uniformly achieve great success in this and command wages rarely obtained by the average workman in any other line. (n) Instruction is now given in more than 70 different

industries in American schools for the deaf, local conditions often influencing the choice of the trades taught.

One of the most remarkable recent features in the education of the deaf is their musical training. This has been somewhat developed by Miss Sarah H. Porter, of Gallaudet College, Mrs. Sarah A. J. Monro, of Boston, and Principal Enoch H. Currie, of the New York Institution for the Instruction of the Deaf. Mr. Currie regards music as a more important factor in the education of the deaf than of those who hear. He finds that although the deaf do not *hear* music as do other people, the effect of the sound waves is to make "the minds of the pupils become more alert; they become more ready to take initiative action; they get out from that dormancy which is peculiar to any person who lacks the stirring up that comes from the hurling of sound waves against him." In the New York Institution, which has been organized upon a military plan for many years, Mr. Currie has trained a band composed entirely of members of the school. The band consists of sixteen pieces; their repertoire includes 185 selections; and they are frequently invited to participate in high-grade musical concerts in New York City. (d)

In the public school classes, which range in size from five to ten pupils, the course of study corresponds quite closely to that in the regular grades, except that more industrial training and physical training are introduced. The latter includes formal gymnastics, rhythmic exercises, games, team play, folk-dancing, and where facilities permit, swimming. This system serves to overcome the characteristic shuffling gait of the untrained deaf and to cultivate a light step and erect carriage. The crafts commonly taught include clay-modeling, printing, sign-painting, jewelry designing, china-painting, elementary bookbinding, manual training, cooking, sewing, and flower-making.

The great value of the public day classes is in the fact that the children are enabled to remain members of the family. They mingle on the playgrounds and in the street with hearing children and other persons of the community. By the time they have passed through the elementary school they are able to go about, speak, and understand much as do other children of similar age. In some instances they continue their studies successfully in the high school. They are able to take their places as members of the community, to engage comfortably and ef-

ficiently in many occupations pursued by hearing people, and, in general, they have ceased to be members of a class apart.

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CHAPTER III

PROVISIONS FOR THE JUVENILE DELINQUENT, UNRULY, AND TRUANT

The treatment of delinquents up to the present has been characterized by four aims which have come successively into prominence: (1) the punitive, (2) the deterrent, (3) the reformatory, (4) the socio-educational. For centuries the idea was regnant that punishment was to be inflicted for its own sake, that the aim of the penalty was to make the offender suffer, and that only in this way could the demands of justice be satisfied. The second stage was reached when confinement of wrongdoers came to be regarded as a protection to society and a deterrent to those apparently predisposed to offend. During the last few decades, still granting that the aim of punishment is the protection of society, people have discovered that society is best protected when during the process of legal punishment the delinquent is reformed and educated, and prompted to undertake the duties and responsibilities, as well as the rights and privileges, of a citizen. Thus out of the science of penology has come the study of the needs of unsocial individuals, and several types of correctional agencies have developed.

Organizations such as the National Conference of Charities and Correction have done a great deal for the improvement of provisions for delinquents. It is due, in part at least, to their gatherings and discussions that numerous institutions have been founded whose chief aim is to reform and educate these unfortunates. On the whole, such institutions may be divided into two classes—those for adults and those for juveniles. It is with the latter class that we are more particularly concerned.

Correctional education of juveniles, as carried on in the United States at the present time, is the resultant of three groups of factors: (1) the penal system, (2) the philanthropic and state institutional movement, (3) the public school adjustments. These seek to take into account the stage of mental and moral

development of the wrongdoer. In many cases he is defective, and these deficiencies must be known and understood so that they may be properly remedied. The delinquent is often found to be backward and illiterate. If he has learned to read and write at all, he does so but poorly.¹ Having had no industrial training, he has formed no industrial habits. He tends to be an idler by taste and by occupation, having no plans for the future. Hence, work is a necessity in the educational program, and with the passing of the years there has been a growing tendency to introduce trades by which the worker may earn an honest livelihood. (a)

A century ago there was not a single institution on this continent for the reformation of juvenile delinquents. The New York House of Refuge, now on Randall's Island, was the American pioneer in this field, and was established in 1825 by the Society for the Reformation of Juvenile Delinquents, which was largely influenced by the ideas of Edward Livingston, the father of legal and penitentiary reform in this country. Prominent in this society were Professor John Griscom, District Attorney Hugh Maxwell, and James W. Gerard. At that time Gerard was a young lawyer of New York City. The first criminal case he was called to defend was that of a respectable looking fourteen-year-old lad of good parentage, who was on trial for the theft of a canary bird. The lawyer secured the boy's acquittal on the plea that imprisonment would mean certain ruin to him, since youths convicted of offenses could only be committed to jails along with adult offenders. Subsequently the boy became involved in more serious crimes and finally died in prison. These early incidents in his legal career led Gerard to devote himself to the earnest and active advocacy of a special institution for juvenile delinquents, and the House of Refuge was the outcome of his specific proposal. (b)

In 1826 the House of Reformation for juvenile offenders was opened in Boston, and the House of Refuge in Philadelphia two years later. To all three of these, boys and girls under sentence

¹ In this connection the 1910 report of the Connecticut School for Boys says: "Boys come to us defective physically and mentally, underfed in body and mind. A large percentage is below the average scholarship, many are unable to read, very many barely able to do so intelligibly; and they have little knowledge of what is taught in the first grades of the public schools."

Statistics in the report of Washington State Reformatory for 1909-10 indicate that 37.5 per cent. of the inmates were rated in grades one to four, inclusive; 6.1 per cent. could read and write, but not well enough for grade one; and 5.1 per cent. could not read or write at all.

were committed. Although the New York and Philadelphia institutions each received aid from public revenue, they were not managed by the state. The Boston institution was both supported and controlled by the city. (c)

For fifteen years after the founding of the Philadelphia House of Refuge no forward step was taken in providing for juvenile delinquents. In 1843 the Boys' House of Refuge was opened in New Orleans. Five years later (1848) through the influence of Hon. Theodore Lyman, ex-mayor of Boston, the State of Massachusetts established at Westboro the Lyman School for Boys, which was from the beginning strictly a state school—the first of this character in the United States. Other states quickly followed this example, until in 1868 the public and semi-public institutions numbered 43, thirty of which reported a total of 7,463 inmates. (d)

There has been a remarkable variety in the names attached to these institutions: commencing with "houses of refuge," after some years they were called "reform schools," later "juvenile reformatories," "industrial schools," "industrial homes," or simply "schools" with no descriptive prefix other than the name of the place of location, or the name of some person prominently identified with the work, while more recently the term "state training school" has come into use. These variations in name indicate the trend of ideals in the matter of the organization and administration. In the Middle and Western States such institutions are commonly maintained by the state, while in the Eastern States, such as New York, private agencies are subsidized by the state, county, or city, on a per capita basis. In this way five kinds of reformatories for each sex have developed in several of the older states: state, Catholic, Protestant, Hebrew, and those maintained by Junior Republic Associations and numerous other private corporations. Although repeated efforts have been made to incorporate state reformatories into state school systems, they still remain under the classification and management of expert penologists. (e, f) Discipline is the watchword at all times. In the early years it strongly resembled prison restraint, but in many places, with the abandonment of walled enclosures and the congregate system, the mode and spirit of administration have changed. The Boys' Industrial School, opened at Lancaster, Ohio, in 1858,

introduced a new plan which is variously known as the open, cottage, or family system. The idea is to cultivate qualities which should obtain in family life, to encourage self-control by placing greater reliance upon the boys, and to separate them into grades on the basis of character and conduct. The Ohio school was the pioneer of the cottage system, but its example has continued to be followed to such an extent that "bolts, bars, and high walls are rapidly becoming a thing of the past." (c) The system of credits has also come into common use, and by continued good conduct a boy may earn parole in about three-quarters of his term of sentence. While on parole he must report to the school either in person or in writing at stated intervals, and he is visited by a parole officer. It is the aim of the school to place the boy in a good environment. The parole system is becoming more common throughout the country, and results are quite satisfactory. Statistics in connection with the New York House of Refuge show that about 50 per cent. of the boys who are paroled, make good.

The character of the industries pursued in these schools has changed from time to time. At first the boys and girls were employed upon contract labor, but by the early '90's this was deservedly falling into disrepute. Later the youth were required to learn brushmaking, chair-caning, and the like, but the slight demand for such work outside the schools eventually caused administrators to make a change. It was about 1885 in the state industrial school at Rochester, New York, that modern methods of discipline and instruction in the trades and industries were first introduced. So successful have been the results that the great majority of reform schools throughout the United States now provide instruction in painting, printing, baking, carpentering, blacksmithing, machine work, papering and decorating, shoemaking, tailoring, plumbing, gas-fitting, as well as farming, gardening, horticulture, and stock raising, so that the greater part of the pupils on leaving school are well fitted to become respectable, self-supporting, efficient members of society.

In short, the essential features of the best correctional schools for juveniles to-day are "spacious grounds on which there is not a trace of a prison wall; advanced educational facilities; instruction in music, in agriculture, in military tactics and in trades; invisible discipline, with an intelligent system of rewards; and an

attempt at physical rehabilitation and moral training. Opportunities for recreation have a large part in the life of such a school and all these activities and others are co-ordinated into a consistent plan." (g)

For the year 1913 the United States Commissioner of Education received reports from 111 industrial schools, having an enrollment of 50,812 pupils. As we have previously noticed, these institutions have no direct connection with any department of education. Consequently, the above figures do not represent the full number of such schools. By reference to graph B, (page 26) it will be seen that there are now at least 81 public and 53 private institutions.

It was not until about twenty-five years ago that the public schools of this country began to be actively sensitive to the presence of the incorrigible, truant, and delinquent element in the school population. The explanation is quite simple: in the absence of effective attendance laws, children who could not, or would not, get along fairly well in the ordinary classes, often ceased to attend, or "played truant," without the knowledge of the authorities. About 1890 in most of the states the tendency became general toward the strict enforcement of compulsory education laws, and as a result there was a marked change in both the number and the character of the pupils attending the schools. Within a short time teachers and principals became aware of the fact that children who were backward in class work and also refractory in their bearing were clogging the various grades, chiefly the lower, thus creating a situation which demanded prompt and radical measures. Already in 1876 the city of Cleveland had established a type of school designated as The Unclassified School. It was designed for pupils whose influence was found to be "pernicious to their associates and who were incorrigible by those means of discipline which seemed to be fit to be used in the schools at large." (j)

Apparently the next city to make such provision was Chicago, in the year 1892. One of the best teachers in a school was selected to take charge of "pupils who were delinquent for any cause," and to give them more direct attention in an Ungraded Room. The purposes in establishing and conducting such rooms were: "First, to aid the weak, to arouse the indifferent, and to advance them to a grade where there will be a continued

interest which will bring growth; second, to afford children who have been partially educated in foreign countries, and who enter our schools in the lower grades, an opportunity to quickly acquire our language and become adjusted to our work." (j) It is evident that these were mixed classes, intended for pupils who were, as we would say, *retarded* for any cause, and among them, no doubt, were the unruly and really delinquent. The cities of Providence and New York also organized mixed classes of this kind in 1893 and 1895, respectively. (k)

Among the earliest provisions distinctively for truants were the Cambridge Truant School (1854) and the Brooklyn Truant Home (1857), both of which were under city control. In 1878 New York City established two attendance schools for truants. The Cambridge and New York schools, along with several others, seem to have been discontinued in the early '90's, being replaced in some instances by county truant schools which, especially in Massachusetts, have developed into a regular system. In 1894 the Brooklyn Truant Home was permanently transferred from the Board of Aldermen to the Board of Education and reorganized the following year. (d, l)

Since the beginning of the century a new type of school for truants, known as the Parental School, has become common in connection with city systems, such as Chicago (1902), Seattle (1904), and New York (1909). The Parental School is usually institutional in nature, located in the country, and built on the cottage plan. The inmates are incorrigibles or confirmed truants (from home or school, or both) committed by the Juvenile Court. In addition to a commodious school building there is frequently a good manual training department, and all the higher grades spend one hour a day in the shops. In the working season the boys spend an hour each day on the farm, each boy having his own plot of ground and being solely responsible for its cultivation. The boys are partially responsible also for the care of the farm animals. The aim is to make the cottages real homes, each being under the care of a man and his wife, and each housing from thirty to forty boys. Both the homemakers and the teachers are carefully chosen. Discipline is usually military in form, and drill instruction is given by boy officers under direction of family officers. Penalties consist in deprivation of privileges. All sports are carefully supervised,

and sportsmanlike conduct is the rule. Every cottage has its own grounds for games. The tables are amply supplied with wholesome food, which for many of the boys is a distinctly new feature. The boys remain in the school from six months to a year, and they may be kept longer, if necessary. Only the recommendation of the superintendent of the school can release them, and after leaving they are under surveillance of the school for another year. If the all-important "follow-up" work is properly carried out no boy can get away from his record. The superintendent of the Chicago school reports that 85 per cent. of his boys make good. (j, m)

The Juvenile Court, to which we have already alluded, has in the past few years proved to be a very important factor in the care and betterment of delinquent children. The method of this court is to hear children's cases with the greatest possible degree of privacy, with the greatest possible discretion on the part of the judge, and with the object of treating each case individually. In order to render these courts accessible to any child, special Juvenile Court judges have been chosen in the larger cities of nearly every state in the Union, and authority to hold special Juvenile Courts has been given to county, district, and circuit judges. The law usually states that these courts shall have original jurisdiction over neglected, dependent, and delinquent children under sixteen years of age, and that such children shall be placed under the supervision of probation officers to be appointed by the court, or placed in suitable homes, private institutions, or state industrial schools. The most vital part of the Juvenile Court system is the work to be done by the probation officer. He is a most valuable assistant to the judge, in that he is often able to inquire into the life conditions and antecedents of offenders before they come to trial. In the meantime, publicity is avoided; the offender cannot pose as a hero, and the other children are less likely to imitate. Both before and after the trial the probation officer has the opportunity of being not merely a guard, but an educator of the child through intimate acquaintance with him and his home life. The "detention home," the follow-up, and "home finding" departments are all necessary features of an effective system of this kind. The Juvenile Court apparently originated in South Australia about 1890. It was introduced to this continent in Toronto,

Canada, in 1894, and the first court of the kind in the United States was established at Chicago in July, 1899. The first ten years of its work in Chicago showed that 13,257 children had appeared before the court on one of three charges—truancy, dependency, or delinquency. The great majority of these had been put on probation. A study of delinquents revealed that up to January, 1908, over 80 per cent. of the boys put on probation were not again brought into court; but that up to July, 1909, only 55 per cent. of the girls had not appeared a second time. (n) A large proportion of these children were first offenders and were given a chance to make good on their own promises and those of parents. The second and even third offenders were in many instances given "another chance," and with others were placed under the care of probation officers to whom they were obliged to report each week. There are at present 70 probation officers, men and women, whose full time is given to this work. (j)

In the last analysis, the potency of judges and courts is chiefly deterrent. They undoubtedly fulfill a very important function; yet, we cannot but recognize that the problem of the juvenile delinquent is less the problem of the juvenile court than it is that of the public schools. Every possible effort should be made to keep the young delinquents out of court entirely.

A plan resembling the one at Cleveland in 1876 has been quite widely adopted. Indianapolis, Philadelphia, and Newark, N. J., organized special classes for truants and delinquents in 1898, and during the next decade numerous other cities found it advisable to make similar provisions. These provisions range all the way from one small classroom in a public school building to a separate institution with dormitory accommodations. An example of the latter is the Boys' Special School at Cincinnati (1907), where most of the boys are day pupils; but a few of the worst truants are kept in residence until they prove eligible for permission to go home at night and attend during the day. It is noteworthy that the greatest proportion of truancy among boys occurs in the thirteenth year, and among girls in the twelfth year. Figures from Chicago show that more truants come from the fourth grade than from any other; also that the smallest percentage of truancy occurs in grades offering manual training. (o) The majority of disciplinary schools or classes are comprised

of boys. They are assigned to the special class or institution by the superintendent or by the Juvenile Court. The boys are placed in charge of a strong and skillful teacher and are given a great deal of handwork, particularly bench work with wood and metal, so that their interest may be developed and wholesome school habits engendered. The articles made are chiefly those used at home or at school. When a boy has shown evidence of marked improvement he is returned to the regular grades.

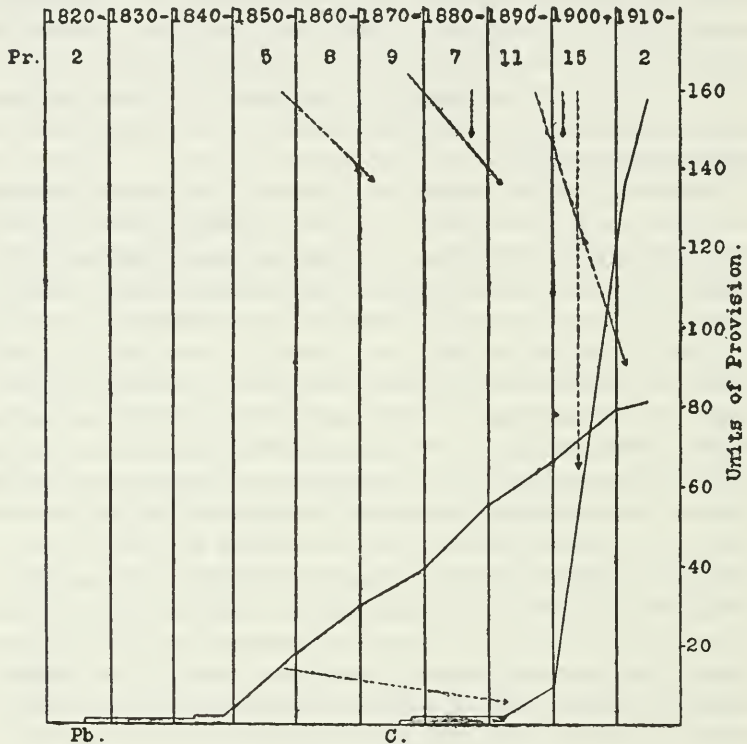
At the close of the year 1913 there were 157 cities making special provision for delinquent, unruly, and truant children in their public schools.

One of the best examples of successful work in this department is found in Los Angeles, Cal. In the public schools of that city special classes for persistent truants (boys) were started in 1905, "dedicated to the principle that no pupil shall fail and no pupil shall be suspended or expelled from the public school." In these classes the teachers are all men who are peculiarly well fitted to deal successfully with boys. No teacher is assigned more than fifteen pupils. The curriculum is closely related to the life interests and to the varying capacities of the boys. Among the notable results of this experiment are the following: (1) No boy was ever suspended or expelled from the special classes: the habit of suspending and expelling boys from the public schools practically ceased; (2) the average attendance in these classes for a period of seven years was 99 per cent.: the fit school environment solved the non-attendance and truancy problems; (3) the truancy work of the juvenile court was practically abolished: before the classes were organized all persistent truants were arrested and haled before the court. In 1905-6 there were 56 of these cases; in 1906-7, 30; after that, never more than three a year, and one year none at all. Now the schools handle the truants, and more economically and efficiently, inasmuch as more than 95 per cent. of the boys make good after their stay in the Special Schools. (t)

The scope and importance of the work among truants become even more apparent when we discover the large percentage of criminals who begin their careers as truants. A. J. Pillsbury, former secretary of the California State Board of Examiners, states that nine out of every ten criminals appearing in court as first offenders are truants. In self-defence, therefore, society

must see to it that children are kept in school, for until this is accomplished there will be no diminution of criminality. (t)

Graph B indicates the progress of the whole movement by decades, from the standpoint of both institutions and the city school systems.



GRAPH B. JUVENILE DELINQUENTS.

Pr. indicates the number of private or semi-public institutions opened in each decade.

The curve rising from Pb. shows the increasing number of public or state institutions; the curve rising from C., the number of cities maintaining truant or parental schools, or special public school classes.

Each arrow signifies a transfer from private control to public, or to a city Board of Education, except that the one near the bottom of the graph denotes a transfer from a Board of Aldermen to a Board of Education.

There is one phase of juvenile delinquency which we have not touched as yet, and that is the problem of the subnormal truant. In his report for 1913-14 Superintendent Bodine, of the Compulsory Education Department in Chicago, says: "The question

of the subnormal truant has become a complex one. The parental school does not desire the subnormal truants because it is necessary to keep them so much beyond the average time of detention. . . . Some provision should be made, either at the parental school or elsewhere, for a separate cottage or place to care for this unfortunate class of children. One subnormal truant, if allowed to run the streets and be immune from commitment to the parental school, could lead normal boys into truancy and delinquency. Subnormal children fourteen years of age or over, who cannot read nor write simple sentences, are refused work certificates. . . . Even if certificates are granted to subnormal children, employers do not desire them for permanent service, and the question of vocational adaptation for these backward children is one that puzzles social welfare workers." (v)

The great majority of states have one or more institutions for feeble-minded children, but there is almost no provision for the subnormal, retarded, or border-line types who are not sufficiently defective in mentality to be classified as feeble-minded. Even when there are institutions of this nature, the law frequently specifies that persons may not be kept there beyond the age of twenty-one years; so when this age is reached, the defective is forced out into the world with which he is so plainly incapable of coping.

Although no reputable physician thinks of sending patients to the hospital for specified periods, nor of treating them all alike, nor of prescribing without diagnosis, yet border-line defectives have for years been receiving just such treatment at the hands of the public. Here and there are signs of an awakening social consciousness, and none too soon. Society is largely responsible for its delinquents: it has tolerated the conditions which pervert. It therefore owes these unfortunates at least individual treatment and an equipment which keeps pace with the needs.

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CHAPTER IV

PROVISIONS FOR THE BLIND

The first school in the world, established for the education of the blind, was L'Institution Nationale des Jeunes Aveugles, founded in France in 1784 through the instrumentality of Valentin Haüy. Later, however, Austria came to be considered the cradle of the education of the blind, for it was the blind Austrian singer, Maria Theresa von Paradis, who inspired in Haüy and his Austrian contemporary, Klein, the belief in the possibility of raising the sightless not merely out of misery, but even to high levels of culture and achievement. The success of these men aroused wonder, joy, and ambition in other countries, and the two decades following 1790 saw schools for the blind springing up in rapid succession in the British Isles, Germany, Holland, Sweden, and Denmark. (a)

In America Dr. John D. Fisher, of Boston, was the first person to propose a plan for the instruction of the blind. While pursuing his medical studies in Paris, Dr. Fisher paid frequent visits to L'Institution Nationale and there conceived the idea of developing in his own country similar educational advantages for the blind. After returning to Boston in 1826, he kept the matter constantly in mind. In February, 1829, he called a meeting of persons who, he thought, might take an interest in promoting such a plan. The legislature being in session, many representatives from various parts of the state were in attendance. He gave a detailed description of the work as carried on in Paris: the processes employed in communicating knowledge to the blind, and also the various trades by which they were enabled to become self-sustaining. His statements excited deep interest, and it was there and then voted "that a committee be appointed to consider what measures should be adopted to promote the establishment of an institution for the blind of New England." This committee applied immediately to the legislature for an act incorporating "The New England Asylum for

the Blind." This act was passed unanimously in both houses without debate, on March 2, 1829. Meanwhile, Dr. Fisher, the leader in the enterprise, being unable to engage in it personally, had enlisted the sympathy and coöperation of Dr. Samuel G. Howe, who was chosen in 1831 as superintendent of the new institution and sent abroad to study methods of instruction. He returned in 1832 and started work with a class of six blind children in South Boston. (b)

Already the "New York Institution for the Blind" had been incorporated in 1831 and also commenced work in 1832, antedating Dr. Howe's first class by a few months. The following year the "Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind" was established in Philadelphia. These three schools are typical private or semi-public institutions of the Eastern States. All sprang from private effort and private funds, and they still remain semi-public in nature, but all have been receiving what is termed state aid and make annual reports to the state legislatures, to the commissioners of public charities or of public education. The movement spread steadily throughout the country. In 1830 the national census had for the first time included information as to the blind and the deaf, the total number of the former being reported as 5,444. Schools now began to be established as state institutions. Among these were Ohio (1837), Virginia (1840), Kentucky (1842), and others until, at the close of 1875, there were 25 state and 5 private schools, with an enrollment of more than 2,000 pupils. (c) According to the census report of 1910, there were about 100,000 blind people in the United States, about 10 per cent. of whom were of school age. In all the schools of the country in that year the pupils numbered 4,653, representing about one-half of all the blind children. (d) By the end of the year 1913 the private schools had increased to 13, and the state institutions to 48, having a total attendance of about 5,000. (c, g) In addition to these, nine states now provide for the care and instruction of blind children under school age.

All these schools are governed by honorary boards of trustees or managers who appoint the superintendent or principal. In the semi-public organization the managers constitute a self-appointing, close corporation; in the public they are usually appointed by the state governor, by whom they may also be removed.

Since the number of blind children in the country has always been comparatively small, the matter of economy influenced the authorities in some states to place the blind children under the same administrative officers who supervise the deaf and dumb. This arrangement still obtains in 17 state schools in the South and West. (c, d, f) In the South the problem of educating the blind negroes has been solved by furnishing separate buildings and equipment under the same management.

Massachusetts was the first state to identify its school for the blind with the state educational department, when in 1875 the Perkins Institution, by legislative act, was placed under the exclusive jurisdiction of the Department of Education. Her example has since been followed by West Virginia and California. The two schools in New York State—at Batavia and New York City—are members of the University of the State of New York "subject to the Laws of the Education Department, visited by its inspectors, have their courses of study planned according to the syllabi of the department, oblige their pupils to take the examinations set by the Board of Regents, and receive credentials which admit the blind to the institutions of higher learning for the seeing." (d)

Of the blind, as of the deaf, it is true that for many years their chief reliance for education was upon institutional schools. It was not until nearly 1900 that people began to be actively concerned about the number of blind children who were growing up without education and were thus almost certainly becoming a charge upon the community. This unfortunate situation was due, in large measure, to the reluctance of parents to send their children away to institutions for such a length of time. Chicago was the first American city to recognize the need and to include special classes for the blind in its public school system. The first class was opened in 1900. So successful was the experiment that similar provisions have been introduced in a number of other cities, including Cincinnati (1906), Milwaukee (1907), Cleveland, New York, and Racine, Wisconsin (1909). At the close of the year 1913 there were 20 cities having special public school classes for the blind. (g, i, j)

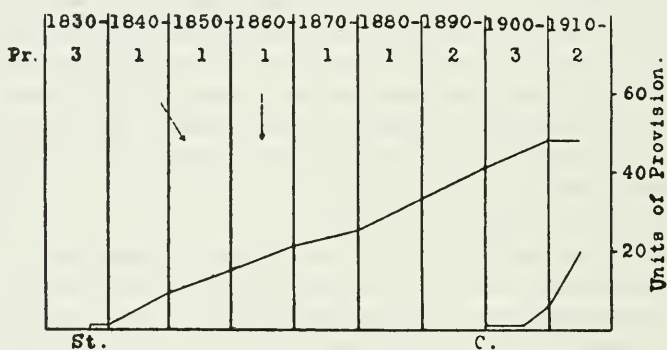
Chicago has three centers for the instruction of the blind, and at each of these a special room is set apart for them. The Board of Education defrays the expense of carfare for each

sightless child and an escort—often a brother or sister attending the same school. (k)

Since the establishment of special provisions for blind children in the New York City schools in the year 1909 the number of classes has increased from four to fifteen. In 1913 a special class was organized for pupils suffering from infectious eye diseases. (l)

In 1912-13 the Boston School Committee established a day school for children who see too little to remain in the regular grades and too much to progress normally in schools for the blind. (e)

Graph C affords an idea of the development of educational provisions for the blind in the United States.



GRAPH C. THE BLIND.

Pr. indicates the number of private or semi-public institutions opened in each decade.

The curve rising from St. shows the increasing number of state institutions; the curve rising from C., the number of cities maintaining special public school classes.

Each arrow signifies a transfer from private to state control.

In the institutions the blind youth pursue much the same course of study as is taught in the common schools: reading, writing, arithmetic, history, geography, science, etc. The chief difference lies in the apparatus used in teaching. Reading and writing are taught by means of systems of raised points. At present there are in use in the schools in this country two systems, the characters of both of which are raised points, but formed on different plans—the horizontal, known as the New York point, and the vertical, known as the Braille. The latter is now used practically the world over. The base is a cell of six points,

and the characters (62 in number) consist of various combinations of these points. Arithmetic is for the most part mental, although several mechanical devices are used to assist the pupil. In studying geography relief maps and globes are used with great success. The physical sciences are taught by laboratory methods with ordinary models and apparatus. In history, language, and literature the resources of the blind are well-nigh equal to those of ordinary persons. The Froebelian or kindergarten method is very prominent, employing games and occupations which foster the co-ordination of all the active senses. Manual and industrial courses are very useful, not only as leading to ultimate self-support by a trade, but also because doing and construction furnish the best channel to the blind for learning. Industrial education for the blind was recognized very early as a part of the state's obligation. When the Ohio school—the first to be opened as an exclusively state project—was established in 1837, the legislative act provided for "instruction in letters and the mechanical arts." (h) Sloyd has proved well adapted to their needs. A limited number of the simpler trades are taught, including needlework, chair-caning, basketry, making hammocks, brushes, brooms, mattresses, rugs, and carpets. Business courses are offered at some institutions, as in Pennsylvania and Ohio. Music furnishes both a wide vocational field and a delightful diversion, piano-tuning and piano-playing being the most lucrative lines of work into which the blind have entered. Many of the schools, instead of turning the graduate out to shift for himself as best he may, are assisting him in securing work. The school at Philadelphia now employs an agent for the sole purpose of placing the blind in remunerative positions. (e, f)

In the public day schools pupils entering for the first time are assigned to a special room under the care of a special teacher, the membership of the class varying in number from four to sixteen. Here they are taught to read and write in American Braille. The equipment includes typewriters, Braille writers, number slates, Braille slates, and Braille text-books. The latter since 1912 have been supplied free to special classes by the United States Department of Justice from the American Printing House for the Blind. (e) As soon as a child has acquired a fair mastery of the Braille, in some schools he is at

once enrolled in one of the regular school classes and recites with the seeing pupils, taking his turn in the reading, spelling, and other subjects. At the close of a lesson he returns to the special room to prepare other lessons and to receive such aid from the special teacher as he may need. As a pupil advances through the grades he spends more and more time in the regular classroom, until in the upper grades he returns to the special room only for preparation of home lessons and for occasional assistance in such branches as geography and arithmetic in which he misses some of the illustrations. (k, m) In other schools he does not recite with the seeing pupils until he reaches the upper grades.

Just as in the institutions, vocational training is emphasized. The special teacher has entire charge of this department. The crafts taught are practically the same as those already noted.

A very important factor in the education of the blind is their physical training. This comprises gymnastics, playground and classroom games, folk-dancing, roller skating, rope jumping, and competitive athletics. The pupils enter into these exercises with intense interest and thereby gain not only physical benefits but also a sense of coöperation and good fellowship which enable them to participate in the whole social and community life.

There are evidences of increasing public interest in the problem of sight defectives. Institutions are appointing field officers and cities have special visitors to search out the blind in their homes and persuade parents to send them either to the state institution or to the local day school. Quite recently, also, there has arisen a movement for the strictly vocational training and employment of the adult blind. About three-quarters of all the blind in any community are over twenty-one years of age. (k) The Minnesota school was the first to extend special opportunities to the blind who are above school age, when in 1911 it opened a summer school to a limited number of men.

The work in New York State furnishes us an example of some of the results of providing education for the blind. Since the establishment of the institution in New York City in 1831, 2,071 young people have graduated. Besides these, 931 have gone out from the state school at Batavia, making a total of

3,002, who, after being well trained, well informed, and usefully qualified, have returned to their places in the world to take their part in the social and business relations of life. Of this large number, the majority of whom are still living, only 21 were dependents in 1905, there being no increase since 1879. During this interval the total number of blind persons at public charge has increased from 307 to 361. These facts afford convincing proof of the real efficacy of the education of the young blind. (n)

“The records of blind pupils prove that they can compete with seeing people successfully in many intellectual matters, that physically they are trained to be active and strong, that they are trained in character-building by work, play, and discipline, æsthetically in the arts of literature and music, and make many useful things by the labor of their hands. Statistics show that after leaving school the pupils follow vocations for which their education trains them directly, or turn their hands and minds to a variety of occupations for which their education contributes only indirectly.” (d)

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CHAPTER V

PROVISIONS FOR DEPENDENT AND NEGLECTED CHILDREN

In the year 1910 there were in the United States 1,151 institutions which cared for orphan, homeless, neglected, and indigent children numbering 100,264. (a) More than 300 (or nearly 27 per cent.) of these institutions are in New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and New York, the latter alone having 154. The exact number of *schools* included in the total does not appear. In many instances it is difficult to discover whether the primary purpose of the institution is to provide education or physical shelter and care. However, by listing the institutions which, either in name or in the course of investigation, have revealed their educational purpose, we arrive at the very conservative total of 86 schools.¹ These group themselves in two divisions: (1) private or semi-public schools, 66 in number; and (2) state public schools, numbering 20. The earliest private school dates back to 1727, when ten nuns, under the auspices of Louis XV of France, founded the Ursuline convent in New Orleans, together with a day school and hospital. The frightful massacre by the Natchez Indians two years later left many orphans in and near the city, whereupon the convent established an institution for their care. (b)

From the standpoint of administrative control the private institutions have become differentiated into three types. One is the institution founded by a group of individuals who are not necessarily associated in any other organization, and whose activities in this direction are apparently prompted by purely philanthropic motives. Usually these persons happen to be members of Protestant churches or of none. Some form of religious observance, undenominational but non-Catholic,

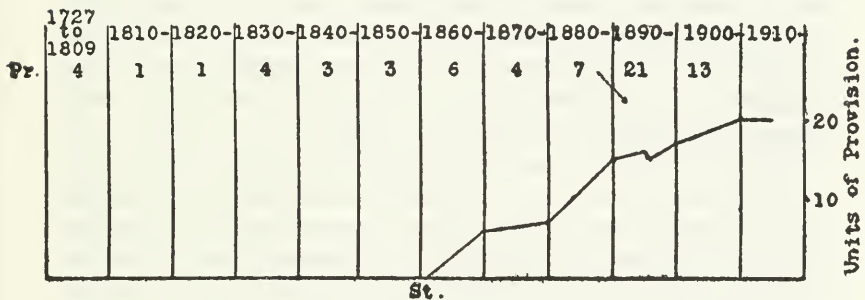
¹ This includes none of the 94 city and county detention homes, almshouses, and orphan asylums, and only relatively few of the orphanages maintained and conducted under private or religious auspices.

is commonly provided for the inmates, but in name, organization, and management the institution is not connected with any religious body. This type usually regards itself as non-sectarian and is well exemplified in the Industrial Home and School (1864) for destitute children, conducted by the Children's Aid Society of Cleveland, Ohio. A second type is recognizable in the widely-distributed and well-known orphan homes or schools organized as distinctively religious institutions, largely controlled by church authorities, and usually under the immediate management of religious societies or orders. Each of these two forms of organization has its own peculiar merits and demerits, and a recognition of the difference between the two viewpoints here indicated is necessary to a clear understanding of some of the most potent influences in the development of child-saving agencies.

A third type is the institution founded and maintained by endowment which is administered as a trust by a board of managers. Girard College in Philadelphia is the largest and most important endowed children's institution in the United States, and probably in the world. Stephen Girard died in 1831, leaving property then valued at about \$6,000,000 for the establishment of a college for orphans. Having both charitable and educational aims, he specified that "As many poor white male orphans between the ages of six and ten years as the said income shall be adequate to maintain shall be introduced into the college as soon as possible." Unruly boys were to be dismissed. It was the founder's desire that boys who proved worthy should remain in the institution until they were at least fourteen years of age, but not beyond the age of eighteen. The courses of study offered are intended as a preparation for commercial and mechanical pursuits. The buildings, which were completed in 1847, cost nearly \$3,000,000, and the present value of the property is estimated at \$24,000,000, yielding a net income of nearly \$1,000,000 annually. The estate is administered by the board of city trusts, appointed by the supreme court of Pennsylvania and the city courts of Philadelphia. The institution opened with 100 boys on January 1, 1848, and the number steadily increased to 1,934 by the end of the year. At the close of the year 1910 there was an enrollment of 1,455 pupils.

(b,a)

The first state public school was opened at Washington, D. C., in 1861, and five others were established in rapid succession during that decade. As is already obvious, the private schools and those maintained by the state comprise two distinct and separate systems. There is almost no transfer of institutions from one to the other, such as we have seen in other departments. The Nebraska institution (1881) seems to be the lone instance in which private founders received increasing state appropriations for some years, until finally the state assumed entire control in 1899. (b: 94) The ecclesiastical bodies and private agencies cling very tenaciously to the work they have undertaken in their private schools. In this study, however, it is the state system with which we are primarily concerned. A graphic representation of the rise of the state public schools is given below:



GRAPH D. DEPENDENTS.

Pr. indicates the number of private schools opened in each period.

The curve rising from St. shows the increasing number of state public schools.

The arrow signifies a transfer from private to state control.

The question naturally arises: What was the immediate occasion for the establishment of state schools? Social psychology suggests the answer. The first appearance of these schools is coincident with the Civil War. The soldier is a figure of national admiration, and the sight of the hero's children left fatherless and dependent touches the springs of social action. Orphans by the hundred there had no doubt been before, but it required a dramatic and fateful conflict to arouse the public consciousness. Several states, including Iowa, Pennsylvania, Nevada, Illinois, Kansas, Maine, Minnesota, and Wisconsin, established state homes for soldiers' orphans. Iowa had no less than three.

Some years later, with the decreasing number of applicants for admission, two of them were closed, as also were those in Minnesota and Wisconsin. In 1876 Iowa altered the entrance regulations of her remaining institution: "soldiers' and other orphans and dependent children" were admitted, and the home was gradually transformed into a state public school, even though the name was not materially changed. Illinois, Kansas, and other states have followed the same plan.

In the case of children who are destitute, neglected, or ill-treated, the social mind recognizes the fact that there should be an entire change of circumstances, and the social will as crystallized in law provides for their removal from the degrading and corrupting influences of their home or habitation. It is assumed that the state has rights in such children paramount even to those of parents and guardians; that the right which the state asserts to punish the criminal carries with it the power and the duty to prevent his becoming such, and so the child is placed under the guardianship of the state through the instrumentality of the state public school, which thenceforth stands toward the child *in loco parentis*. (c: 51)

"Michigan (1874) was the first state to establish an exclusive state system for the care of *all* destitute children who become public charges, by collecting them in one central institution, from which they are, as soon as possible, placed out in families." There were several other schools older than the one in Michigan, but the institution at Washington (1861) admitted delinquents as well as dependents; the schools in Iowa (1862), Pennsylvania (1864), and Illinois (1869) were at that time for soldiers' orphans only; in connection with the Nevada institution (1864) the placing of children in families was not regarded as an important feature; and "although Massachusetts established a state primary school at Monson in 1866, this institution was only for the care of the 'unsettled' poor children . . . Each city and town still cared for its destitute children in its own way—often in the almshouse." (a, b)

The Michigan school is located at Coldwater, and is built on the cottage plan. When it was founded, there were about 600 children under sixteen years of age in the poorhouses of the state. From 1874 to 1890, however, although the population of the state increased very rapidly and although strict laws were

enforced for the rescue of neglected and ill-treated children, the number of wards of the state actually decreased from 600 to 300. The state governor appoints an agent in each county to investigate applications from families desiring to receive children, and to visit children placed in homes in his county from any state institution. There is also a state agent with similar duties. Upon application of the superintendents of the poor, children who are neglected, ill-treated, or indigent are committed to the school by the county judges of probate. Children of all ages under fourteen years are admitted and are retained only until, in the opinion of the superintendent, they are fitted to be placed in homes, and suitable homes are found for them. Minnesota, Wisconsin, and a number of other states have established schools for dependent children, which follow more or less closely the Michigan model. (b)

The nature of the classroom work in such institutions is in marked contrast to that of the regular public school. The pupils' ages range all the way from the kindergarten stage up to fifteen or sixteen years, which is the usual age limit for admission. Owing to the indefinite periods of the children's stay in the school a systematic classification cannot apply for longer than two or three months. Moreover, the backward condition of many of the children on entering necessitates much individual instruction. The typical curriculum includes reading, spelling, number work, history, writing, physiology, geography, language, manual training, and household science. The latter branches are of special value, in that they afford a preparation for the practical work of home life.

Some three years ago, with the aid of the Russell Sage Foundation, a report was issued on the life-histories of men and women who as children had been under public guardianship in Massachusetts. This showed that a large percentage of these individuals fall below the median of efficiency in industrial life. Of late some of the states, notably Michigan, have been making efforts to afford better opportunities for the industrial training of their wards. (g)

As will be observed from the graph, no state schools have been established thus far in the present decade. This is probably due to a recent and growing tendency in the direction of granting state aid to dependents for the maintenance of the

integrity and comfort of family life. While recognizing the ills which undermine the family, thus causing untold destruction, society has been indifferent to the fact that the most powerful ally which the state can enlist is the motive of natural affection which is blind to the faults of those upon whom it is bestowed. Consistent with her long-standing policy of distributing outdoor relief through overseers of the poor in their respective cities and towns, the State of Massachusetts in June, 1913, enacted a law which provides that in every city and town the overseers of the poor shall, in accord with the law, aid all needy mothers with dependent children under fourteen years of age, if such mothers are fit to bring up their children. (h) At present more than half of the states are in the process of re-writing their laws so as to ensure more effectually the proper education and up-bringing of dependent children. Under these new laws the children will attend the regular public schools, and it is proposed to preserve to them the duty and privilege of sharing in efforts to protect, recover, and rehabilitate the family life, wherever possible, on the ground that the state rests upon the family, and not the family on the state.

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CHAPTER VI

PROVISIONS FOR THE FEEBLE-MINDED, RETARDED, AND EPILEPTIC

The earliest recorded attempt to educate a feeble-minded person was made about the year 1800 by Itard, the famous medical director of the National Institute for the Deaf and Dumb at Paris. For five years he labored with great skill and perseverance to train a boy who had been found, at the age of eleven years, wandering wild in a French forest, but finally becoming convinced that the lad was an idiot, he discontinued his efforts. The first school ever founded for the mentally deficient was the one established for cretins in 1816 by Gotthard Guggenmoos near Salzburg, Austria. Unfortunately this had to be closed in 1835 owing to lack of funds. The outstanding pioneer in this field, however, was a pupil of Itard, Dr. Edward Seguin, who in 1837 began in Paris the private instruction of mental defectives at his own expense. In 1846 he published his "Treatise on Idiocy," which still continues to be a standard text-book in this department. His doctrine is that "Our instruments of teaching must be those that go directly to the point. In view of that necessity we must use object pictures, photographs, cards, patterns, figures, wax, clay, scissors, compasses, glasses, pencils, colors, even books." The widespread publication of his successful results very soon led to the establishment of similar schools in other countries. Later, owing to the political situation in France, Seguin came to America, where he continued his interest in the education of the feeble-minded. In 1878 he founded a private school in New York City. This was afterward moved to Orange, N. J., where it is still maintained.

(a, b)

The description of the methods and results of the European schools aroused much interest in this country. Already in 1818 and in subsequent years several idiotic children were given instruction at the American Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb at

Hartford, with the result that they showed an appreciable degree of improvement in physical condition, habits, and speech. During a visit to Europe in 1842-3 Horace Mann and George S. Sumner witnessed some of the results of the new movement there. Becoming convinced of the great need for similar provisions in America, even before their return they began, through correspondence, to arouse public opinion in Massachusetts and Connecticut. Step by step the necessity of scientifically caring for the deaf and dumb, the blind, and the insane had been recognized and provided for by the more progressive states, whereas mental defectives were still neglected and often harbored in jails and poorhouses, while troublesome cases were sent to the insane hospitals. As a result of the reports of Dr. Woodward and Dr. Brigham, superintendents of the State Insane Hospitals of Massachusetts and New York, respectively, and through the efforts of Dr. F. P. Backus, a member of the New York Senate, the imperative need of schools for the feeble-minded was in 1846 brought before the New York legislature. In March of that year a bill providing for the establishment of such an institution was introduced and passed the Senate, but was defeated in the Assembly. Earlier in the same year (1846) the Massachusetts House of Representatives had appointed a board of three commissioners, of which Dr. Samuel G. Howe was chairman, "to inquire into the condition of idiots in the Commonwealth, to ascertain their number, and whether anything could be done for their relief." The commission rendered its complete report in March, 1848, and some weeks later, pursuant to their recommendation, an act was passed providing for the founding of an experimental school for the instruction of ten indigent idiots selected from different parts of the state. This school received its first pupil on October 1, 1848, and for several years was conducted in connection with the Perkins Institute for the Blind, of which Dr. Howe was superintendent. So successful did the work prove that at the end of three years the experimental school was transformed into a permanent and independent institution, to be known as "The Massachusetts School for Idiotic and Feeble-Minded Youth," and as such it was moved to Waltham in 1889. (b)

In July, 1848, some months after the legislation incorporating the Massachusetts school, Dr. H. B. Wilbur opened a private

institution at Barre, Mass. To him, therefore, must go the credit of actually beginning educational work among the feeble-minded in America. This school was organized on the family plan and has been very successful.

The New York legislature in 1851 established near Albany an experimental school for idiots, securing as director Dr. Wilbur, of Barre, Mass. Three years later the citizens of Syracuse donated a site, and the first purely state institution in this country, expressly for the care and training of the mentally deficient, was located in that city. In this school the physiological method of education has been thoroughly and scientifically employed.

Pennsylvania was the third state in which this branch of education received attention. A private undertaking was begun at Germantown in 1852 by Mr. J. B. Richards, the first teacher in the Massachusetts school. In 1855 the institution was moved to a splendid site at Elwyn, where it now continues, with more than a thousand inmates. Although still under private control, it is known as "The Pennsylvania Training School for Feeble-Minded Children." (c)

The Ohio school was opened at Columbus in 1857, and from the very beginning this state provided most generously for the feeble-minded. Connecticut, Kentucky, and Illinois came next in order, and by 1875 six public and four private schools of this kind had been established, with upwards of 1,300 pupils. (d: 959) At the end of 1899 the number had increased to 23 private or semi-public institutions and 24 state schools.

Practically all of these early institutions were begun as pure experiments and in the face of general doubt as to the value of their undertakings. Almost every one of them was located at or near a state capital, so that the members of the legislature could easily visit them, see their needs and the results of the training given. It is noteworthy that no institution, when once established, was ever abandoned. As Dr. Howe said in one of his early reports, they formed "a link in the chain of common schools . . . a necessary link in order to embrace all the children in the state." Owing to the limited capacity of the schools, however, it seemed best at first to admit only the higher-grade cases, in which the subsequent improvement could be compared with that of ordinary school pupils. (b)

With the increasing attention that has been devoted to these unfortunates, there has gradually developed a somewhat definite and useful classification of them. As Dr. Goddard (e) points out, "persons who are recognized as being below the line of normal intelligence have been at different periods called by different names. Originally called idiots, they were later designated as imbeciles, and still later as feeble-minded. . . . In America we have used the expression 'feeble-minded' both in a specific and in a generic sense, specifically to designate the highest division, and generically the whole group. Our institutions for these defectives are generally known as Institutions for the Feeble-Minded. Since the introduction of the Binet measuring scale of intelligence and the grading of children by their mental age, a closer classification has been followed. The American Association for the Study of the Feeble-Minded has adopted the following scheme: The term idiot is used to designate those of mental age up to and including two years; imbecile, those from three to seven years inclusive. For those from seven to twelve a new term has been invented; they are now called morons," the term being derived from the Greek word meaning "to be foolish."

During the first forty years of their history in America, institutions for the feeble-minded became differentiated into two departments—the educational and the custodial; and this differentiation still obtains. In the former department the instruction given is quite similar to that in ordinary schools, the chief difference being not so much in kind as in degree. There are "the progressive games and occupations of the kindergarten, object teaching, educational gymnastics, manual training and the other graphic and attractive methods so successfully applied in the education of normal children." If part of a class shows irregular and unusual deficiencies, they are grouped together for individual attention. The "education by doing" is a prominent feature in connection with the mental training. Instruction is given in industrial occupations, such as brick-making, carpentry, domestic work, farming, gardening, painting, printing, stock-raising, manufacture of brooms, brushes, clothing, boots and shoes.

The custodial department includes the lower-grade idiots, the epileptics, and the juvenile insane. Their wants are looked

after; they are made comfortable and happy, and they are also trained to wait on themselves, dress and undress, to pay attention to personal cleanliness, and to be orderly and obedient. In this department are also classed the moral imbeciles and the adults who, though past school age, cannot safely be trusted beyond the limits of strict supervision. The routine work around an institution furnishes these inmates with plenty of useful and interesting employment. (b)

For the year 1913 the United States Commissioner of Education received reports from 59 institutions for the feeble-minded, with an enrollment of 25,594 inmates. The probability is that fully 18 or 20 institutions failed to report, which would bring the total up to 78.

For practical purposes the members of the human family are usually thought of as being divided into three groups—the normal, the exceptionally gifted, and the defective. It should be remembered, however, that any clear-cut classification serves merely as a matter of convenience and does not convey an accurate idea of the relative abilities of the persons thus classified. The measurements taken by Dr. Norsworthy of ten mental traits among mentally deficient children support the conclusion that in respect to intelligence mental defectives do not form a “separate species,” for such a species in any trait would be “a group clustering about a certain central point and lying in the main outside the distribution of ordinary individuals in that trait.” Dr. Norsworthy found that in every test the scores ran up to the median for ordinary children, and that more than 15 per cent. of the cases were within the limits of normal distribution. (f: 77) From this it appears that mental defectives simply occupy a position at the extreme of some large distribution, possibly that indicated by the normal probability curve. In support of this view Professor Thorndike observes that “the ordinary usage of language tempts us to think that children can be divided sharply into normal and abnormal, or into hearing and deaf, or into healthy and hysterical, but ordinary observation should teach us that within the human species sharp lines of distinction rarely correspond to reality. Thus we know that children do not form three separate groups, the bright, the ordinary, and the dull, but that there are a few very bright, others less so, others still less so, others still less, until we reach

the lowest idiots by a gradual passage along the scale of intellect." (g: 169) Therefore, between the mentally deficient and other people the difference is not of kind but of degree, and along this scale are found what may be termed the intermediate or border-line types. These include the epileptic and the over-age or retarded. Retardates may be divided broadly into (1) the curable and (2) the incurable. On a causal basis, however, they may be classified more definitely into four varieties: (1) persons who are retarded merely pedagogically, owing to a mal-adjusted curriculum; (2) those who are mentally retarded because of some physical defect, such as adenoids, neurotic condition, anemia, or malnutrition; (3) those who are environmentally handicapped by bad home and neighborhood conditions, bad sanitation, vicious or illiterate associates, frequent movings, or emigration resulting in linguistic maladjustment; (4) persons who are retarded owing to genuine arrest of mental development, in which case the deficiency is as real as in the feeble-minded, but in lesser degree. Of these four types of retardates it is estimated that there are approximately 6,000,000 in the schools of the United States. (h)

As early as 1872 Dr. W. T. Harris, then superintendent of schools in St. Louis, called attention to pedagogical "misfits" in the public schools of this country. (i) At that time educators were not ready to examine the facts seriously, although (as noted in Chapter III) Cleveland four years later established a separate school for retardates of the more obvious and troublesome type. With the stricter enforcement of compulsory attendance laws, about 1890, the volume and complexity of the school population steadily increased: children began to attend who, owing to either their low mentality or their unruly bearing, had previously escaped the school, and both teachers and administrators were compelled to recognize serious problems in connection with their education. Among the reactions to this situation were various attempts to improve methods of graduation and promotion. Mr. Preston W. Search, during his superintendency (1888-94) of the public schools in Pueblo, Colo., devised and inaugurated what has become known as the Pueblo plan. According to this the individual, and not the class, is the unit in study, recitation, and progress. Pupils are grouped in working sections, but the members of a working section are

not necessarily doing the same work simultaneously, and such grouping is only temporary. Each pupil progresses at his own pace, and receives credit only for what he accomplishes. In short, this plan renders a school both graded and ungraded: graded in respect to its program of work, but ungraded in its accommodation of the individual. (j)

In 1898 Superintendent John Kennedy introduced into the schools of Batavia, N. Y., a plan whereby a large class was cared for by two teachers. (k: 12) One acted as chief instructor and the other "coached" backward pupils and those who desired special help to keep up to the standard of the grade. It was a blending of individual with class instruction, the time being equally divided between the two. After a year's trial of the two-teacher plan, Superintendent Kennedy became convinced that both class and individual instruction should be given in the one-teacher rooms also. In this way the well-known Batavia system developed as a means of aiding slow and retarded pupils to help themselves. (l)

In the meantime, Providence, R. I., in 1896 had entered upon the work of grouping into special classes mentally retarded and backward children. Other cities followed in rapid succession: Chicago and Springfield, Mass., in 1898, Boston and Worcester in 1899, and New York City in 1900. (m, d, n)

Since the opening of the century this movement has had a phenomenal growth. In his report of 1904, Superintendent Maxwell, of the New York City schools, pointed out that more than 39 per cent. of the children in the elementary schools were above the normal ages for their grades. The standard adopted by Dr. Maxwell was one which rated as over-age all pupils in the first grade who were eight years old or more, all those in the second grade who were nine years or more, and so on for each succeeding grade. Dr. Maxwell's tables revealed the conditions with such force and definiteness that the interest of educators was focused on the problem. Other superintendents applied the same standard to their schools. Out of 33 city school systems investigated between 1901 and 1908, the three lowest percentages of retardation were 7.5, 10.6, and 13; the three highest, 60.1, 62.8, and 75.8. The average was about 38 per cent. and the median 35.4 per cent. (h, o) These studies aroused widespread interest and stimulated both scrutiny and

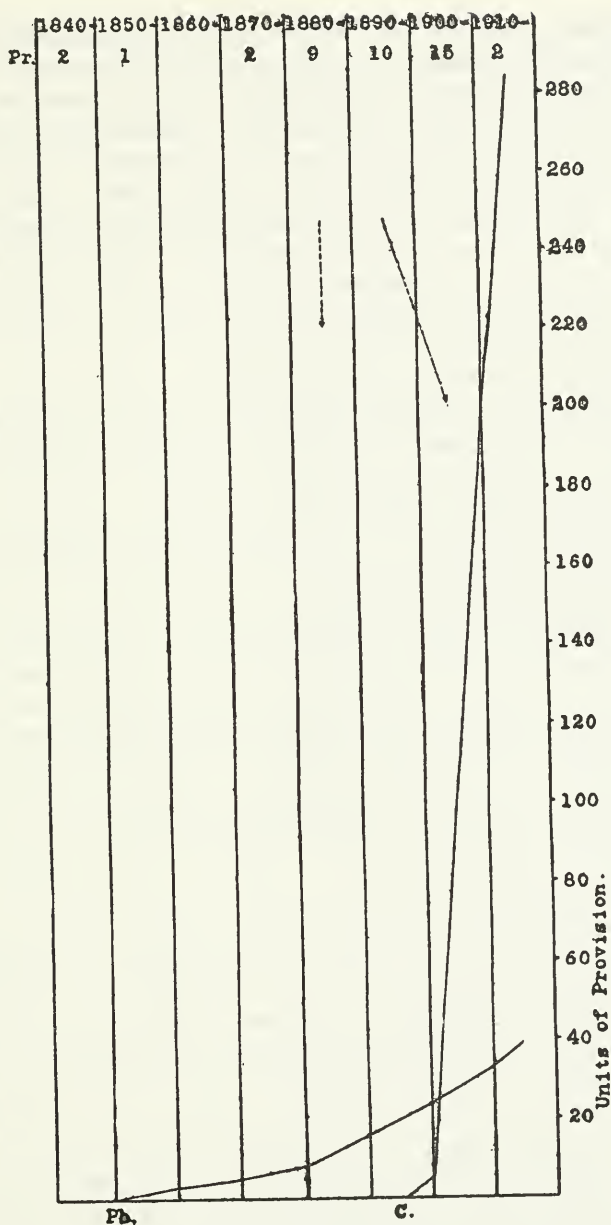
action in scores of cities, with the result that by March, 1911, there were not less than 217 cities providing special classes for pupils of the border-line types. (m, p)

Graph E furnishes a conspectus of the whole movement, including both institutional developments and those in town and city public schools.

By the end of the year 1912-13 a total of 284 cities had special classes in operation. They were grouped as follows: providing for mental defectives only, 20; for backward only, 152; for mental defectives and backward, 104; for mental defectives, backward, and epileptics, 6; for mental defectives and epileptics, 1 (Reading, Pa.); for epileptics only, 1 (Phœnixville, Pa.). According to J. E. Ransom (r) in 1914 there were some 300 cities and towns in the United States which made special provision in their public schools for the teaching of subnormal children. We catch more of the meaning of these figures, however, when we discover that in the same year Chicago alone had 51 rooms accommodating 1,250 retarded pupils, and New York had 184 such classes, with an enrollment of nearly 3,000. (v)

Another adjustment of school organization which is meeting the needs of retarded pupils is the opening of vacation schools. For many years there have been "summer schools" in various American cities, but these have been almost entirely recreational in character. Within the last decade a host of cities, including Cincinnati (1908), Boston, Chicago, New York, Cambridge, Worcester, Cleveland, Bloomington, Ind., Baltimore, St. Louis, St. Paul, Minneapolis, Grand Rapids, and Louisville, have established summer academic departments. The one opened at Minneapolis in 1911 may be taken as an example. Work was carried on that summer for six weeks at five centers. Pupils enrolled to the number of 1,142 by noon of the second day, and entrance was refused after that day. Three classes of pupils attended: the retarded, those seeking special promotion, and those wishing to strengthen their work for the ensuing year. The retarded pupils totaled 742, and of this number 548 (or nearly 75 per cent.) were recommended for promotion at the end of the six weeks. (m)

The state of New Jersey has led the way in the enactment of constructive educational legislation. State school laws, passed in 1911 and 1912, provide that each board of education in the



GRAPH E. FEEBLE-MINDED.

Pr. indicates the number of private or semi-public institutions opened in each decade. The curve rising from Pb. shows the increasing number of public or state institutions; the curve rising from C., the number of cities maintaining special public school classes.

Each arrow signifies a transfer from private control to state, or to a city Board of Education.

state shall ascertain what children, if any, there are in the public schools who are three years or more below the normal. In each school district in which there are ten or more such children, the board thereof shall establish a special class or classes for their instruction. The medical examiner of the district shall examine the children in the special classes at least once every three months. No class may contain more than fifteen pupils, and for each teacher employed in one of the special classes the state appropriates \$500. Up to November, 1913, there had been established within New Jersey 102 such classes, enrolling about 1,400 children. (s, h)

It has been repeatedly emphasized that a discrimination must be made between retarded children who may properly be taught in the public day schools and children so feeble-minded that they should be consigned to residential institutions. In the former class are the dull and backward whose mental processes are slow, who perhaps can never take a high place in the social and industrial life of a community, and yet who under proper instruction are capable of great improvement, and possibly may be trained to self-support. With those incapable of improvement—the lower-grade imbecile and the idiot—the public schools have nothing to do. (t) Academic instruction is of little use to any feeble-minded person; only the higher-grade morons, perhaps of ten or twelve years' mental age, learn reading to the extent of enjoying it. But all kinds of manual and physical training are of use to them. Reading, writing, and arithmetic, the essentials of the common school, are the "fads and frills" of the school for the feeble-minded. (r)

As to selection of retardates in the public school, the class organization, and the choice of subject-matter, the methods followed at Rochester, N. Y., may be regarded as fairly typical. The retarded pupils there are examined by the Binet-Simon measuring scale and if a child registers mentally three or more years below his chronological age, he is placed in a special class. This evidence is always verified by a test of the child's actual experience in the school. For example, a child may be twelve years old, but he is found capable of doing only second A grade work. The average normal age for the second grade is between eight and nine, and the Binet test usually verifies his mental status by registering eight plus. The maximum enrollment in

a special class is fifteen pupils. Each child receives a thorough medical examination after he is placed in a class, and if the parent cannot afford to rectify the physical defects, the work is done by different philanthropic men in dental clinics, dispensaries, and hospitals. The low-grade custodial case is admitted only until he can be placed in an institution, and, for the most part, it is possible to win the coöperation of the parent in a very short time and place the child where he belongs. In the classroom the aim is to minimize the elementary work and emphasize the industrial and physical activities. Sewing, cooking, basketry, and bench work are the chief industries, and Swedish gymnasium work, together with rhythm and games, comprise the physical exercises. The children are so happy in the class that in many instances they refuse to return to their former grades when their parents wish it. When a boy becomes thirteen and a half years of age he is transferred to an industrial or factory class, where the instructor tries to meet his need with more extensive and practical work. The girls, at the same age, are transferred to vocational classes which furnish training in domestic work. As far as possible the teachers of these advanced classes aim to secure positions for these children as they reach the age of sixteen and are at liberty to leave school. (u: 26-7)

In the New York City schools the process of examining suspected mental defectives is regarded as so important that the results of one test (such as the Binet-Simon), applied by one person, are not considered sufficient; nor is entire reliance placed upon laboratory tests, but these are supplemented by records of social and economic efficiency, and each case is studied and tested by different individuals. In every difficult case as many as four groups of data are considered: (1) record of school achievement; (2) record of home and environmental conditions; (3) record of neurological and psychological examination; (4) record of personality study, involving an attempt to analyze the mind not only on its intellectual side, but on the emotional and volitional as well. (v)

Two very interesting studies have recently been made in connection with special public school provisions for retarded pupils. The first of these was carried on under the auspices of the Juvenile Protective Association of Chicago and, among other things, an inquiry was made as to how long 440 retarded pupils remained

in the special classes, and why they left when they did. The investigators found that 307 pupils (or 70 per cent.) stayed ten months (one school year) or less; 86 (or 19 per cent.) remained from one to two years; 32 (or 7 per cent.), between two and three years, and 15 (or about 4 per cent.), over three years. Of these 440 children, 341 (or more than 75 per cent.) were returned to a regular grade; 30 (or nearly 7 per cent.) left to go to work. Others left for various reasons, some being removed by parents against the advice of the school, others being sent to parochial schools either for religious instruction or because the parents felt that a stigma was attached to the special class. The inadequate follow-up system rendered it impossible to find out exactly how the children succeeded on re-entering the grades, how long they stayed there, or how the 30 succeeded at work. In the latter group it was discovered that a few apparently did well, that others were unable to hold a position and sometimes drifted into crime; further, that of the whole 440, 77 had been in institutions because of mental defect, dependency, truancy, and other delinquency. (r)

The second study was a survey to find out what becomes of those pupils who at sixteen years of age leave the Ungraded Classes of the New York City schools. (v: 28-9) The children considered were 86 boys and 38 girls who had been out of school from one to six years, the average length of time being two years. The children were in the classes organized in 1906 (when the department of ungraded classes was formed), and they represent the total number of sixteen-year-olds discharged from these ungraded classes. There were two reports on all the cases considered, and on many three. The facts brought out by the study of these 124 cases are as follows:

- 54 per cent. are working
- 25 per cent. are cared for at home (some helping)
- 8.8 per cent. are in institutions
- 8.9 per cent. no information
- 2.3 per cent. are dead
- 5 per cent. have been arrested

The occupations include, for the girls, millinery, making of linings, factory and laundry work; for the boys, truck driving, delivering groceries, wood turning, and tailoring.

It remains for other studies to reveal the probable term of years during which a mental defective will continue to earn a

competence. In the meantime, the figures in this study, with reference to those who are working, substantiate the contentions of Dr. W. A. Polglase, medical superintendent of the Michigan Home for the Feeble-Minded, when he says: "It has been shown that more than 50 per cent. of the adults of the higher grades of the mentally defective who have been under training from childhood are capable of doing, under intelligent supervision, a sufficient amount of work to pay for the actual cost of their support, whether in an institution or at home." (v: 30)

EPILEPTICS

Comparatively little has been done for this type of unfortunates in the public schools. Up to March, 1911, there were special classes for them in six cities: Pueblo (District No. 1), Colo., Baltimore, Cleveland, Rochester, Minn., Phoenixville, Pa., and Reading, Pa. In the year 1912-13 Coshocton, O., opened a special division for them, and Chicago opened two divisions during 1913-14. The problem of caring for the epileptic is only beginning to dawn upon the American public. For example, there are more than 500 epileptic children of school age in Chicago, and of this number a great majority are as yet almost unprovided with adequate care. (m) What is true of Chicago is doubtless proportionally true of scores of other cities. In Chicago the equipment of the special divisions for epileptics is the same as that of an ordinary schoolroom, with the addition of a mattress placed on the floor in the corner of the room, so that a pupil may lie down whenever necessary. A screen and a light blanket for covering are also desirable for the patient's comfort. Dr. Wm. Healy, director of the Juvenile Psychopathic Institute in Chicago, maintains that "epileptics are not wanted in school. They cannot be tolerated in a business position. They are dangerous to themselves and others in almost any factory or workshop, and they are not even wanted in the reformatories." . . . "The hospital for the insane is not a proper place for an epileptic who is not considerably demented." . . . "The non-segregation of epileptics . . . is utterly uneconomical, unsympathetic, and, in general, significant of a partly civilized state of social consciousness." (m)

The best solution to the problem of the epileptic seems to be found in the public maintenance of one or more custodial insti-

tutions in each state, where the perils to the epileptic himself as well as to the community can be controlled, where the ailment can be studied, and where the patient's condition, if possible, can be improved. Some states have already adopted this plan, and out of nearly 80 institutions, both public and private, for the feeble-minded, nine or ten now apparently admit and care for epileptics.

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CHAPTER VII

PROVISIONS FOR CRIPPLES

From the earliest days the lot of cripples has been a hard one. In ancient times the primitive peoples used to dispose of them in a very simple manner: they were cast out and left to perish. Through the ages they have been looked upon as targets for contempt and ridicule, but with the growing social consciousness of the responsibility of the community for its unfortunate members, the attitude has changed and very slowly, but surely, attention has been directed to the care of the cripples. To Bavaria must go the credit of establishing in 1832 at Munich the first institution providing for their education and development. Since that time many other countries have founded homes with similar purposes. In the United States much work has been done, although most of it has been concentrated around several centers, and in some extensive districts there is still a total lack of care for these unfortunates. (a)

The children that are so seriously crippled, and for such a length of time, during their school age as to prevent their enjoying the educational opportunities offered the average child, constitute the class of crippled children for whom special educational methods have been devised. There are two distinct methods of caring for them: (1) the residential system, where the children live in institutions; (2) the non-residential system, where they live in their own homes and are cared for by outside means. Of the former, the first educational institution in the United States was a combination school and hospital, established in 1861 by Dr. James Knight and his daughter in their home on 6th Street, New York City. Out of this small beginning there grew in 1863 the new Hospital for the Ruptured and Crippled on 42d Street. (c) For some time the development of this work was very gradual. In the twenty-seven years from 1863 to 1890 only five institutions were established, all in two cities: three in New York and two in Philadelphia. Since 1890, how-

ever, the growth has been rapid. In the ten years from 1890 to 1900, eleven institutions were opened; in the twelve years from 1900 to 1912, nineteen were established; all of which indicates an increasing recognition of the need. There are now no less than thirty private or semi-public and five public institutions. The latter are located in four states, Minnesota having two, and Massachusetts, Nebraska, and New York each one. In addition to these, New York City has one of its own, maintained under the Department of Public Charities. The state schools are the only institutions which are meeting in any appreciable measure the needs of the crippled children in the rural districts, and it is a noteworthy fact that similar provisions are being contemplated in Ohio and Illinois.

The non-residential method of caring for cripples has been developed in this country only since 1890, when a private day school, the Rhinelander Industrial School for Crippled Children, was opened on East 80th Street, New York City. The care of cripples is necessarily expensive, and this may partially explain why during the next twenty years only six additional schools of this kind were established: four in New York City, one in Boston, and one in Cleveland. One of the New York schools, established in 1902, has developed into an open-air class for children with bone tuberculosis. It is supported by the Alumnae of Miss Spence's School, and since September, 1909, has been held on one deck of the abandoned ferryboat "Southfield." (d)

A second phase of non-residential care is in special classes conducted under the direction of the city school board. The place of the crippled child in the public school system is one of the educational problems which has become increasingly prominent. In solving this problem the city of Chicago has led the way, the first class being opened in 1899. New York made similar provision in 1907, Detroit in 1910, Baltimore, Cleveland, Newark, and Philadelphia in 1913. Chicago now maintains special classes in two sections of the city: in the Spalding School, which is given over entirely to these classes, and in the Fallon School, which reserves almost the whole of its first floor for the exclusive use of cripples. The work is financed entirely by the Board of Education. During the school year 1913-14 there were eight classes with an enrollment of 216 pupils. (d, e)

Since 1907 Cleveland has accommodated special classes in one of its public schools, but until recently the cost of these has been met jointly by the city school board and the Sunbeam Circle, an organization whose sole object is the education of defective children. The Doster law, however, provides state aid for public school classes for cripples, so that since September, 1913, the school for cripples in Cleveland has been supported wholly by public funds. (n)

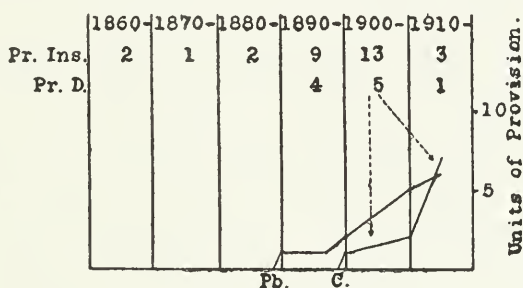
The public schools of New York City made their first provision in 1906 when the Board of Education joined forces with the Association for the Aid of Crippled Children of New York City. This association and other similar organizations had for six or seven years been providing transportation and care for cripples attending private day classes on the East Side. Under the new agreement the school equipment and teachers were supplied by the Board, and the buildings, transportation, nourishment, and general physical care were looked after by the societies. This attempt proved successful, and a further advance was made a year later (1907), when classes for cripples were added to the regular public schools wherever rooms were available. (g, h) The work has naturally assumed tremendous proportions because of the large number of crippled children on the lower East Side, where population is congested and made up largely of poor uneducated foreigners. In 1910 there were 18,000 cripples being treated in the city hospitals; of these about 300 were enrolled in private day schools, and 450 in public schools. The report for 1913-14 indicates a total of 41 public school classes for cripples, with an enrollment of about 765 children.

The following graph (F) shows the general development of the movement in its four phases: (1) private institutions, (2) private day schools, (3) state or public institutions, and (4) cities providing day classes.

The better schools of both types, residential and non-residential, are similar in most of their detailed provisions for the safety and comfort of the children. Schoolrooms are located on the ground floor, wherever possible. Thresholds are usually absent. Various other conveniences, such as rubber floor strips and hand rails at low levels, are provided wherever the school can afford them. In the schoolrooms adjustable or partially

adjustable seats and desks are frequently furnished, while in some institutions large tables and ordinary chairs are used. For children who have to sit in wheel chairs lapboards are provided. Two special provisions are always necessary in connection with the day schools, namely, the 'buses which carry the children to and from school, usually accompanied by a nurse and carrying-boy, and the food served free or for very small payments.

The general curriculum is approximately the same as that pursued in the regular classes. A number of institutions are seeking to secure more flexibility in the grading and promotion of pupils than is thought to be possible under a public school



GRAPH F. CRIPPLES.

Pr. Ins. indicates the number of private institutions opened in each decade; Pr. D., the number of private day schools.

The curve rising from Pb. shows the increasing number of public or state institutions; the curve rising from C., the number of cities maintaining special public school classes.

Each arrow signifies a transfer from private control to that of a city Board of Education.

system. The disabilities of the children are so various that a great deal of individual attention is necessary. Consequently the classes are smaller than in the ordinary school. The length of the daily session is shorter and the schedule considerably more varied. The children are permitted, and sometimes ordered, to rest for short periods. The class work includes more frequent change from one subject to another and more hand work than is usual in regular classes. Owing to the length of the convalescent period in some cases, as in bone tuberculosis, special provisions for instruction have to be made. In many instances voluntary teachers spend a couple of hours two or three times a week teaching the bed patients. Several institutions, such as those at Boston and Pittsburgh, hold classes out

of doors during the greater part of the year. A recent feature in both residential and non-residential schools is the greater emphasis placed upon occupational or industrial training, since it is being recognized more and more that nothing should be neglected which can make these children at least partially self-supporting. Cripples, from the very nature of their deformities, are debarred from many avenues of work. Among the trades adapted to persons with limited strength there have been selected the making of reed articles, engraving, the jeweler's trade, mechanical drawing, wood carving, cobbling, typewriting, printing, cooking, sewing, embroidery, and dressmaking. Gardening and other outdoor work are found to be especially suitable and beneficial for those needing continued life in the open.

Except for those cases requiring constant medical supervision, the logical provision for crippled children, as to their primary education at least, seems to be in public day schools so modified as to be adapted to their special needs. Even with the additional expense of transportation and medical care, such a plan is less costly for the community than a hospital or residential school in the country. The child lives at home, and so his relations to his parents remain natural. Above all, it allows him to go to the same school with his more fortunate brother, thus increasing his self-confidence, contributing greatly to his happiness, and putting him on the high road to a normal and healthy view of life.

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CHAPTER VIII

PROVISIONS FOR NON-ENGLISH-SPEAKING IMMIGRANTS

In the history of any new country it is difficult to draw the line between the period of colonization and that of immigration. In the case of the United States, however, the close of the War of Independence furnishes us with a convenient date, and it seems quite fitting to regard the years down to 1783 as comprising the period of colonization. Since that time the growth of population has been due to both natural increase and immigration. The records of immigration begin with the year 1820, so the era from 1783 on may for convenience be divided into two: from 1783 to 1820, the period of natural increase; and from 1820 to the present, the period of immigration. (a) Down to 1856 the enumerators made no distinction between aliens who were simply travelers intending to return home, and the bona fide immigrants who had come to stay. (b: 71) Between 1820 and 1912 a total of 29,611,000 foreigners have sought homes, temporarily or permanently, in the United States. (c) A study of the records covering this period reveals the fact that a great change has taken place both in the character of the immigration and in its extent. Two distinct movements are discernable. The first is the influx prior to 1883, which is termed the "old" immigration. It includes immigrants chiefly from Northern and Western Europe: England, Ireland, Scotland, Wales, Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, Holland, Norway, Sweden, and Switzerland. These people, coming from Teutonic and Celtic countries, were almost of the same blood as the early settlers on this continent, and they constituted more than 95 per cent. of the newcomers from Europe previous to 1883. (d: 23) The second movement began in the early '80's and extends down to the present. It is known as the "new" immigration and comprises the peoples emigrating from Southern and Eastern Europe: Austria-Hungary,

Bulgaria, Greece, Italy, Montenegro, Poland, Portugal, Roumania, Russia, Servia, Spain, Syria, and Turkey. Though but meagerly represented at first, these nationalities came so rapidly into prominence since 1883 that in recent years they have formed more than 70 per cent.¹ of the total European immigration. (d: 23)

The years 1882 and 1907 are thus far the high-tide years for the old and new immigration respectively, and a survey of European immigration in those years, as shown by the following table, indicates the change in its character geographically.

TABLE I. (d: 167)

TOTAL EUROPEAN IMMIGRATION TO THE UNITED STATES, YEARS 1882 AND 1907, BY CLASS

Class	Year		Per Cent. Distribution	
	1882	1907	1882	1907
Old Immigration.....	563,175	227,851	86.9	19.0
New Immigration.....	84,973	971,608	13.1	81.0
Not specified.....	38	107	(a)	(a)
	648,186	1,199,566	100.0	100.0

(a) Less than 0.05 per cent.

Within a period of fifteen years the percentages for the two immigrations had practically been reversed. The old had formed 86.9 per cent. of the whole immigration from Europe in 1882, but by 1907 it had dropped to 19 per cent.; whereas the new immigration, though standing at only 13.1 per cent. in the former year, increased to 81 per cent. in 1907.

In comparing the races and nationalities that have migrated to the United States, illiteracy is a factor which should not be overlooked, inasmuch as it is of prime importance in connection with the process of social and political assimilation. If a man can read no language, his outlook is necessarily limited and he is greatly handicapped in his dependence upon chance conversation and public discussion for his political and social ideas.

¹ See Appendix VIII, Table 1.

Table II affords a comparison of the old and new immigration with respect to the degree of illiteracy characterizing persons fourteen years of age or over, for the decade 1899-1909.

TABLE II. (d: 176)
ILLITERACY OF IMMIGRANTS, 1899-1909 INCLUSIVE

Class	Total No. of Persons aged 14 yrs.	Persons aged 14 yrs. or over, unable either to read or to write	
		Number	Per cent.
Old Immigration.....	1,983,617	52,833	2.7
New Immigration....	5,215,444	1,865,992	35.8
Total.....	7,199,061	1,918,825	26.7

In this decade, therefore, among the new immigration groups which exceeded fourteen years of age, more than one-third were unable to either read or write in any language. In the meantime, by reason of their age they were almost beyond the reach of American school attendance laws. Just here the question naturally arises: What proportion do these illiterates form of the total immigration? The reports of the commissioner-general of immigration indicate that 9,555,673 immigrants were admitted to the United States in the years 1889 to 1910. Of this number 8,398,624 (or more than 87 per cent.) were over fourteen years of age. This is considerably above the normal, for in 1900, among native whites, only 61.1 per cent. were over fourteen years of age. (d) Assuming 87 per cent. to be applicable to the decade 1899-1909, we find that about 30 per cent. of the new immigration were at that time illiterate.

The distribution of the foreign element in a population is another matter of great social importance. Professor Ellwood states that "only one nationality distributes itself evenly over the country, and that is the British. All other nationalities have certain favorite sections in which they settle." (c) Statistics substantiate this view. Beginning with the census of 1850, which was the first to group the foreign-born according to land of birth, we here see how the increase in the foreign-born population has distributed itself among the five geographic divisions of the United States.

TABLE III²

PER CENT. DISTRIBUTION OF INCREASE IN FOREIGN-BORN POPULATION IN EACH DECADE, BY GEOGRAPHIC DIVISION

Division	1850-60	1860-70	1870-80	1880-90	1890-1900	1900-10
N. Atlantic States.	36.9	34.8	26.4	41.8	80.1	60.3
N. Central States.	47.2	55.3	52.4	44.5	9.0	16.8
Western States.	8.0	9.4	16.8	10.5	6.9	17.7
S. Atlantic States.	3.0	.3	.7	1.3	.7	2.6
S. Central States.	4.9	.2	3.7	1.9	3.3	2.6

These figures are significant as representing the total immigration to this country minus deaths and return migration.

In a comparison of the chief nationalities of the old and new immigration, we find that, on the average, 62.3 per cent. of the old and 74.1 per cent. of the new immigration have settled in urban communities.³ Immigrants unmistakably have the tendency to congregate in certain states, and especially in the great cities; and so it has come about that New York is said to be the second largest German city in the world, the second largest Italian city, the largest Irish city, and by far the largest Jewish city in the world. (c)

In 1910 ten of the largest cities in the United States had the following percentage of foreign-born:

TABLE IV. (g: 727-8)

Cities	Total Population	Foreign-born
New York.	4,766,883	40.8%
Chicago.	2,185,283	35.8%
Philadelphia.	1,549,008	24.8%
St. Louis.	687,029	18.4%
Boston.	670,585	36.3%
Cleveland.	560,663	35.0%
Baltimore.	558,485	13.9%
Pittsburgh.	533,905	26.4%
Detroit.	465,766	33.8%
San Francisco.	416,912	31.4%

² Compiled from sources d: 131; f: 620; g: 141.³ See Appendix VIII, Table 2.

These ten cities are included in the 37 visited by the Immigration Commission, in the public schools of which they found that 57.8 per cent. of the pupils were of foreign-born fathers. (d: 43)

The investigations of this Commission have revealed the fact that the inability to speak English is the greatest obstacle to the proper distribution of the new immigration population. It causes the segregation of immigrant nationalities in industrial towns and large cities, and precludes desirable contact with American life and institutions. The Commission found, in the course of their field investigations during 1908-09, that out of 182,108 employees of foreign and non-British birth, only 39.3 per cent. of the new immigration could speak English, as compared with 87.2 per cent. of the old immigration. (d: 474)

We have observed how radical has been the change in the character of the immigration to America during the past thirty years. The Dutch, British, Irish, Germans, and Scandinavians of the old immigration were all readily assimilated by the older American population, since they had substantially the same educational, social, and political standards and ideals. But this is not the case with the majority of the newcomers from Southern Europe. Judging from their large percentage of illiterates over fourteen years of age, they have come from countries affording but meager opportunity for public education. They have little in common with the older stocks of population here, either in blood, language, traditions, or habits of thought and action. They know little of Western social ideals. Their new surroundings are entirely different from anything they have ever known, and their massing at urban centers, in large communities, greatly complicates the problem of assimilation. Any community can easily absorb a few foreigners, provided they are scattered, for environment quickly and effectively does its work. But when they settle down in great numbers, living in colonies of their own, continuing to speak their native tongue exclusively, and practising their native customs exclusively, then they cut themselves off, and environment does not meet the situation. They continue to be strangers in a strange land, and in this way inequalities of social condition are fostered and accentuated. (h, i) In a commonwealth such as the United States social inequalities are largely the result of difference in

up-bringing, and to this extent the problem of assimilation is one of *education* in the broadest sense of the word. In all progressive communities the school is recognized as the chief instrument of socialization and civilization. Standing as an intermediary between society and the embryo citizen, its task in this country is daily becoming more complex, more onerous, and more exacting.

The problem of educating the immigrant has two aspects: (1) the training of the child, and (2) the Americanizing of the adult; and neither of these can be slighted if the assimilation is to be complete. Few people, if any, dispute the necessity of educating the foreign child, but there are some who do not grasp our obligations to foreign parents. Yet, we have no right to educate a child away from its parents, and failure to recognize this truth has caused a breach between the old and the new in the family and has led to serious results in the social life of these foreign communities. (i)

It was in the great commercial centers of America that the congregating of foreigners first became evident, and consequently it was in these cities that school organization made its first adjustments in response to these social needs. For the adult immigrant educational opportunities have developed in three forms: (1) evening classes, (2) free lectures and concerts, and (3) parents' meetings.

(1) Mr. Albert Shiels, director of reference and research in the New York City Department of Education, informs me that the annual city school reports indicate that as early as 1853 there were in the evening schools "Germans engaged in learning to pronounce, spell, read, and translate English." Some years later (in the 1870's) special classes were organized in these schools. In the year 1879 the boroughs of Manhattan and Brooklyn had 42 evening schools, accommodating 1,376 foreigners in special classes. (i) About 1870 St. Louis and San Francisco also opened classes of this kind. (k) Chicago followed about the year 1882, Boston about 1885, Denver, Colo., and Rochester, N. Y., in 1891. At the end of twenty years (in 1911) 200 cities had inaugurated in their public schools special evening classes for the teaching of adult foreigners. (k, l, m, n) In the year 1912-13 the evening schools of Chicago had an enrollment of 11,201 in these special classes, and last year a total of

16,774. New York City is confronted with the problem of assimilating an immigrant population which is arriving and remaining at the rate of 800 persons a day. To meet this it has developed, in its evening school system, what is probably "the greatest and most convincing example of educational work for immigrants in America." (l, h) During 1912-13 the special classes for foreigners in the evening elementary schools had a registration of 25,695 persons, and of 32,703 in 1913-14. In other words, six out of every ten pupils in these evening schools are foreigners, and 80 per cent. of them come from Russia, Austria-Hungary, and Italy. (l)

The early efforts were frequently characterized by crudeness of method and conventional subject-matter, the attempt being made to teach English to adults in the same way and with the same texts as to little children. Subsequently English conversation has come to form a large part of the evening's exercises, the aim being to give the pupil a utilitarian vocabulary and practical fluency in speaking English. At first the teaching is oral and objective, and as far as possible the method follows the natural order: to see or to do, to hear, to know, to say, to read, and to write. As soon as the pupil has gained some facility in reading, the subject of civics is taken up in its relation to the immigrant's daily experience in the city. He is first familiarized with the various city activities which naturally come under his observation. The organization and functions of the schools, the hospitals, the departments of street-cleaning, police, fire, and public health are all analyzed and discussed. The immigrant is taught about the right sort of banks and employment agencies, about the usual rates of wages, and he learns about the opportunities and qualifications for entering various callings, and also how he may become a naturalized American citizen. Finally, the school seeks to make him somewhat acquainted with the outstanding events of American history so that he may have an idea of the development of the nation, and a comprehension of the chief forces which have brought about the conditions in which he is to live. (i, o)

(2) Many immigrants are too old to learn a new language, but not too old to take an interest in American institutions. To reach these people, free lecture systems have been instituted in several of the larger cities. The most extensive work of this

kind undertaken by any board of education in the United States is that inaugurated in New York City in 1899. The system, which is under the direction of Dr. H. M. Leipziger, has since 1903 included an annual series of lectures in foreign languages, so that while the younger generation attend the lectures in English, the lessons of American development and civic duty are being brought home to their elders in their own tongue. During the season of 1909-10 no less than 91 lectures were given in Yiddish, Italian, and German, which are the chief foreign languages employed. The lectures are held mainly in public school buildings. (e, i, p)

(3) A third method of reaching adult immigrants is through parents' meetings. These are conducted in the schoolhouses, usually in the evening, by the principals and teachers of the respective schools, and the parents of the children are addressed by school officials, physicians, and other prominent citizens. In sections of the city which are predominantly foreign, speakers are secured to address the parents in their native tongue, the addresses being frequently interspersed with music and recitations by way of entertainment. The school work of the children is placed on exhibition, and the parents are invited to visit the classroom and become acquainted with the teachers, so as to bring about a closer relation between the home and the school. (i)

During the past twenty-five years there have been many private or semi-public agencies coöperating with the public school in the work of educating the incoming foreigners. In Chicago, for example, in 1891-2 the United Hebrew Charities and the Russian Refugee Aid Society expended the sum of \$2,500 for clothing and shoes to enable children from the foreign quarter to attend the schools. (l) About the same time (1891) "The Educational Alliance of the City of New York" was founded for the specific purpose of Americanizing the immigrants residing on the lower East Side. This institution was established just when the great influx of Jewish immigration from Eastern Europe began, and it has since been managed and supported almost entirely by the Jewish people of New York City. Situated in the Ghetto, where the newly-arrived Russian Jews congregated in large numbers, the institution grew and its work developed with great rapidity. By the year 1906

its multiform activities, educational, social, moral, and religious, for men, women, and children, required the use of a large five-story building and two branch buildings throughout the year, with an annual budget of over \$100,000. With more than 400 paid and volunteer teachers and superintendents, it maintained a large and well-equipped reading-room and conducted an evening school of English and civics for adult immigrants, a series of twenty-five lectures in Yiddish on American history, government, customs, and institutions, an English school for immigrant children, classes in cooking for older women, social clubs and classes for younger women, a large gymnasium for both sexes, and various plays and entertainments for all. (i, o) At the present time upwards of 4,000 persons visit the main building of the Alliance every day. It is noteworthy that in throwing open their building for neighborhood purposes, the trustees of this institution anticipated by many years the move which has of late become so pronounced in the utilizing of city public schools as civic centers.

As the social and philanthropic work of the Alliance became heavier, a re-organization of activities was found necessary. Arrangements were made whereby the city Department of Education has taken charge of the Evening School of English and Civics during the school year, and the Alliance maintains it during the summer months. A further re-adjustment was effected four or five years ago, when the English school for immigrant children became a permanent part of the city school system. Some six or seven years ago the Alliance opened a Night Workers' School, with two sessions extending from 9 a. m. to 3 p. m. Early in 1914 this also was taken over and is being continued under the city system.

Another important phase of immigrant education is that carried on in the great labor camps. The Society for Italian Immigrants, which was organized in New York about 1900, has been especially active in this direction. The purpose of the Society at first was to help and protect the Italian landing in America, but the work expanded rapidly until it has come to include the education, as well as the immediate physical care, of the immigrant. Through the efforts of Miss Sarah Wool Moore, the first labor camp school was organized under the auspices of the Society in September, 1905, among the Italian

immigrants at Aspinwall, Pa., where the plant of the Pittsburgh Filtration Company is located. The school was held in the evening, and the subjects taught comprised English speech, reading, writing, and something of arithmetic and geography. Instruction in English was adapted to local conditions in a unique manner: instead of the conventional lessons about things outside the workman's interest, Miss Moore compiled texts and copybooks based on the phraseology which is hourly needed and used by the men, such as, "Get out of the way!" "Be quick!" "Here comes the train!" The new undertaking was actively supported by the officers of the company, and the immigrant response of about one-third of the men in the camp showed that the work met a need of which they were already conscious. There were two notable results of this experiment: (1) The legislature of Pennsylvania, recognizing the educational and social need, passed a bill at its session of 1907, permitting the establishment of schools for "adults, including foreigners, and providing for instruction and employment of teachers for same," whenever an application or petition was made over the names of at least twenty persons of the school district. (2) The Society for Italian Immigrants opened four additional schools at other labor camps in Pennsylvania and New York State. The school at Brown's Station (1908) accommodated negro and foreign children during the day, and men at night. As variations in the night school program, post card scenes of America were displayed in a radiopticon; songs were also introduced, in both Italian and English, with phonograph records. Of the five schools established by the Society, two were later taken over by the State of Pennsylvania, and one by the North American Civic League. (h, r, s, t)

Within the last few years a large number of settlement workers and representatives of religious and philanthropic organizations have entered upon this work of providing educational opportunities for non-English-speaking immigrants. No doubt each coterie of workers makes its own contribution toward the speedier assimilation of the newcomers. Among all these, however, one organization stands out very prominently, namely, the Young Men's Christian Association. As a definite part of its educational work, special classes in English and in civics were opened in 1907. The following table indicates the growth of this work in the United States during the past five years:

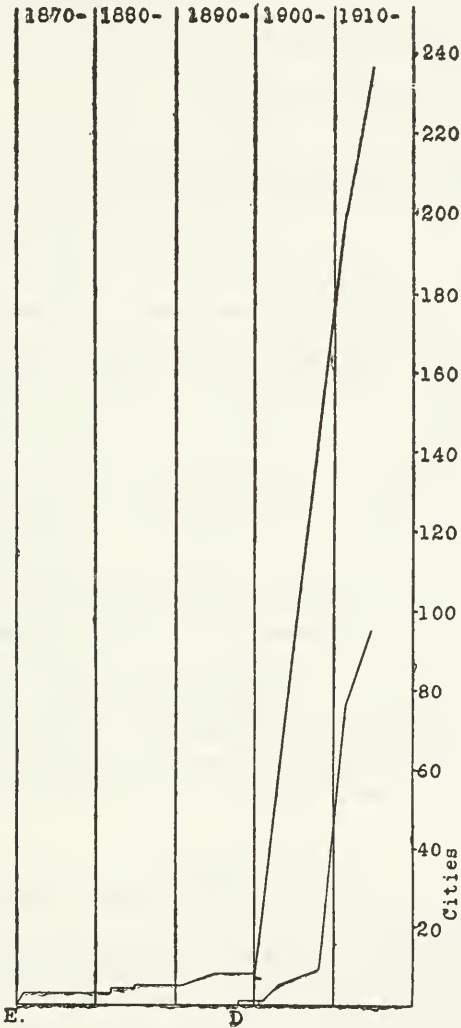
TABLE V. (u)

Year	No. Assoc's	No. Classes	No. Students	No. Teachers
1909-10	156	576	9,018	633
1910-11	234	764	13,514	964
1911-12	210	933	16,402	1,129
1912-13	217	1,051	18,570	1,324
1913-14	237	1,211	25,977	1,659

During the first season of its new endeavor the Association felt itself handicapped through lack of suitable equipment for the teaching of English to adults. The following year (1908), however, Dr. Peter Roberts, of the International Committee, published his series of graded lessons entitled "English for Coming Americans." These constitute a distinct contribution to pedagogical literature and have been widely adopted, not only among teachers of Y. M. C. A. classes, but also by those in charge of adult classes in public schools. The lessons are organized in sets of ten, series A dealing with "Domestic Life," series B on "Work Life," and series C on "Making a Man a Member of the Community." In quite a number of American cities, after the Y. M. C. A. has initiated work among foreigners, the public schools have taken charge and continued the classes.

A comparatively recent and very important phase of immigrant education has been the organization of special classes for the non-English-speaking in the public day schools. Between 1895 and 1900 these children began to attend the public schools in large numbers. At first they drifted in and were assigned to regular classes, but their inability to understand English necessitated a change. At once it was assumed that the place for non-English-speaking pupils was in the lower grades, and as a consequence these grades became hopelessly congested. Eventually it was discovered that many of these children had received considerable instruction in their own country, and that the lack of English was the only barrier to their progress. The problem was finally solved by grouping these pupils in special classes for the sole purpose of training them in the ready understanding and use of the English language. Among the first cities to organize such classes was Worcester, Mass. (1898). Some two years later Denver and Chicago made similar provision, and the movement has steadily won its way, especially in the North

Atlantic and North Central States, where, as we have seen, the foreign population is very large. The following graph (G) shows



GRAPH G. IMMIGRANTS.

The curve rising from E. indicates the number of cities maintaining evening classes for foreigners; the curve rising from D., the number of cities having special day classes in their public schools.

the rapidity with which American cities have undertaken special school adjustments for the benefit of incoming foreigners.

At the close of 1913, 95 cities had organized special day classes for immigrant children, and 237 maintained evening classes for adult foreigners. About 70 cities conducted classes of both kinds. Hence, in the year 1913 there were more than 260 individual cities which made some definite educational provision for non-English-speaking immigrants. (k, l, m, n)

The children in the special classes spend the first five or six months almost exclusively in learning to speak, read, and write English. As soon as they have gained a fair mastery of the language, they are transferred to the grades in which they appropriately belong. (i) The school, in the meantime, has already begun its wonderful socializing work. In the schoolroom the child finds friends and playmates belonging to races quite different from his own. "There Greek not only meets Greek, but Turk, American, Irish, German, French, English, Italian, Hungarian, and representatives of every other nation under the sun. . . . In the schoolroom Jew and Gentile work and play together; and black and white learn love and knowledge side by side. These indirect but constant influences are undeniably strongest, but the child is also taught in history of the heroism of men and nations not his own." He learns with some consternation that Christopher Columbus was an Italian, George Washington an officer in the English army, and Christ, our Lord, a Jew. Geography, as now taught with copious illustrations and description, shows undreamed-of beauties in countries hitherto despised. And gradually as the pupils move on from class to class they become imbued with the spirit of true democracy, and man's brotherhood to man. (v)

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CHAPTER IX

OPEN-AIR SCHOOLS

Within the last decade the public have come to see the necessity of making some provision for delicate children, who attend school only between the intervals of illness or, if not actually compelled to be away from school, are incapable of the exertion, either mental or physical, necessary to keep up with their comrades. As a rule, sickly children are retarded, not on account of defective intelligence, but rather from impaired vitality arising from a variety of causes, such as underfeeding, organic weakness, or incipient disease. (a)

For some time numerous open-air sanatoria for consumptives have been in operation, and medical inspection in schools has been widely adopted. Under the latter system health records of the children are kept. At the Fourth International Congress on School Hygiene, held at Buffalo in August, 1913, it was stated that "Nearly a million tuberculous children or children strongly disposed to tuberculosis are attending our public schools, and there is hardly accommodation for 1,500 to receive instruction in the open air." In other words, about 5½ per cent. of the entire common school population¹ should have outdoor treatment. The open-air school has arisen in response to this need, its aim being both to teach and to cure the debilitated child. It is a combination of sanatorium, playground, and schoolroom.

The first school of this kind was established in 1904 as the "Open-Air Recovery School" in a pine forest near Charlottenburg, the largest suburb of Berlin. It was comprised of children who were physically unfit and unable to keep up with their regular school work, and yet they were not so deficient mentally as to warrant their being treated as feeble-minded. The results in this school were so favorable that the movement spread through Germany and to other countries, reaching London in 1907.

¹ The United States Commissioner of Education in his report for 1913, 11, p. 9, places the common school enrollment for the year 1912 at 18,182,937.

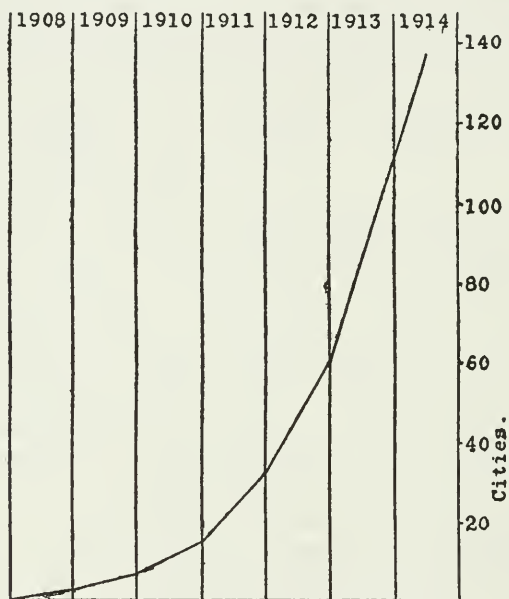
The honor and credit of introducing the open-air school into America must be shared by the cities of New York and Providence. In the year 1904 the Board of Education of New York City loaned the services of one of its teachers and furnished school supplies to the Sea Breeze Outdoor Hospital for tuberculous children. (e) The first open-air school proper in the United States was established in Providence in January, 1908. Unlike many such radical educational departures, this venture served no apprenticeship as a private philanthropy, but had at the outset the active support and coöperation of the Board of Education, although the carrying out of the undertaking was primarily due to the efforts of the Society for the Prevention of Tuberculosis. (f) Six months later an outdoor school for tuberculous children was opened in a city park of Boston. In the following December a new school was opened in New York City on the abandoned ferryboat "Southfield." An interesting feature of this first New York school is that it was opened on the petition of the children themselves, who were convalescent patients from one of the hospitals and were being given open-air treatment. (g) Since then similar schools have been established in many American cities, including Pittsburgh (1909), Chicago (1909), Rochester (1909), Cambridge (1910), Hartford (1910), and Albany (1911). The rapidity with which the movement has spread in this country is indicated by graph H, which shows the total number of cities organizing open-air schools since the opening of the first one in Providence.

These figures are even more significant when we recall that New York City is one of the three noted in 1908. Likewise it counts as just *one* of the 137 in the year 1913-14; yet in the latter year it had a total of more than 160 open-air classes.

The graph takes no account of the numerous private schools throughout the United States, which have established open-air classes, among these being: the Horace Mann Elementary School, Teachers College, New York City (1911); Bryn Mawr Preparatory School, Baltimore (1911-12); Mrs. Beckwith's Outdoor School, New Rochelle, N. Y. (1912); the Phœbe Anna Thorne School, Bryn Mawr, Pa. (1913); and the Park School, Baltimore (1914). (i)

Each open-air school is really a single class, and these classes are of three types: (1) for children with pulmonary tuberculosis

(those with bone and joint tuberculosis being cared for in schools for cripples); (2) the "anemic" classes for children who, through malnutrition or other causes, are physically subnormal or likely to contract tuberculosis through exposure; (3) the open-window classes for normal children. In connection with the first two types, the school provides not only fresh air, but also nourishing food, enforced rest, warm clothing, individual teaching, sympathetic care, and medical attention which corrects such physical defects as eye-strain, adenoids, decayed teeth,



GRAPH H. OPEN-AIR SCHOOLS.

The curve indicates the increasing number of cities maintaining open-air classes.

and anemia. The third type is an outgrowth of the other two, and it is another instance in which normal children have profited by educational experiments found beneficial in the treatment of defectives. Open-window classes have multiplied very rapidly. For example, in September, 1909, Chicago had two open-window rooms for normal pupils; by the following June they numbered seven, and during the next school year they increased to twenty. For the year 1913-14 New York City reports 91 of these classes. Other large centers are recognizing the advantages of the inno-

vation and are rapidly adopting it. A few cities, like Boston, are providing open-window rooms in each new school erected. The chief variations from regular class procedure are the special provisions for a constant supply of fresh air, for more physical exercise, and, in many cases, for nutritious lunches, the cost of which is met by the pupils themselves.

The strictly open-air school is administered, as a rule, by a partnership of responsibility. The Board of Education usually provides the teacher and the school premises and meets the cost of the teacher's salary and the school equipment, while the expenses for transportation, nurse, medical attendance, food, and clothing are defrayed by hospitals, charitable organizations, and societies for the cure and prevention of tuberculosis.

As to provision of special quarters for the classes, no uniform method has so far been followed, the tendency being to utilize old buildings, tents, roofs, balconies, and ferryboats, rather than to erect specially planned buildings. In Providence the side of an old brick schoolhouse was torn out to form the classroom. Boston at first used a tent, and later the roof of a park refectory, whereas New York City makes use of abandoned ferryboats to accommodate four of her schools. In addition to the classroom, a kitchen, dressing rooms, and, quite frequently, bath facilities are provided. The equipment ordinarily furnished for each pupil includes an Eskimo suit, double wool blanket, sleeping-bag, canvas cot or steamer chair, felt shoes, mittens, soap-stones for feet-warming, towels, toothbrush, and thermometer.

The double duty of looking after the children's health as well as their studies necessitates limiting the size of the classes, and the number ranges from 15 to 25. In this way each child receives much individual attention. The time devoted to school work is usually from three to three and a half hours per day. The branches studied are the same as in indoor classes. There is more frequent change, however, from one subject to another and from work to play. Sketching, paper-cutting, painting, or manual work occupies part of the time. Daily programs differ in detail in various localities, but the following time-table of a Boston school may be regarded as typical:

TIME	SUBJECT	GRADES
9 - 9.10	Opening Exercises	All
9:10- 9.20	Personal Hygiene	"
	Medical Inspection	"
	Hygiene and Physical Teaching	"
9.20-10	Arithmetic and History (alternate days)	"
10. -10.10	Music	"
10.10-10.30	Luncheon	"
10.30-10.50	Recess	"
10.50-11.15	Elementary Science, Manual Training, or Household Science	"
11.15-11.30	Spoken English	"
	Reading and Literature	"
11.30-11.40	Physical Training	"
11.40-12	Written English	"
12. - 1.30	Home	"
1.30- 1.50	Rest, Relaxation, and Story-telling	I, II, III
	Sight Arithmetic	IV, V
1.50- 2	Physical Training	All
2 - 2.30	Drawing	"
2.30- 3.30	Free play—Recess	I, II, III
2.30- 3	Geography	IV, V
3 - 3.10	Physical Training	"
3.10- 3.30	Oral Arithmetic, alternate days with Manual Training	"

Reports from open-air schools show that the children invariably gain in weight and healthy appearance just as at the seashore or in the country. They learn well in their classes, are free from colds and enjoy the school life. With the encouragement of interested teachers and individual attention the pupils are apparently able to handle the grade work without any difficulty, and some are reported to have caught up in back work in spite of the curtailment of time.

In his "Open-Air Crusaders" Sherman C. Kingsley gives the following interesting description of the work in Chicago: "Of the thirty children chosen for the experiment, seventeen were first-stage cases of tuberculosis, two had tubercular glands, and eleven were pronounced pre-tuberculous. Sixteen had been and ten were still directly exposed to tuberculosis in their homes, while in the case of the other fourteen there was no evidence of direct exposure. None had passed to the 'open,' infectious stage, all such cases being excluded, but two-thirds of them showed a temperature ranging from 99 to 100.2. On discharge, only two showed a temperature above 99, while the rest were

practically normal. The total gain in weight for the thirty children was 113 pounds, the range being from 1 to 7 pounds. . . . The average gain was 3.8 pounds."

In the Horace Mann School, Teachers College, New York City, a comparison made between indoor and outdoor classes of the second, third, and fourth grades showed: (1) on the whole, greater physical growth and vigor; (2) a greater gain as to maturity and general intelligence as measured by psychological tests; and (3) a greater degree of improvement in the regular school subjects, among the outdoor pupils. During the year a record of contagious diseases was kept which indicated that 17.9 per cent. of indoor pupils had such ailments as compared with 12.5 per cent. of the outdoor children. Another significant point is that no contagious disease "went through" an outdoor class as happened in one of the indoor rooms. (o)

In Newark, N. J., the open-air work is carried on in two kinds of classes, the pavilion type for the tuberculous and the open-window for anemic, frail, and underweight children. During the two academic years, September, 1911, to July, 1913, the following results were observed: (n)

	PAVILION	OPEN-WINDOW
Disease in the lungs arrested	61.0%	—
Cured	60.0%	62.5%
Improved	39.5%	32.3%
Not improved5%	5.2%
Average gain in weight	8.25 lbs.	3.47 lbs.
Average gain in hemoglobin	7.5%	11.15%
Received treatment for physical defects	57.5%	72.75%
Transferred back to their regular classes in other public schools	33.7%	73.5%

In Philadelphia, where the open-window class was inaugurated in September, 1912, results have proved most gratifying. The physical gains in the open-window classes were twice as much in the average, pound for pound, as in the indoor classes. In mental tests the open-air children showed emphatically the greater advancement. (p)

There seems to be little question that the open-air school is the most effective agency yet devised for enabling weak and anemic children to continue their schooling and at the same time increase in health and vigor. The fresh air classes are

beneficial not only in themselves, but also in their influence on the whole question of better ventilation of school buildings. Pointing unerringly as they do to the causes of anemia and tuberculosis, they are hastening the movement for the permanent improvement of social conditions.

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CHAPTER X

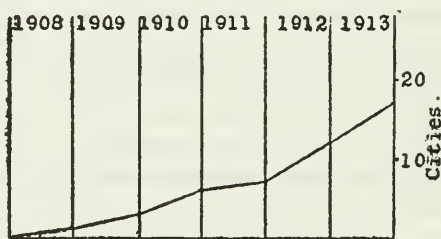
PROVISIONS FOR SPEECH DEFECTIVES

Many statistical investigations demonstrate that hundreds of thousands of children are suffering from speech defects, although in almost all cases these troubles are curable. The corrective education of the speech defective constitutes a special problem somewhat similar to that of other defectives for whom all progressive communities now seek to make provision. The theory that stutters are mentally weak has not been proved. (a: 361) In the organization of ordinary school courses it is assumed that pupils learn to talk before entering school. Hence, defective speech almost invariably results in retardation. The effect, moreover, is cumulative: the longer the defective is neglected the more serious is his disadvantage. In the meantime, such a pupil is a menace to other children, for conscious or unconscious mimicry will breed a habit which rapidly becomes a disability. The youth who stutters badly is really a species of cripple not only in school, but also in social and business life, and the prevalence of such defects is much greater than is commonly supposed. Dr. Gutzmann, of Berlin, who has been engaged in speech clinical work since 1891, maintains that in German cities stutters comprise from one to two per cent. of the school population. (b) In the public schools of Boston, according to the best available statistics in 1900, there were 500 pupils, or 7 in 1,000, who spoke with difficulty. (c) In 1904 Conradi made a study of 87,440 school children in six American cities, and as a result reached the conclusion that there were about 430,000 speech defectives in the public schools of the United States. (a) Dr. Scripture, the American specialist, estimates that in New York City there are no less than 25,000 persons needing corrective training in speech. (d)

The first European school devoted to speech improvement was established in the city of Potsdam, Germany, about the year 1887. Since the beginning of Dr. Gutzmann's investiga-

tions in the early '90's Germany has taken up this work more thoroughly and has realized greater progress than any other nation, but the social significance of speech defects has become clearly recognized in many other countries. On this side of the Atlantic the first institutions were private. In fact, as early as 1874 there appears to have been founded in New York City the American Vocal Institute, for the treatment of stuttering and other speech disorders. An outgrowth of this institute is the Bryant School for Stammerers, a private day school, opened in 1888. (e) Within the last few years a number of American cities have provided special public school classes for speech correction. In the state of Wisconsin, by the terms of a new law which took effect during the academic year 1913-14, speech defectives are admitted for training in public school classes for the deaf. (f)

The general growth of the movement in this country is shown in Graph I:



GRAPH I. SPEECH DEFECTIVES.

The curve indicates the increasing number of cities providing special classes for speech defectives.

From the educational standpoint, speech correction consists in substituting right habits for wrong ones. Instruction in classes is generally regarded as preferable to individual instruction, both for economic reasons and for the sake of the mutual aid and confidence which group work affords. Of the several methods of organization which have been developed, three are prominent in the United States:

(1) *The boarding school.* This furnishes an entirely new environment, thus pre-disposing the pupil to the formation of new habits. Such institutions are commonly maintained and conducted as private or semi-public undertakings, and are fairly

represented by such schools as the Bogue Institute for Stammerers, established at Indianapolis in 1901, and the Northwestern School for Stammerers at Milwaukee in 1904. (n)

(2) *The special-teacher plan.* Unassigned teachers and cadets are employed to give special instruction to these defectives for the purpose of helping them to gain control of their speech organs. To each special teacher there is allotted a given number of schools so grouped that about forty pupils come under her charge. The teacher visits each of her schools two or three times a week, according to the number and seriousness of the cases. Special instruction is given in a separate room, the aim being to meet the pupils' individual needs. The exercises include practice in breath control, speech gymnastics, relaxation, slow articulation, and rhythmic utterance. Through the coöperation of the special teacher with the school physician, the school nurse, and the room teacher, a careful record is kept of the more serious cases, and each special teacher makes a monthly report to the city superintendent. (h) This plan, which was introduced into the Chicago schools in January, 1910, was determined upon by Superintendent Young as the result of a report, made at her request, by the principals of the elementary schools. This report was to the effect that in the 260 grammar schools there were 1,287 children with speech disorders, the majority of them being in the primary grades. The maximum number was found in the fourth grade, above which there was a steady decrease until, in the eighth grade, only 72 cases were reported. Judging that the decrease was due to the defectives becoming discouraged and leaving school and not outgrowing or overcoming the difficulty, the Superintendent concluded that intelligent, corrective measures, if taken in the primary grades, would prolong the school life of many pupils and enable them to lay a broader and surer foundation for good citizenship. (i)

(3) *The New York plan.* A certain school is designated as a center for speech correction, and to this center a special teacher is assigned to conduct classes known as speech improvement classes. Applicants for membership in these classes are registered in the school and are properly graded, but the defectives are not called upon to recite until the class teacher is notified by the special teacher to whom these pupils report twice a day. The corrective training includes special respiratory and other

exercises, coupled with a careful drill on syllables. In this drill the pupil makes use of a mirror to observe the movements of the lips. This plan was inaugurated in the year 1908-09 by Principal J. F. Reigart in School No. 2, New York City, on his own initiative. His school became the first center for speech correction. Regarding the work done Superintendent Maxwell, in his report for the year 1908-09, says: "Mr. Reigart selected to teach the class a young teacher who had never had more than the usual normal training. With a little study she fitted herself to deal with defects of speech. The result of her training will bear favorable comparison with similar efforts at home or abroad. The experiment . . . demonstrates that the attempt to cure serious speech defects, which interfere with success and satisfaction in life, is possible and well worth while." During the present year (1914-15) speech improvement classes are in operation at no less than six centers in the city, and the method is proving quite effective, even with the most stubborn cases.

The social import of this movement has been well brought out by Henry James in an address to a college graduating class: "All life comes back to the question of our speech, the medium through which we communicate with each other; for all life comes back to the question of our relations with each other. These relations are made possible and are successful in proportion as our speech is worthy of its great human and social function—is developed, delicate, flexible, rich—an adequate and accomplished fact."

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CHAPTER XI

PROVISIONS FOR THE EXCEPTIONALLY GIFTED

If there is any one type of child whom educators have neglected more than any other, it is the child of exceptional talents. As a result of his study of the reasoning ability of children of the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades, Dr. Bonser states that "perhaps the worst type of retardation in the schools is the withholding appropriate promotion from those pupils who are the most gifted, therefore of the most significance as social capital." (a: 91) This neglect is probably due in a measure to the assumption that gifted children are not nearly so numerous as those who are retarded, and to the fact that they do not encumber the machinery of the schools as do the retarded pupils. With regard to the number of bright children, recent investigations seem to indicate that they are considerably more numerous than has been supposed. For example, in his investigation of the progress of children through the grades, Dr. Keyes reached the conclusion that from one-quarter to one-third of all pupils above the first grade have the capacity, under favorable conditions, to gain from one year in seven to two years in nine of the traditional city school course and still retain a high rank in their classes. (b: 58)

Dr. William Stern, the German authority, has pointed out that exceptionally talented children are divided into two groups—the specifically and the universally gifted. "In the first group some specific phase of mentality is especially strongly developed, while the other phases need not exceed, and sometimes may even fall short of, the normal level. These specific phases make up what we recognize as conspicuous talent or endowment. To this group belongs the exceptionally musical child, the artistically, the mathematically, the linguistically gifted child. In the other group the supernormality embraces the entire mentality; not indeed in such a way that every phase is uniformly developed, but at least in such a way that a gen-

eral superiority is manifested in the most diverse types of mental activity. Those who belong to this group are the great intellects." . . . "Any exceptional talent, potential genius, or superior intelligence that remains undeveloped is a loss, not merely for the individuals themselves, but also for the progress of the nation and of humanity." (c: 145)

For many years the schools have sought to rigidly classify children and to maintain perfect uniformity in the progress of these classes through the grades, quite regardless of individual differences among the pupils. The evils of such a policy were eventually recognized from the standpoint of the backward child, but it is only within the last few years that the talented pupil has begun to receive anything like due consideration. From a sociological viewpoint we are in need of a pedagogy of the gifted or supernormal as a counterbalance to the now flourishing pedagogy of the defective or subnormal. Social psychology, however, suggests a cause for this delayed attention. Human sympathy goes out to the unfortunate. As long as a child keeps up with companions of his own age his parents are content, but the moment he begins to lag they are stirred to action and possibly to vigorous denunciation of the teacher and the school system. On the other hand, if a pupil outstrips his class, although commended by his elders, he often, through envy, is treated as a social outcast by his schoolmates. (d) Occasionally even his parents wonder if the child's rapid advancement is not partially due to favoritism. Only rarely does any one recognize that gifted children are really the incipient geniuses of society, whose native rights entitle them to such conditions as will permit them to rise from the dead level of mediocrity.

Probably the most time-honored and persistent expedient for teachers in dealing with talented or precocious children is to permit them to "skip" classes. This turns out to be primarily a method of relief for the teacher and only incidentally a time-saver for the child. It is based on the supposition that such pupils "usually need merely to be put in advanced classes and kept busy." Such a doctrine does not get us very far. It is lacking in constructive detail. A person cannot but wonder how far the talented student would overshoot our somewhat indefinite mental circumscriptions if he were accorded his

proper share of the teacher's time, attention, and pedagogical guidance.

In a recent report of the United States Bureau of Education (e) the tables indicate that while there were 222 cities in 1911 which reported special provisions for delinquent and backward children, only 54 cities made any provision for bright pupils, and of these only five definitely reported special classes for them. The probability is that in each of the other 49 cities the "special provisions" consisted of devices to secure flexibility in graduation and promotion.

There are at least a score of well-recognized plans for the flexible grading of school children, and out of these has finally evolved the special class for "supernormal" or gifted pupils. Such plans may be divided into two distinct groups: first, those which seek to secure, as far as possible, the uniform progress of all pupils through the grades; second, those which aim at permitting individual pupils to spend differing lengths of time in the grades. Plans of the first group involve either (1) the giving of individual instruction to the dull children so that they may keep up, or (2) the providing of supplementary work for the bright pupils of each grade. The former type is exemplified in the Batavia plan, which has already been described in the chapter (VI) on provisions for the feeble-minded and retarded. The latter variety is represented by a plan introduced into the northside schools of Denver, Colo., about 1895-6 by Superintendent J. H. Van Sickle. In this the object is to provide an opportunity for the brighter children to do more extensive, more intensive, and more individual work than the other members of the class. The extra work is done in free periods, and home-work is minimized. There is a certain minimum in each study for which all students are held responsible. While the weaker pupils are utilizing all the assigned time on a given subject, the more proficient are at liberty to follow out some special, approved topic of personal interest. Thus the tendency is to even up the pupil in the various branches, since making pleasant excursions in favorite studies is conditioned upon fair attainment in all studies. Promotions are made at the end of each half-year. The plan is not, however, a rapid transit device. Although it allows students to demonstrate their fitness for special promotion and to push ahead as rapidly

as their capacities will permit, the chief aim is to stimulate them to gain self-mastery, to depend less upon the teachers, to think for themselves, to spend their time profitably, to enrich their knowledge, and to be socially useful. (e, f, g)

Plans of the second group are based on the idea of permitting pupils of differing abilities to gain promotion in differing lengths of time. Some of the most important of these are: (1) the St. Louis plan, (2) the Elizabeth (or Shearer) plan, (3) the Pueblo plan, (4) the Cambridge plan, (5) the Le Mars-Cambridge modification, (6) the Woburn "Double Tillage" system, (7) the Group system, (8) the Portland-Cambridge modification, (9) the Santa Barbara (or Concentric) plan, and (10) the Newton, Mass., plan.

Just here it should be stated that the writer assumes no responsibility as to the efficiency of any of these methods. He is simply citing the theory, and in some cases the results, as claimed by the initiators of the various systems.

(1) The St. Louis, or short interval, plan is apparently the parent of all plans of flexible grading in this country. It was introduced into the St. Louis schools by the late Dr. W. T. Harris very soon after he became superintendent in 1868. It provided for the promotion of pupils, in the lowest grades at least, every five or six weeks. It is important to remember that this plan was devised by Dr. Harris as a means of filling up the higher grades which were continually being depleted by the withdrawal of pupils. The plan was primarily for the benefit of the bright pupils. (g)

(2) The Elizabeth plan was devised and developed about 1888 by Mr. W. J. Shearer, superintendent of public schools in Elizabeth, N. J. It bears a strong resemblance to the St. Louis plan. Each of the eight grades is divided into three or four sections according to the abilities of the pupils. Each section is permitted to do as much work and to advance as rapidly as it is able. As soon as a pupil shows that he can handle the work of an advanced section he is promoted without the formality of an examination. As is evident, the plan is essentially a device for the rapid advancement of the more talented pupils. (f, g)

(3) Under the Pueblo plan, which has already been dealt with in Chapter VI, the chief aim is to care for the so-called backward pupils.

(4) The plan used in the schools of Cambridge, Mass., and frequently designated as the "double track" plan, is probably the best known of all these systems. There are two forms of the Cambridge plan—the old and the new. The old plan was established about 1891 and affected only the last six years of the nine-year course. Special teachers were appointed to help such pupils as seemed able to do the work in less than six years, and to aid those who without personal assistance would require more than six years. The course of study, moreover, was divided in two ways: (1) into six sections; (2) into four sections; each section covering a year's work. Pupils taking the course in six years were classified in six grades, called the fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, eighth, and ninth grades; those taking it in four years were classified in four grades, called grades A, B, C, and D. When pupils were promoted to the grammar schools they began the first year's work together. After two or three months they were separated into the two divisions. One division advanced more rapidly than the other, and during the year completed one-fourth of the whole course of study. The other division completed one-sixth of the course. There were also two ways of covering the course in five years without any omissions or repetitions: (1) a pupil who had completed half the course in two years might be transferred to the seventh grade and finish the course in three years; (2) a pupil who had completed half the course in three years might be transferred to grade C and finish the course in two years.

The old plan was in regular operation in Cambridge upwards of seventeen years. During this time 10,203 pupils graduated from the grammar schools. Of this number 7 per cent. completed the course in four years, 28 per cent. in five years, 50 per cent. in six years, and 15 per cent. in seven or more years. (h)

The new plan was inaugurated in the fall of 1910. Its basal course (A) covers a period of eight years, the work of each year except the last being divided into three grades, or twenty-three grades in all, each grade covering the work of about three months. There is a parallel or supplementary course (B), covering the same subject-matter in six years. In this there are seventeen grades, the work assigned to each grade being one-third more than to each grade of the basal course. That

is, pupils in the basal course are required to do only two-thirds as much work in a given time as those in the supplementary course. In each course there are three promotions a year, except the last. This modification in the last year is due to the fact that pupils are admitted to the high schools only twice a year, and that the last five months in the grammar schools are devoted largely to a thorough review of the essentials of the elementary school subjects. If a pupil fails to do the work of his grade satisfactorily, he is required to repeat for only three months, at the end of which time he has another chance of promotion. If he is in the supplementary course and fails to keep up, he may be transferred to the basal course with a maximum loss of only two months, or if in the basal course and able to do more work than is required of him there, he may be transferred to the supplementary course at any time, with a maximum repetition of two months' work. Thus it is possible by passing from one course to the other to vary the rate of progress to meet a great variety of needs, and to do it without omitting any subject and without loss of time. The shortness of grades and the frequency of promotions greatly improve attendance and stimulate effort. The period of review for those who fail to be promoted is not long enough to dishearten the pupils or drive them out of school, for in three months there is always another chance. (h)

(5) Previous to the appearance of the new Cambridge plan, an extension of the old system was adopted in the schools of Le Mars and Odebolt, Ia. It involves the nine grades, one course of study requiring six years, and the other nine. These parallel courses are so arranged as to come together at different points, thus permitting a transfer of pupils in either direction. The short course (six years) is divided into three two-year cycles, while the long course (nine years) is comprised of three three-year cycles. The end of each cycle furnishes a transfer point. Thus, besides the two regular courses there are three seven-year combinations and three eight-year combinations. The course is pliant at all points, and opportunities for re-classification are frequent; a student can complete the nine grades in six, seven, eight, or nine years, according to his capacity. (f, g)

(6) In Woburn, Mass., what has been termed the "Double Tillage," or double promotion, system was in operation from

1894 to 1903. Under this plan the work of the year for each grade was covered in the first twenty weeks, and then covered again in greater detail during the second half-year, thus permitting bright pupils to be promoted at the mid-year and making it possible for them to do two years' work in one. During the nine years that the plan was employed 1,252 pupils received mid-year promotions, and of this number 938 obtained a second promotion in June. The increased subject-matter of the curriculum in the later years made it very difficult to cover a year's work in a half-year, and consequently, as the number of extra promotions had become relatively small, the plan was discontinued, except in the first and second grades. (i)

(7) The Group system, or large-school plan, has been in use in New York, Chicago, and other cities for about twenty years. The large number of pupils makes it possible to have three or more classes of each grade, the bright students being grouped in one class, the medium in other classes, and the slow pupils in still others. There are two methods of working this out: (1) through the constant group; (2) through the shifting group. Under (1), the constant group method, the personnel of a class remains the same for a definite period, and promotions from group to group occur only at stated times. This method necessitates divisions in nearly all subjects, and students in the most advanced groups may pass to a higher grade, although they may not be equally well prepared in all subjects. Under (2), the shifting group method, the teacher may have as many groups in as many subjects as may seem best. Promotions may take place at any time. The aim is to stimulate the gifted pupil to do careful and thorough work while the slow pupil is being brought up to the grade standard. On the other hand, the primary aim of the constant group is to advance the bright pupil as rapidly as possible. (e, g)

(8) In the schools of Portland, Ore., since 1897 a modification of the Cambridge plan has been in use, whereby the course of study is divided into fifty-four parts covering a period of eighteen terms of five months each. Promotions take place regularly at the end of each term, an important feature of this system being promotion by subjects instead of by "averages." Three terms (or one and a half years) constitute what for convenience is called a cycle. At the beginning of each cycle any

group of pupils who have reached the same point in the course of study is separated into a first and second division. Classes are permitted to progress at whatever rate is found suitable to their powers, but the two standard rates are three parts per term for second divisions, and four parts per term for first divisions. At the end of the third term the first divisions will have advanced twelve parts and the second divisions only nine. In other words, each first division has overtaken the second division next above it. In the new cycle these two divisions are united and again divided. In this redivision some of the pupils who did first-division work during the preceding cycle are put into a second division, and some who did second-division work are put into a first division. In large schools the interval between some of the classes is often only two parts of the course, and therefore the second divisions are overtaken in two terms. On the other hand, in smaller schools the class interval is sometimes four parts of the course, and the cycle is extended to four terms. At the close of each term, and occasionally during the course of a term, some overtaking and redividing occurs. (j)

(9) The Santa Barbara plan originated in a trial of the flexible promotion method made in the schools of that city in the year 1898-99. According to this plan the children in the different grades are divided into three groups so that each grade has A, B, and C sections. "The sections do the work of the grade concentrically. The B section covers the work of the C section, but works more intensively; the A section makes still more ramifications in a subject than the B section. . . . When a group in A section is ready for the next grade, it is transferred to the C section of that grade, this occurring perhaps three times a year; the other groups, if ready, slipping up in the same grade from the C to the B section, and from the B to the A section, under the same teacher, and doing the further work of the grade in a more intensive manner. Besides the group promotions from section to section, the concentric system admits of individual promotions at any mature time. The child, judged at the teacher's discretion to be capable of faster work, is immediately transferred to the next higher section, where he finds, not a bewildering field of entirely new ground, but one of which he already knows the compass points and the main highways. With this basis he can easily with industry enter upon

the more detailed work of that section, which his slower companions, not yet mature enough for the advanced work, cannot do. He will not in this way 'skip' a section, but will merely be placed in a class where he can attack the same subject in a more comprehensive way." (k)

(10) In the schools of Newton, Mass., under the superintendency (1904-14) of Dr. F. E. Spaulding, the elementary course of study has been arranged in eight grades, each offering work sufficient, on the average, for about one year. Grade lines, however, serve chiefly to locate pupils and teachers as to the work they are doing at a given time, and are permitted to form no barrier to the pupils' advancement. Unassigned teachers are employed, whose work consists in supplementing the regular class instruction. Such a teacher may be visited in her special room by a single pupil or by a group varying from two or three to twenty. Sometimes she assists accelerates who are seeking to gain a grade, but more frequently she is called upon to help retardates. When the work of a grade is completed, whether by a single pupil, a group, or a class, the work of the next grade is taken up at once, quite irrespective of the time of year. This principle of advancement applies to single subjects as well as to the curriculum as a whole; that is, pupils, either singly or in groups, are advanced more rapidly in some subjects than in others whenever such advancement seems advantageous. This system is in striking contrast with the Pueblo plan in that the individual is assisted and works alone only until he can be classified with some group. (g, l)

Within the last decade a few cities of this country have developed a distinct type of vacation school which offers systematic class work in the regular course of study both for accelerates and for retardates. In Chapter VI we have already mentioned this type of school as meeting the needs of retardates, but the provision for gifted pupils in them seems to be of later development and therefore less general. The Summer Academic School at Cincinnati (1908), the Vacation School at Lincoln, Neb. (1909), the Vacation Review Schools of St. Louis (1911), and the Summer Vacation School at Worcester, Mass. (1911), are typical examples. In Cincinnati pupils are received from all grades above the third, including the high school. The aim is not only to help retarded pupils to gain promotion, but also to enable

superior pupils by an intensive study of the minimum requirements, to "skip a grade" and enter school in September a year in advance of where they would otherwise be. The elementary pupils are limited to two subjects, and high school students to one. During the season of 1913, 829 elementary pupils were in attendance. Of this number 100, from grades four to eight, attempted to skip a grade, and 88 succeeded. (o)

Each of the systems of gradation and promotion which we have examined makes special provision for talented children in at least one of three ways: (1) they are permitted to do more work than the ordinary pupils; (2) they may do different work from them; (3) they may do the same work in less time. Nearly all American cities, both large and small, have adopted some form of flexible grading. In many instances selective combinations have been made from several plans in an effort to meet local needs. A close approximation to the separate class has gradually and unobtrusively developed within a number of these systems. For example, in the year 1900 Rapid Advancement classes were organized in one of the New York City public schools. (p) These concerned themselves exclusively with bright pupils. This arrangement still obtains, and principals of individual schools may, at their discretion, group accelerates in special classes which are allowed to do three terms' work in two; that is, the work of one and a half years in one year. The report for the year ending July, 1907, shows an enrollment of 13,769 pupils in these classes, or 2 per cent. of the total enrollment of the elementary grades. The statistics for 1908 show a similar proportion. (s: 19) In September, 1914, there were 125 Rapid Advancement classes in New York City. (p)

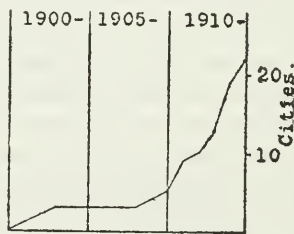
It is not too much to say, however, that none of these plans has been productive of generally satisfactory results. In the special school idea the key to the situation seems to have been found, and it is probably that to Worcester, Mass., belongs the credit of establishing the first schools in the United States definitely and avowedly for the benefit of unusually bright children.

In September, 1901, so-called "preparatory schools" were opened in Worcester to help the capable child of the upper grades. The pupils are selected from the different schools of the city and gathered at convenient centers under teachers of more than ordinary ability. In addition to continuing the regular grade

work these children begin several high school subjects. At first pupils from grades seven, eight, and nine were admitted, but the seventh was subsequently discontinued. At the beginning Latin, French, German, and algebra constituted the extra branches, but later it was found advisable to substitute English for algebra. After two years' work in the preparatory schools the pupils enter the high schools with a full year's credit in Latin, French or German, and English, and without having neglected any of the regular grade subjects. (q)

In Baltimore, since the fall of 1902, pupils who have done excellent work in the sixth grade are allowed to take up extra studies of high school grade, while doing the regular work of the seventh and eight elementary grades. The branches usually chosen are advanced English, German, Latin, or, in a few cases, mathematics. These pupils are transferred to a convenient center, where enough pupils may be assembled to allow the instruction to be organized on the departmental plan. The classes are known as high school preparatory classes. From 1906 to 1910 there were 236 preparatory school pupils graduated from high school. Of these, 41 were in high school proper only two years, 120 three years, and 75 four years. Although the last group did not save any time in the high school, they graduated with an average of 174 credits, whereas the number required for graduation was only 150. (r)

So satisfactory has this form of organization proved that similar methods have been introduced in other progressive localities. The following graph (J) indicates the number of cities which provide some variety of special schools or classes for gifted pupils:



GRAPH J. GIFTED.

The curve traces the increasing number of cities maintaining special schools or classes for the exceptionally gifted.

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CHAPTER XII

CONCLUSION

It is a common assumption that the American public school system is, relatively speaking, an institution which takes little account of group and individual variations in the social population. The general aim of this investigation has been to examine this notion in terms of fact. Because the range of human variation which the school may take into account is too wide for a single study, the present inquiry has been restricted. It has merely determined how far the school system of the nation has responded to the special needs of groups of non-typical pupils, above and below normal. Only those responses which have resulted in the organization of special classes or schools have been taken into account. Hence, the study traces adjustments made to such groups as the exceptionally gifted, the deaf, the blind, the crippled, the anemic, the feeble-minded, the delinquent, the speech defective, the dependent, and the non-English-speaking immigrants. Adjustments to age, sex, and race have been omitted, as these are not primarily accommodations to conditions above or below normality.

It is clear that the school system has for the past century been growing increasingly sensitive to the needs of special population groups. The accompanying graph (K) portrays the general field of our investigation and indicates the approximate time at which provision was first instituted for each group of variates. It indicates a perceptible tendency for school organization to make an increasing number of such adjustments. The growth, on the whole, has been constant but gradual. Of the ten types included in this study only two were afforded school advantages in the decade of 1810. Twenty years later four were represented; in the period of 1850, five; in that of 1870, eight, with no increase until the decade of 1900, when provisions were made for the remaining two.

	1727 to 1809	1810-1820-	1830-	1840-	1850-	1860-	1870-	1880-	1890-	1900-	1910-
Deaf		Private Public				Cities (having day classes)					
Juvenile Delinquent		Private Public				Cities (having day classes)					
Blind		Private	State					Cities (day classes)			
Dependent and Neglected Children				State							
Feeble-Minded, Re- tarded and Epileptic			Private Public					Cities (day classes)			
Cripples				Private Instn's			Private Day Schools Public Instn's				
Non-English-speaking Immigrants						Cities having sv'g classes	Cities with Day classes				
Open-Air Schools									Cities		
Speech Defectives						Private			Cities		
Exceptionally Gifted									Cities		

GRAPH K. A QUALITATIVE CONSPECTUS BY DECADES.

Of the ten sets of special accommodations made, nine have dealt with subnormal groups or classes and only one has been concerned with the claims of those above average. This is due to a series of influences: (1) Sympathy operates more immediately in the case of the unfortunate. Thus, special classes and schools for the deaf, juvenile delinquent, the blind, and the orphaned were among the first established; whereas the less marked cases of subnormality, such as the anemic, tuberculous, and speech defective, and those of unusual ability were not organized into special teaching groups until comparatively late in the nineteenth century. (2) There are more readily discernible types of subnormality than of superiority. (3) The conventional schooling originated with the education of the selected few, and was better adapted to them than to the average and the subnormal. (4) The maladjustment of the traditional training devised for the few is more impressive in the case of those with marked pathological defects.

During the first half of the nineteenth century the development of each set of special schools or classes seems to have been marked by three distinct stages, each representing a different type of corporate control. (1) The movements appear to have been initiated through private or philanthropic agencies. This was followed by (2) the development of state institutions having complete custody of the child; and later (3) the city school systems established special day classes. Thus the deaf, the juvenile delinquent, the blind, and the feeble-minded were first cared for and educated in private institutions. Then, within a period of from one to six years, state schools began to be established, and finally, from twenty-five to sixty years later, public day classes were instituted in the larger cities. As the two latter movements developed, their work frequently tended to duplicate that of the private institutions, and in many cases the latter were taken over by the state. Probably the most striking example of this is seen in the schools for the deaf (see page 11), where fourteen institutions have been transferred from private to state maintenance and control, and three day schools which opened originally under private auspices, have been incorporated into city public school systems.

The stages of development characteristic of the earlier movements are not so prominent in those of later years, though the

influence of all three types of control is still present in some degree. Certain localities manifest decided preferences. In the New England and Middle Atlantic States private institutions continue to maintain corporate independence, though receiving state aid, and their number is still increasing; whereas in the Central and Western States the education of variates is carried on largely in state schools, the number of private institutions being relatively small. Private institutions inaugurated the special education of cripples and speech defectives, but not classes for non-English-speaking immigrants or the exceptionally gifted, both of which were started by city school systems. Philanthropic agencies working in connection with city school systems stimulated and aided, but hardly controlled, the first open-air classes for the anemic and the tuberculous. The diminution of the prominence of private agencies in founding the later movements is altogether to be expected as a result of the increasing sense of the obligation of the community to provide care and education for all of its youth, both normal and exceptional.

The influences initiating these adjustments have already been suggested in a general way, and we may now indicate them more concretely. In some instances, as with the deaf, the presence of a defective child in the individual's own family prompted him to enlist the coöperation of the community in providing a school for such unfortunates. In others, the superior public-spirited citizen, by reason of his personal qualities of leadership, was instrumental in launching the movement. Examples of this are seen in the beginnings of institutions for the juvenile delinquent and for the blind. Meanwhile, the public, on becoming enlightened as to the possibilities of successfully instructing certain variates, was prompted to meet its obligations through the establishment of special state and city institutions. This stage was, in most cases, the product of steadily increasing knowledge, while in others it developed suddenly through a quickened sympathy or sense of responsibility, as was manifested in the founding of state homes and schools for soldiers' orphans and dependents in the decade of 1860. The mind of the public school profession has gradually come to recognize the problem of the varying groups and to perceive the need of special means for dealing with classes that are not adequately

developed by ordinary school methods. For example, in instituting provisions for the exceptionally gifted and for non-English-speaking immigrants, it was the super-professional interest of the schoolmaster which became operative.

The culmination of the social sensitiveness appears in the finer adjustments of the public school with respect to the psychological, physical, and social factors in the school population. The first step taken was to designate certain teachers to take charge of classes of such size and under such conditions that more time and attention could be given to individual pupils. The second step was in the realm of method. The institutions, both private and public, had developed an understanding of the needs, the limitations, and the possibilities of these various groups, and had built up a great body of specialized educational theory and practice. To these the public school fell heir, and they are now being turned to excellent account, not only in dealing with the subnormal, but also with others. As all operations move slowly with the defective, it is possible to study them more closely and completely and thus gain an insight which is most valuable in dealing with normal persons. There is also an almost involuntary recognition of the means of education—the hand, the ear, and the processes of association. All of these factors foster a finer technique in the teaching process and tend to render the school a more efficient agency for the uplift of all the children of the state.

The third step was in the adaptation of subject-matter. In the education of defectives there is a general tendency to introduce vocational guidance, training, and placement early, and to associate these intimately with the conventional studies in the same school. This merging of the two, which is rarely found in the education of normal children, is undoubtedly the outcome of the manifestation of a degree of helplessness or irresponsibility on the part of the defective; and, barring custodial cases, the greater the degree of irresponsibility, the stronger the tendency to emphasize the vocational aspect. The presence of such apparent incompetency especially stresses the need for effort that will make such persons more self-reliant and self-supporting.

In the earlier days of special schools and classes there was a distinct tendency towards education in more or less complete

segregation. Of late there has been a pronounced effort to train the variate so that he can assume his place among normal people. To this end he is being trained more and more in his natural social setting so that he may receive all the valuable incidental education which normal social contacts insure. This tendency manifests itself in two ways: (1) from the standpoint of organization, in the substitution of the cottage system for the congregate in institutions; (2) from the standpoint of teaching-method, in the change from the manual to the oral method with the deaf, and in teaching the blind in the same classes with the seeing.

It is becoming more clearly recognized that the state has no agency so effective as the public school in coping with the numerous problems of social welfare. The school is the only institution established under state control in all communities. It is the only institution, moreover, which can be invested with sufficient authority and which commands to so great a degree the confidence of the community. Within the last two decades the school organization has responded to new demands which were previously undreamed of. At the present time special classes of some kind are maintained by all the American cities (50) having a population of 100,000 or over; by 110 out of 181 cities of 25,000 up to 100,000; and by 224 out of 372 cities of 10,000 up to 25,000. While we must not suppose that provisions are anything like adequate, yet at least a definite beginning has been made in these cities and in other smaller places.

Graph L presents an approximate quantitative conspectus of the educational provisions for exceptional groups in the United States at the opening of the year 1914.¹

In providing an educational system that will really develop opportunity for each educable person in the community to receive the training which society is justified in giving for the realization of individual powers and for the individual's adequate coöperation in the life of the community, the need is for a closer analysis of human variation. Thus far variates above the normal have received relatively scant attention, but already there are signs of a developing pedagogy of the gifted. On the other hand, as deviations below the normal have been studied

¹ The totals for Open-Air Schools and for the Exceptionally Gifted include cities making such provision during 1914.

Deaf	47	Private Institutions
	58	Public Institutions
	73	Cities having day classes
Juvenile Delinquent	53	Private Institutions
	81	Public Institutions
	158	Cities having day classes
Blind	13	Private Institutions
	48	State Institutions
	20	Cities having day classes
Dependent and Neglected Children	66	Private Schools
	20	State Schools
Feeble-Minded, Retarded and Epileptic	39	Private Institutions
	39	Public Institutions
	284	Cities having day classes
Cripples	30	Private Institutions
	6	Private Day Schools
	6	Public Institutions
	7	Cities having day classes
Non-English-speaking Immigrants	237	Cities having evening classes
	95	Cities with day classes
Open-Air Schools	137	Cities
Speech Defectives	17	Cities with day classes
Exceptionally Gifted	22	Cities

rather closely, a tentative classification of these may furnish a standard by which to determine the relative sensitiveness of school provision. Such a classification is here offered.

A comparison at once reveals that in any large population there are three groups of individuals below the normal. (1) There are some who are not educable: the violently insane and idiots of the middle and low grades. Such individuals are entirely irresponsible and require constant attention. (2) Others are educable only for a modicum of self-reliance in custodial care: imbeciles of the middle and low grades and high-grade idiots, the brightest of whom can accomplish only the simplest tasks.² (3) The third group is probably larger than either of the others. It is comprised of persons who are educable for life in normal society under supervision. They are the morons and high-grade imbeciles, who, with special training and direction from childhood, develop into self-supporting workers. Their abilities range all the way from tasks of short duration to the use of machinery and the care of animals,² but even the high-grade moron requires assistance in meeting new situations. It is this group which swells the rank of retardates in the school system where only the ordinary subjects are taught.

To deal effectively with the problem of the subnormal child, a developing sensitiveness is one of the prime essentials in the professional educator. It is safe to say that the day is very remote when private initiative will cease to be of service in education. Present indications point to an ever-fertile field of research and experimentation, the results of which are proving invaluable to the progressive schoolman.

The extensive development of city institutions for variates is suggestive of the great need of state institutions for those in the sparsely populated districts where the local community either does not see the need or cannot provide the maintenance for such schools. This movement is already exemplified in the increasing number of state schools for cripples. Four states now maintain institutions of this kind, and at least two others (Illinois and Ohio) are contemplating making similar provision.

At the present time there is need of special attention to the vocational guidance and training of children who deviate below the normal. It has been clearly demonstrated that many of

² Goddard, H. H., *Feeble-Mindedness—its Causes and Consequences*, p. 581.

the ordinary school studies are utterly meaningless and profitless to such pupils, whereas a large proportion of them find industrial work of various kinds both enjoyable and well suited to their capacities.

There is a growing recognition of the fact that the basic condition of socially efficient education is the adjustment of both the method and subject-matter to meet the varying needs of varying children in order that the individual may become effectively adjusted to his social and vocational environment. It is not inconceivable that a survey will some day be made to determine what occupations are especially suited to the capacities of subnormals, and that, as a result, certain vocational reservations by convention will be instituted for the benefit of these varying groups.

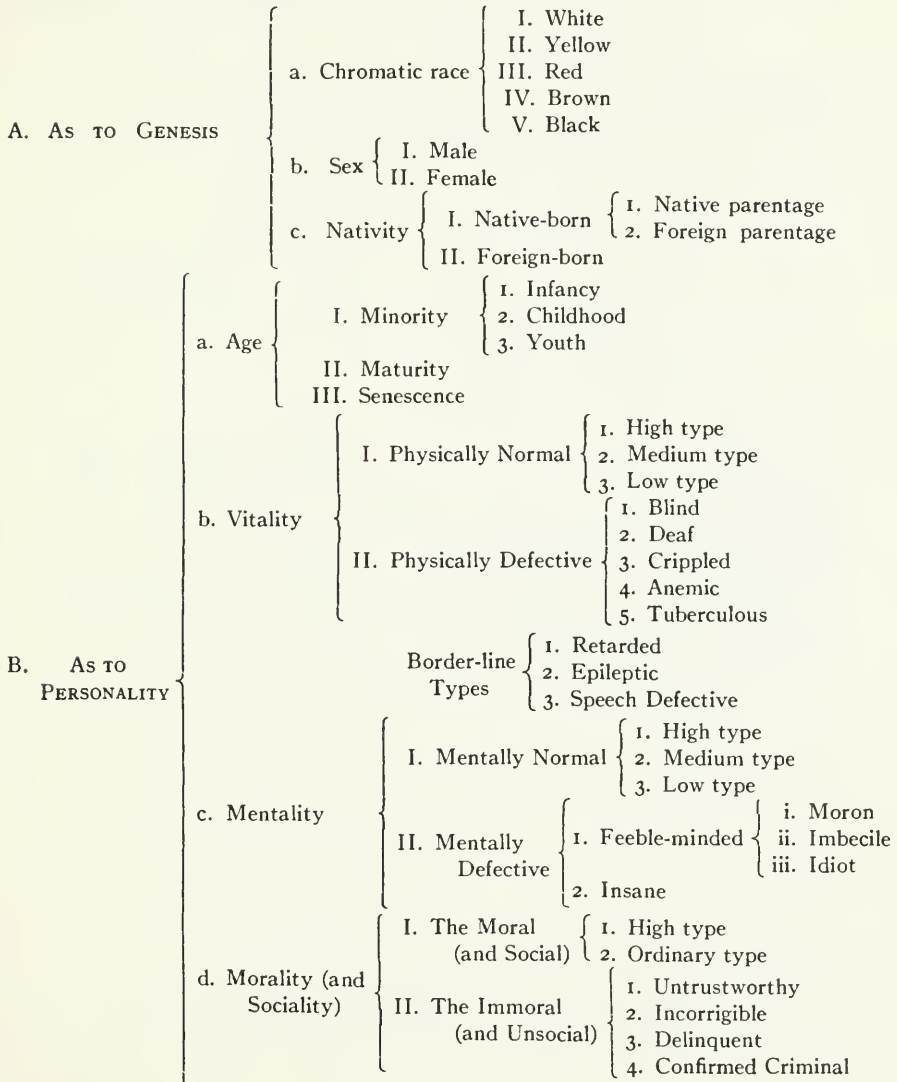
APPENDICES

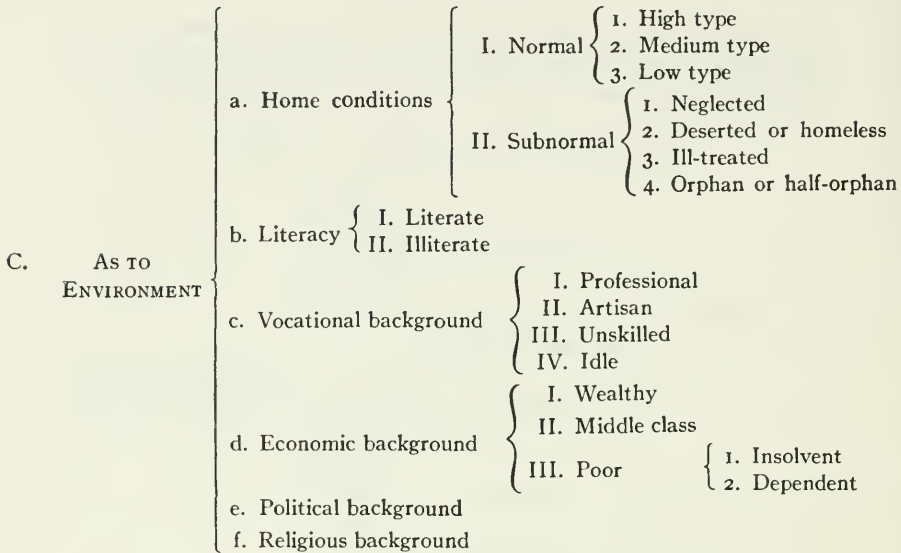
Except in the case of Appendix I, the sources and authorities are the same as in the corresponding chapters.

APPENDIX I

In formulating the following classification of human types the author is especially indebted to Professor Giddings for valuable suggestions presented in his "Inductive Sociology."

CLASSIFICATION OF HUMAN TYPES





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APPENDIX II

PROVISIONS FOR THE DEAF

PRIVATE AND SEMI-PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS

Opened

- 1817 Connecticut, Hartford: American School for the Deaf. (q)
- 1818 New York, New York City: New York Institution for the Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb. (b)
- 1819 Pennsylvania, Philadelphia: Class for deaf children, held in the home of D. G. Seixas. (b) Developed in 1820 into the Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf and Dumb. (c)
- 1827 Ohio, Talmadge: C. Smith's School for the Deaf. Closed in 1829. (b)
- 1843 Indiana, Indianapolis: Indiana State School for the Deaf. Transferred to state control in 1844. (q)
- 1846 Georgia, Cave Spring: Georgia School for the Deaf. Transferred to state in 1849. (b)
- 1849 South Carolina, Cedar Spring: South Carolina Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Blind. Transferred to state in 1857. (b)
- About 1850 Arkansas, Clarksville: School for the Deaf. Closed later. In 1860 a similar effort was made at Fort Smith, but the school closed in 1861 on account of the war. In 1867 another private school was founded in Little Rock with city aid. This became a state institution in 1868. (b)
- About 1850 Iowa, Iowa City: School for the Deaf. Transferred to state in 1855. Moved to Council Bluffs in 1870. (b)
- 1851 Wisconsin, Delavan: School for deaf children held in E. Cheesbro's home. Developed into state school in 1852. (b)
- 1858 Alabama, Talladega: School for the Deaf. Transferred to state in 1860. (b)
- 1859 New York, Buffalo: St. Mary's Institution for the Improved Instruction of Deaf-Mutes. (b)
- 1860 California, Berkeley: School for the Deaf and Blind. Transferred to state in 1866. (b)
- 1860 New Jersey, Trenton: Skinner's School for the Deaf and Dumb. Closed in 1866. (b)
- 1861 Kansas, Baldwin City: P. A. Emery's School for Deaf-Mutes. Moved to Topeka in 1864, and finally became the state school at Olathe in 1866. (b)
- 1866 Massachusetts, Chelmsford: Miss Rogers' School, out of which grew the Clarke School for the Deaf at Northampton in 1867. (b)

Opened

- 1867 New York, New York City: Association for Improved Instruction for Deaf-Mutes. (q)
- 1868 Maryland, Frederick: Maryland School for the Deaf and Dumb. (q)
- 1868 Pennsylvania, Pittsburgh: Class for Deaf-Mutes in the Sunday-school of the Third United Presbyterian Church. Later this developed into the first day school for the deaf in the United States. It was closed in 1876, when the Western Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, now at Swissvale, was opened. (b)
- 1869 Connecticut, Mystic: Mystic Oral School for the Deaf. (o)
- 1869 New York, Fordham: St. Joseph's Institute. (q)
- 1870 Illinois, Chicago: Day school for the Deaf. Destroyed in the fire of 1871. Out of this effort the Chicago public day school for the deaf developed in 1875. (b)
- 1870 Oregon, Salem: Oregon School for Deaf-Mutes. Transferred to state the same year. (b)
- 1872 Maryland, Overlea: Maryland School for Negro Deaf and Blind. (q)
- 1873 Michigan, North Detroit: Evangelical Lutheran Deaf-Mute Institute. (h)
- 1874 New York, Brooklyn: St. Joseph's Institute. (q)
- 1875 Michigan, Norris: German Evangelical Lutheran Institution for Deaf and Dumb. (o)
- 1876 Massachusetts, Beverly: New England Industrial School for Deaf-Mutes. (h)
- 1876 New York, Westchester: St. Joseph's Institute. (q)
- 1876 Wisconsin, St. Francis: St. John's Catholic Deaf-Mute Institute. (o)
- 1877 Maryland, Baltimore: Knapp's Institute. (o)
- 1877 Rhode Island, Providence: Rhode Island Institute for the Deaf. Transferred to state about 1890. (b)
- 1878 Missouri, St. Louis: Day School for the Deaf. Became part of the city school system in 1879. (b)
- 1878 Wisconsin, Milwaukee: Stettner's Day School for Deaf-Mutes. Closed in 1884. (b)
- 1880 Dakota Territory, Sioux Falls: Dakota School for Deaf-Mutes. Became the state institution for South Dakota in 1889, North Dakota establishing its own school in 1890. (b)
- 1881 Missouri, Hannibal: St. Joseph's Deaf-Mute Institution. (o)
- 1882 Pennsylvania, Scranton: Koehler's class of deaf children. This effort formed the stimulus for a movement which culminated in the founding of the Pennsylvania Oral School for the Deaf. (b)
- 1883 District of Columbia, Washington: Bell's Experimental School. Closed 1886. (b)

Opened

- 1883 Illinois, Englewood: Chicago Voice and Hearing School for the Deaf. (o)
- 1883 Wisconsin, Milwaukee: Oral Day School for Deaf-Mute Children. Became part of the city school system in 1885. (b)
- 1884 Illinois, Chicago: Ephpheta School for the Deaf. (o)
- 1885 Missouri, St. Louis: Mariæ Consilia School for the Deaf. (o)
- 1885 New Mexico, Santa Fe: New Mexico School for the Deaf and Dumb. Transferred to state in 1887. (b)
- 1885 New York, New York City: Keeler Articulation Class for Deaf-Mutes. (o)
- 1886 Indiana, Evansville: School for the Deaf. (b)
- 1886 Ohio, Cincinnati: Oral School for the Deaf. Incorporated into the city school system in 1888. (b)
- 1888 Iowa, Dubuque: Eastern Iowa School for the Deaf. (o)
- 1888 Massachusetts, West Medford: Sara Fuller Home for Little Deaf Children. (q)
- 1889 New York, Albany: Albany Home School for Oral Instruction of the Deaf. (o)
- 1890 Louisiana, Chinchuba: Deaf-Mute Institution of the Holy Rosary. (o)
- 1890 New York, New York City: Warren Articulation School. (o)
- 1890 Ohio, Cincinnati: Notre Dame School for the Deaf. (o)
- 1892 Pennsylvania, Philadelphia: Home for Training Deaf Children before School Age. Transferred to state in 1893. (q)
- 1893 Missouri, South St. Louis: St. Joseph's Deaf-Mute Institution. (o)
- 1894 New York, New York City: Wright-Humason School. (o)
- 1895 California, Oakland: St. Joseph's Home for the Deaf. (h)
- 1897 Maryland, Baltimore: St. Francis Xavier's School for the Deaf. (h)
- 1901 District of Columbia, Washington: Washington Branch of the Warren School of Expression-Reading for Hard of Hearing Adults. (h)
- 1901 New York, New York City: The Reno Margulies School for Children with Defective Hearing. (h)
- 1901 Pennsylvania, Philadelphia: "Forrest Hall" School for the Deaf, formerly known as the Swarthmore School and Kindergarten for the Deaf at Swarthmore, Pa. (h)
- 1903 New York, New York City: New York School for the Hard of Hearing. (h)
- 1905 Illinois, Chicago: Gallagher's Night School for Adult Deaf. (h)
- 1905 South Dakota, Lead: Black Hills School for the Deaf. (h)
- 1906 Ohio, Cincinnati: Miss Breckinridge's School. (h)
- 1907 Minnesota, Northfield: St. Olaf College, Department for the Deaf. (h)
- 1908 Maryland, Kensington: Home School for Little Deaf Children. (h)

Opened

- 1908 Pennsylvania, Pittsburgh: De Paul Institute for Deaf-Mutes. (h)
 1912 Georgia, Macon: Miss Arbaugh's School for Deaf Children. (h)
 1912 Vermont, Brattleboro: Austine Institution for the Deaf and Blind. (d)

STATE OR PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS

- 1823 Kentucky, Danville: Kentucky School for the Deaf. (q)
 1829 Ohio, Columbus: Ohio State School for the Deaf. (q)
 1840 Virginia, Staunton: Virginia School for the Deaf and Blind. (q)
 1844 Indiana, Indianapolis: Indiana State School for the Deaf. Transferred from semi-public control. (q)
 1844 Tennessee, Knoxville: Tennessee Deaf and Dumb School. (q)
 1845 Illinois, Jacksonville: Illinois School for the Deaf. (q)
 1845 North Carolina, Raleigh: State School for Deaf and Blind. (b)
 1849 Georgia, Cave Spring: Georgia School for the Deaf. Transferred from semi-public control. (b)
 1851 Missouri, Fulton: Missouri School for the Deaf. (q)
 1851 Missouri, Fulton: Missouri School for the Negro Deaf. (k)
 1852 Louisiana, Baton Rouge: Louisiana State School for the Deaf. (q)
 1852 Wisconsin, Delavan: Wisconsin State School for the Deaf. Transferred from semi-public control. (b)
 1854 Michigan, Flint: Michigan School for the Deaf. (q)
 1854 Mississippi, Jackson: Institution for the Deaf and Dumb. (h)
 1855 Iowa, Council Bluffs: Iowa School for the Deaf. Transferred from semi-public control. (b)
 1857 District of Columbia, Washington: Columbia Institution for the Deaf. (q)
 1857 District of Columbia, Washington: Kendall School (Department of Columbia Institution). (b)
 1857 South Carolina, Cedar Spring: South Carolina Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Blind. Transferred from semi-public control. (b)
 1857 Texas, Austin: Texas School for the Deaf. (o)
 1860 Alabama, Talladega: Alabama School for the Deaf. Transferred from semi-public control. (b)
 1863 Minnesota, Faribault: Minnesota School for the Deaf. (q)
 1864 District of Columbia, Washington: Gallaudet College (Department of Columbia Institution). (q)
 1866 California, Berkeley: California School for the Deaf and Blind. Transferred from semi-public control. (b)
 1866 Kansas, Olathe: Kansas School for the Deaf. Transferred from semi-public control. (b)
 1868 Arkansas, Little Rock: Arkansas Deaf-Mute Institute. Transferred from semi-public control. (b)

Opened

- About 1868 Arkansas, Little Rock: Arkansas Deaf-Mute Institute (Negro).
 May have been established earlier—1867. (h)
- 1869 Nebraska, Omaha: Nebraska School for the Deaf. (q)
- 1869 North Carolina, Raleigh: State School for the Negro Deaf and Blind. (b)
- 1870 Oregon, Salem: Oregon School for Deaf-Mutes. Transferred from semi-public control. (b)
- 1870 West Virginia, Romney: West Virginia Schools for the Deaf and Blind. (b)
- 1874 Colorado, Colorado Springs: Colorado School for the Deaf and Blind. (q)
- 1875 New York, Rome: Central New York Institution for Deaf-Mutes. (q)
- 1876 Maine, Portland: Maine School for the Deaf. At first it was a city institution, but was transferred to the state in 1897. (q)
- 1876 New York, Rochester: Western New York Institution for Deaf-Mutes. (q)
- 1881 Tennessee, Knoxville: Tennessee Deaf and Dumb School (Negro). (b)
- 1882 Georgia, Cave Spring: Georgia School for Negro Deaf. (h)
- 1883 New Jersey, Trenton: New Jersey School for the Deaf. (q)
- 1883 South Carolina, Cedar Spring: South Carolina Institution for the Education of the Negro Deaf and Blind. (b)
- 1884 Kentucky, Danville: Kentucky School for Negro Deaf. (h)
- 1884 New York, Malone: Northern New York Institution for Deaf-Mutes. (q)
- 1884 Utah, Ogden: Utah School for the Deaf. (q)
- 1885 Florida, St. Augustine: Florida School for the Deaf and Blind. (b)
- 1886 Washington, Vancouver: Washington State School for the Deaf. (b)
- 1887 New Mexico, Santa Fe: New Mexico School for the Deaf and Dumb. Transferred from semi-public control. (b)
- 1887 Texas, Austin: Deaf, Dumb, and Blind Institution for Colored Youth. (b)
- 1889 South Dakota, Sioux Falls: South Dakota School for the Deaf. Transferred from semi-public control. (b)
- 1890 North Dakota, Devil's Lake: North Dakota School for the Deaf. (b)
- About 1890 Rhode Island, Providence: Rhode Island Institute for the Deaf. Transferred from semi-public control. (b)
- 1892 Alabama, Talladega: Alabama School for the Negro Deaf. (h)
- 1893 Montana, Boulder: Montana School for the Deaf and Blind. (q)
- 1893 Pennsylvania, Philadelphia: Home for Training Deaf Children before School Age. Transferred from semi-public control. (b)

Opened

- 1894 North Carolina, Morgantown: North Carolina School for the Deaf and Dumb. (q)
 1898 Oklahoma, Sulphur: Oklahoma School for the Deaf. (h)
 1899 Massachusetts, Randolph: Boston School for the Deaf. (h)
 1906 Idaho, Gooding: Idaho State School for the Deaf and Blind. (h)
 1909 Oklahoma, Taft: Institute for Negro Deaf, Blind, and Orphans. (h)
 1909 Virginia, Newport News: Virginia State School for Colored Deaf and Blind. (h)
 1912 Arizona, Tucson: University of Arizona Department for the Deaf. (h)

CITIES HAVING SPECIAL CLASSES

Opened

- 1869 Boston, Mass. (f)
 1870 Cleveland, O. Closed in 1874. (b)
 1874 New York City. Closed in 1878. (b)
 1875 Chicago, Ill. (b)
 1875 Cincinnati, O. (b)
 1875 Erie, Pa. Closed in 1884. (b)
 1878 Allegheny, Pa. Closed in 1884. (b)
 1879 St. Louis, Mo. Transferred from private control. (b)
 1880 Scranton, Pa. Closed in 1883. (b)
 1885 Milwaukee, Wis. Transferred from private control. (b)
 1886 New Orleans, La. Closed in 1891. (b)
 1887 La Crosse, Wis. (b)
 1890 Toledo, O. (b)
 1890 Wausau, Wis. (b)
 1893 Cleveland, O. (r)
 1894 Sheboygan, Wis. (h)
 1895 Detroit, Mich. (h)
 1895 Eau Claire, Wis. (h)
 1895 Fond du Lac, Wis. (h)
 1895 Oshkosh, Wis. (h)
 1896 Appleton, Wis. (h)
 1896 Marinette, Wis. (h)
 1897 Black River Falls, Wis. (h)
 1897 Green Bay, Wis. (h)

Opened

- 1903 Aurora, Ill. (h)
 1903 Ironwood, Mich. (h)
 1903 Ashtabula, O. (h)
 1904 Sacramento, Cal. (h)
 1904 Manistee, Mich. (h)
 1904 Traverse City, Mich. (h)
 1905 Kalamazoo, Mich. (h)
 1905 Antigo, Wis. (h)
 1905 Platteville, Wis. (h)
 1906 Iron Mountain, Mich. (h)
 1906 Sault Ste. Marie, Mich. (h)
 1906 Bloomington, Wis. (h)
 1906 New London, Wis. (h)
 1907 Marquette, Mich. (h)
 1907 Seattle, Wash. (h)
 1907 Rice Lake, Wis. (h)
 1908 Houghton, Mich. (h)
 1908 Lake Linden, Mich. (h)
 1908 New York City (l)
 1908 Madison, Wis. (h)
 1909 Conneaut, O. (h)
 1909 Tacoma, Wash. (h)
 1910 Newark, N. J. (h)
 Before March, 1911 (i):
 Pasadena, Cal.
 Columbus, Ind.
 South Bend, Ind.
 Beverly, Mass.
 Portland, Me.
 Rochester, Minn.
 Providence, R. I.

CITIES HAVING SPECIAL CLASSES—*Continued**Opened*

- 1897 Stevens Point, Wis. (h)
- 1897 Superior, Wis. (h)
- 1898 Ashland, Wis. (h)
- 1898 Los Angeles, Cal. (h)
- 1899 Grand Rapids, Mich. (h)
- 1899 Dayton, O. (h)
- 1900 Oakland, Cal. (h)
- 1900 Racine, Wis. (h)
- 1901 San Francisco, Cal. (h)
- 1901 Rock Island, Ill. (h)
- 1901 Bay City, Mich. (h)
- 1902 Calumet, Mich. (h)
- 1902 Saginaw, Mich. (h)

Opened

- 1911 New Orleans, La. (h)
- 1912 San Diego, Cal. (p)
- 1912 Atlanta, Ga. (h)
- 1912 Decatur, Ill. (p)
- 1912 Jackson, Mich. (h)
- 1912 Jersey City, N. J. (h)
- 1912 Elmhurst, N. Y. (h)
- 1912 Marshfield, Wis. (h)
- 1912 Mineral Point, Wis. (h)
- 1913 St. Paul, Minn. (p)
- 1913 Lancaster, Pa. (p)
- 1913 Kenosha, Wis. (p)

APPENDIX III

PROVISIONS FOR THE JUVENILE DELINQUENT, UNRULY, AND TRUANT

PRIVATE AND SEMI-PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS

Opened

- 1825 New York, Randall's Island, New York City: House of Refuge. (b)
- 1828 Pennsylvania, Philadelphia: House of Refuge. In 1892 it was divided into separate departments for boys and girls, the boys being moved to Glen Mills. About 1909 the girls' department was moved to Darling. (c, d)
- 1851 New York, New York City: New York Juvenile Asylum. Now located at Chauncey. (d)
- 1851 Pennsylvania, Allegheny: Pennsylvania Training School. In 1876 moved to Morganza and became a public institution. (c)
- 1855 Maryland, Baltimore: House of Refuge, out of which grew the Maryland School for Boys at Loch Raven and the Maryland Industrial School for Girls at Baltimore. (h)
- 1857 New York, New York City: House of the Good Shepherd. (d)
- 1859 Illinois, Chicago: House of the Good Shepherd. (d)
- 1862 Illinois, Chicago: Chicago Refuge for Girls. (p)
- 1863 New York, Westchester: New York Catholic Protectory. Subsequently divided into separate departments for boys and girls. (d)
- 1864 Maryland, Baltimore: House of the Good Shepherd. (c)
- 1864 New York, Buffalo: New York Catholic Protectory. (c)
- 1866 Kentucky, Newport: Convent of the Good Shepherd. (d)
- 1866 Maryland, Baltimore: St. Mary's Industrial School for Boys of the City of Baltimore. (d)
- 1868 Maryland, Baltimore: Maryland Industrial School for Girls. (p)
- 1870 Connecticut, Middletown: Connecticut Reform School for Girls. (p)
- 1870 Massachusetts, Winter Island: Plummer Farm School. Now located at Salem. (d)
- 1872 New Jersey, Arlington: Catholic Protectory. (d)
- 1874 California, San Francisco: Boys' and Girls' Home School. (q)
- 1875 Maine, Hallowell: Maine Industrial School for Girls. In 1899 it became a state institution. (p)
- 1875 Wisconsin, Milwaukee: Wisconsin Industrial School for Girls. (d)

Opened

- 1877 Illinois, Park Ridge: Park Ridge School for Girls. (h)
 1877 Illinois, South Evanston: Training School for Girls. (p)
 1878 Maryland, Baltimore: St. James' Home for Boys. (p)
 1882 Michigan, Detroit: House of the Good Shepherd. (d)
 1885 Delaware, Marshallton: Ferris Industrial School for Boys. (p)
 1886 Illinois, Glenwood: Illinois Manual Training School Farm. (p)
 1886 New York, Utica: St. Vincent's Industrial School. (d)
 1887 New York, Canaan: Berkshire Industrial Farm. (p)
- Before 1889 Kansas, Beloit: Industrial School for Girls. Conducted under auspices of the Women's Christian Temperance Union. Transferred to state in 1889. (p)
- 1889 New York, Brooklyn: Brooklyn Training School and Home for Young Girls. (q)
- 1892 Virginia, Laurel: Laurel Industrial Institute. Now located at School. (h)
- 1894 Delaware, Wilmington: Delaware Industrial School for Girls. (p)
- 1895 New York, Freeville: George Junior Republic. (p)
- 1896 New York, Charlton: Charlton Industrial Farm School. (q)
- 1898 New York, Watertown: Jefferson County Truant School. In 1913 it became a public institution. (h)
- 1898 Pennsylvania, Redington: William T. Carter Junior Republic. (q)
- 1898 Pennsylvania, Pawling: Philadelphia Protectory for Boys. (h)
- 1899 Maryland, Annapolis Jct.: National Junior Republic. (q)
- 1899 Indiana, Plymouth: Julia E. Work Training School. (q)
- 1899 Virginia, Hanover: Negro Reformatory Association of Virginia. (p)
- 1900 Massachusetts, Millbury: St. Joseph's Industrial School. (q)
- 1900 Washington, Seattle: Seattle Parental School. In 1904 it became part of city school system. (h)
- Before 1901 Illinois, St. Charles: St. Charles School for Boys. Transferred to state in 1901. (h)
- 1902 Maryland, Baltimore: Universal Progressive School for Orphan and Destitute Colored Children. (q)
- 1902 Wisconsin, Dousman: Wisconsin Home and Farm School. (h)
- 1903 Iowa, Sioux City: Convent of the Good Shepherd. (h)
- 1903 Michigan, Farmington: Ford Republic. (q)
- 1904 Connecticut, Litchfield: Connecticut George Junior Republic. (q)
- 1904 Michigan, Grand Rapids: Sisters of the Good Shepherd. (h)
- 1907 California, Chino: California Junior Republic. (q)
- 1907 Illinois, Harrison: Winnebago Farm School. (q)
- 1907 New York, Buffalo: St. Agnes' Training School for Girls. (q)
- 1907 New York, Hawthorne: Hawthorne School. (h)
- 1908 Utah, Murray: Lund School for Boys. (q)

Opened

- 1909 Pennsylvania, Grove City: George Junior Republic. (q)
 1910 New Jersey, Flemington: George Junior Republic. (h)
 1913 New York, Bronxville: Cedar Knoll School for Girls. (h)

STATE OR PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS

- 1826 Massachusetts, Boston: House of Reformation for Juvenile Offenders. About 1901 it was transformed into the Suffolk School for Boys. (c)
 1843 Louisiana, New Orleans: Boys' House of Refuge, apparently the forerunner of the State Reform School now located at Monroe. (d)
 1848 Massachusetts, Westboro: Lyman School for Boys. (d)
 1849 New York, Rochester: State Industrial School. It was later moved to its present site at Industry. (h)
 1850 Ohio, Cincinnati: Cincinnati House of Refuge. (p)
 1850 Rhode Island, Providence: Providence Reform School. Originally a city institution, it was transferred to state in 1880 and about 1883 moved to Howard with separate departments for boys and girls. (a, c, d)
 1851 Massachusetts, Lowell: House of Employment and Reformation. Ceased reporting to the United States Commissioner of Education about 1893. (d)
 1853 Maine, Portland: State School for Boys. (d)
 1854 Connecticut, Meriden: Connecticut Reform School for Boys. (h)
 1854 Massachusetts, North Cambridge: Truant School. Ceased reporting to the United States Commissioner of Education about 1893. (d)
 1854 Missouri, St. Louis: St. Louis Industrial School. (d)
 1855 Illinois, Chicago: Chicago Reform School. (p)
 1856 Massachusetts, Lancaster: State Industrial School for Girls. (d)
 1856 Michigan, Lansing: Industrial School for Boys. (p)
 1857 New York, Brooklyn: Brooklyn Truant Home. Was originally under the Board of Aldermen, but was permanently transferred to the Board of Education in 1894, and the following year reorganized as a truant school. (l)
 1857 New Hampshire, Manchester: State Industrial School (p)
 1858 Ohio, Lancaster: Boys' Industrial School. (p)
 1859 California, San Francisco: Industrial School. About 1891 it ceased reporting to the United States Commissioner of Education. (d)
 1860 Massachusetts, Boston and Bedford: Nautical Reform School. (d) Abolished in 1872. (c)
 1860 Wisconsin, Waukesha: Wisconsin Industrial School for Boys. (p)

Opened

- 1861 District of Columbia, Washington: Industrial Home School. (q)
- 1863 Massachusetts, Worcester: Worcester Truant Reform School. It was established at the almshouse, but was discontinued in 1892. (d, j)
- 1865 Kentucky, Louisville: Louisville Industrial School. (p)
- 1865 Vermont, Vergennes: Vermont Reform School. (d)
- 1867 New Jersey, Jamesburg: State Home for Boys. (p)
- 1868 Indiana, Plainfield: Industrial Boys' School. (d)
- 1868 Iowa, Eldora: Industrial School for Boys. (p)
- 1868 Minnesota, St. Paul: State Training School for Boys and Girls. Now located at Red Wing. (d)
- 1869 Ohio, Delaware: Girls' Industrial Home. (p)
- 1869 Massachusetts, Deer Island, Boston: Truant School. Ceased reporting to the United States Commissioner of Education about 1894. (d)
- 1870 District of Columbia, Washington: Reform School. Later the name was changed to National Training School, and in 1893 a separate department was formed for girls. (p)
- 1870 Illinois, Pontiac: State Reform School. Later, with the transfer of juveniles to St. Charles School, this was reorganized as the State Reformatory for older offenders. (h)
- 1871 New Jersey, Trenton: State Home for Girls. (p)
- 1873 Indiana, Indianapolis: Indiana Girls' School. (d)
- 1873 Maryland, Cheltenham: House of Reformation for Colored Boys. (p)
- 1874 Iowa, Mitchellville: Industrial School for Girls. (d)
- 1874 Massachusetts, Lawrence: Essex County Training School. (d)
- 1874 New Jersey, Verona: Newark City Home. (p)
- 1876 Pennsylvania, Morganza: Pennsylvania Training School. Transferred from semi-public control. (c)
- 1879 Massachusetts, New Bedford: City Truant School. Ceased reporting to the United States Commissioner of Education about 1891. (d)
- 1880 Colorado, Golden: State Industrial School for Boys. (d)
- 1881 Kansas, Topeka: Boys' Industrial School. (d)
- 1881 Michigan, Adrian: State Industrial Home for Girls. (a)
- 1881 Nebraska, Kearney: State Industrial School for Boys. (p)
- 1883 Maryland, Melvale: Industrial Home for Colored Girls. (p)
- 1886 Tennessee, Nashville: Tennessee Industrial School (p)
- 1886 Wisconsin, Sparta: Wisconsin State Public School for Dependent and Neglected Children. (c)
- 1888 Nebraska, Milford: Nebraska Industrial Home. (p)
- 1889 Kansas, Beloit: State Industrial School for Girls. Transferred from private control. (p)
- 1889 Massachusetts, Walpole: Norfolk, Bristol, and Plymouth Union Training School. (h)

Opened

- 1889 Missouri, Boonville: Missouri Training School for Boys. (p)
- 1889 Missouri, Chillicothe: State Industrial Home for Girls. (p)
- 1889 South Dakota, Plankinton: South Dakota Training School. (p)
- 1889 Texas, Gatesville: State Institution for the Training of Juveniles. (h)
- 1889 Utah, Ogden: Utah Industrial School. (h)
- 1890 West Virginia, Pruntytown: West Virginia Reform School. In 1898 a separate department for girls was established at Salem. Later the boys' school was moved to Grafton. (d, p)
- 1891 Oregon, Salem: Oregon State Training School. (p)
- 1891 California, Whittier: Whittier State School. (p)
- 1891 Nebraska, Geneva: Girls' Industrial School. (p)
- 1891 Washington, Chehalis: State Reform School. (c)
- 1892 California, Ione: Preston School of Industry. Later at Waterman. (p)
- About 1892 Massachusetts, Oakdale: Worcester County Truant School. Now known as Worcester County Training School. (d)
- 1893 District of Columbia, Washington: Training School for Girls. Outgrowth of Reform School established in 1870. (p)
- 1893 Montana, Miles City: State Reform School. (p)
- 1894 Colorado, Morrison: State Industrial School for Girls. (p)
- 1894 Massachusetts, North Chelmsford: Middlesex County Training School. (h)
- 1896 Tennessee, Knoxville: Knox County Training School. (h)
- 1898 Florida, Marianna: State Reform School. (h)
- 1898 Kentucky, Greendale: Houses of Reform. (h)
- 1898 West Virginia, Salem: West Virginia Industrial Home for Girls. Later moved to Industrial. (d, p)
- 1899 Illinois, Chicago: John Worthy Manual Training School. (p)
- 1899 Maine, Hallowell: Maine Industrial School for Girls. Transferred from semi-public control. (p)
- 1900 Alabama, East Lake: Alabama Boys' Industrial School. (p)
- 1901 Illinois, St. Charles: St. Charles School for Boys. Transferred from semi-public control. Under state regime the first pupils were received in 1904. (h)
- 1902 Arizona, Benson: State Industrial School. Later at Fort Grant. (h)
- 1902 Georgia, Hapeville: Fulton County Industrial Farm. (h)
- 1903 North Dakota, Mandan: State Reform School. (p)
- 1904 Tennessee, Bartlett: Shelby County Training and Industrial School. (h)
- 1905 Idaho, St. Anthony: Idaho Industrial Training School. (h)
- 1906 Arkansas, Little Rock: State Reform School. (h)
- 1907 District of Columbia, Washington: Industrial Home School for Colored Children. (q)
- 1907 Minnesota, Minnetonka: Glen Lake Farm School for Boys. (q)
- 1908 South Carolina, Florence: South Carolina Industrial School. (h)
- 1909 Massachusetts, Shirley: Industrial School for Boys. (p)

Opened

- 1909 New Mexico, Springer: New Mexico Reform School. (h)
 1910 Oklahoma, Pauls Valley: State Reform School. (h)
 1913 New York, Watertown: Jefferson County Truant School.
 Transferred from semi-public control. (h)

CITIES HAVING SPECIAL CLASSES

*Opened**Opened*

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1876 Cleveland, O. (j) | 1904 Seattle, Wash. Parental School. Transferred from semi-public control. (h) |
| 1878 New York City. Two attendance schools for truants. Closed in 1893. (l) | 1905 Trenton, N. J. (u) |
| 1892 Chicago, Ill. (j) | 1906 Boston, Mass. (j) |
| 1893 Providence, R. I. (k) | 1906 Washington, D. C. (h) |
| 1894 Brooklyn, N. Y., Truant Home. ¹ Permanently transferred from control of Board of Aldermen to that of Board of Education. (l) | 1906 Baltimore, Md. (h) |
| 1895 New York City. (k) | 1906 St. Louis, Mo. (h) |
| 1895 Syracuse, N. Y. Truant School. (h) | 1907 Kansas City, Mo. (h) |
| 1898 Philadelphia, Pa. (r) | 1907 Cincinnati, O. (j) |
| 1898 Newark, N. J. (h) | 1907 Reading, Pa. (j) |
| About 1898 Indianapolis, Ind. (h) | 1909 Spokane, Wash. (u) |
| 1899 Minneapolis, Minn. (h) | 1909 Plainfield, N. J. (u) |
| About 1900 Boston, Mass. Parental School. (d) Closed in 1914. (h) | 1910 Oakland, Cal. (u) |
| 1901 Los Angeles, Cal. (j) | 1910 Bay City, Mich. (h) |
| 1901 Harrisburg, Pa. (j) | 1910 Grand Rapids, Mich. (u) |
| 1902 Chicago, Ill. Parental School. (p) | 1910 Montclair, N. J. (u) |
| 1904 Rochester, N. Y. Truant School. (j) | 1910 Dayton, O. (u) |
| | About 1910 St. Paul, Minn. (h) |
| | 1911 Pueblo, Colo. (u) |
| | 1911 Louisville, Ky. (h) |
| | 1912 Denver, Colo. (h) |
| | 1912 Bayonne, N. J. (s) |
| | 1912 Paterson, N. J. (u) |
| | 1913 Omaha, Neb. (h) |
| | 1913 Morristown, Pa. (u) |
| | 1913 Pittsburgh, Pa. (u) |
| | 1913 Washington, Pa. (u) |

Up to March, 1911—According to Van Sickle, Witmer, and Ayres (k), 106 cities, aside from those already mentioned, reported special schools or classes for the juvenile delinquent, or the incorrigible, or the truant.

For the year 1912-13—Witmer (w) lists the following:

11 additional cities as having newly organized such classes,

3 additional cities (previously unreported) maintaining such classes.

¹ In 1898, with the consolidation of the boroughs now comprising Greater New York, this became part of the New York City public school system. (l)

APPENDIX IV

PROVISIONS FOR THE BLIND

PRIVATE AND SEMI-PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS

Opened

- 1832 Massachusetts, South Boston: Perkins Institution and Massachusetts School for the Blind. (b) Later moved to Water-town. (f)
- 1832 New York, New York City: New York Institute for the Education of the Blind. (f)
- 1833 Pennsylvania, Overbrook: Pennsylvania Institution for the Blind. (f)
- 1849 South Carolina, Cedar Spring: South Carolina Institution for the Deaf and Blind. Transferred to state in 1857. (o)
- 1854 Maryland, Baltimore: Maryland School for the Blind. Later moved to Overlea. (f)
- 1860 California, Berkeley: California School for the Deaf and Blind. Transferred to state in 1866. (o)
- 1872 Maryland, Parkville: Maryland School for Negro Deaf and Blind. Later moved to Overlea. (f)
- 1887 Pennsylvania, Pittsburgh: Western Pennsylvania Institution for the Blind. (f)
- 1895 New York, Prince Bay: St. Joseph's Blind Asylum. (c)
- 1895 New York, Brooklyn: Industrial Home for the Blind. (f)
- 1904 New York, Brooklyn: Dyker Heights Home and Kindergarten. (c)
- 1905 New York, New York City: Catholic Institute for the Blind. (c)
- 1905 New York, New York City: New York Association for the Blind. (f)
- 1910 New Jersey, Summit: Arthur Home and Kindergarten. (c)
- 1912 Vermont, Brattleboro: Austine Institution for the Deaf and Blind. (p)

STATE INSTITUTIONS

- 1837 Ohio, Columbus: Ohio State School for the Blind. (c)
- 1840 Virginia, Staunton: Virginia School for the Deaf and Blind. (f)
- 1842 Kentucky, Louisville: Kentucky Institution for the Education of the Blind. (f)
- 1844 Tennessee, Nashville: Tennessee School for the Blind. (f)

Opened

- 1845 North Carolina, Raleigh: State School for the Deaf and Blind. (o)
- 1847 Indiana, Indianapolis: Indiana School for the Blind. (f)
- 1848 Illinois, Jacksonville: Illinois School for the Blind. (c)
- 1848 Mississippi, Jackson: Mississippi Institute for the Blind. (g)
- 1849 Wisconsin, Janesville: Wisconsin School for the Blind. (c)
- 1851 Georgia, Macon: Georgia Academy for the Blind. (c)
- 1851 Missouri, St. Louis: Missouri School for the Blind. (f)
- 1853 Iowa, Vinton: Iowa College for the Blind. (g)
- 1856 Texas, Austin: State School for the Blind. (f)
- 1857 South Carolina, Cedar Spring: South Carolina Institution for the Deaf and Blind. Transferred from semi-public control. (o)
- 1859 Arkansas, Little Rock: Arkansas School for the Blind. (c)
- 1866 California, Berkeley: California School for the Deaf and Blind. Transferred from semi-public control. (o)
- 1866 Minnesota, Faribault: Minnesota School for the Blind. (f)
- 1867 Alabama, Talladega: Alabama School for the Blind. (o) First established as a department of the School for the Deaf, but in 1888 it was organized as a separate institution. (c)
- 1867 Kansas, Kansas City: State School for the Blind. (c)
- 1868 New York, Batavia: New York State School for the Blind. (c)
- 1869 North Carolina, Raleigh: State School for the Negro Deaf and Blind. (o)
- 1870 West Virginia, Romney: West Virginia School for the Deaf and Blind. (o)
- 1871 Louisiana, Baton Rouge: Louisiana State School for the Blind. (g)
- 1873 Oregon, Salem: Oregon State School for the Blind. (f)
- 1875 Nebraska, Nebraska City: Nebraska School for the Blind. (f)
- 1880 Michigan, Lansing: Michigan School for the Blind. (f)
- 1881 Tennessee, Nashville: Tennessee School for the Blind (Negro). (f)
- 1883 Colorado, Colorado Springs: Colorado School for the Deaf and Blind. (f)
- 1883 South Carolina, Cedar Spring: South Carolina Institution for Negro Deaf and Blind. (g)
- 1885 Florida, St. Augustine: Florida School for the Deaf and Blind. (o)
- 1886 Kentucky, Louisville: Kentucky Institution for the Education of the Negro Blind. (f)
- 1887 Texas, Austin: Deaf, Dumb, and Blind Institution for Colored Youth. (o)
- 1889 Washington, Vancouver: Washington State School for the Blind. (c)
- 1890 Arkansas, Little Rock: Arkansas School for the Negro Blind. (g)
- 1890 South Dakota, Gary: South Dakota School for the Blind. (c)

Opened

- 1892 Alabama, Talladega: Alabama School for the Deaf and Blind. (c)
 1893 Connecticut, Hartford: Connecticut School for the Blind. (c)
 1893 Connecticut, Hartford: Connecticut Institute for the Blind (Department of Trades). (f)
 1893 Montana, Boulder: Montana School for the Deaf and Blind. (f)
 1896 Utah, Ogden: Utah School for the Blind. (f)
 1897 Oklahoma, Fort Gibson: Oklahoma School for the Blind. Later moved to Muskogee. (c)
 1904 Michigan, Saginaw: Michigan Employment Institute for the Blind. (c)
 1906 Idaho, Gooding: Idaho State School for the Deaf and Blind. (c)
 1906 New Mexico, Alamogordo: New Mexico Institute for the Blind. (c)
 1908 North Dakota, Bathgate: North Dakota School for the Blind. (c)
 1909 Maine, Portland: Maine Institution for the Blind. (c)
 1909 Oklahoma, Taft: Institute for Negro Deaf, Blind, and Orphans. (c)
 1909 Virginia, Newport News: Virginia State School for Colored Deaf and Blind. (c)

CITIES HAVING SPECIAL CLASSES

Opened

- 1900 Chicago, Ill. (k)
 1906 Cincinnati, O. (q)
 1907 Milwaukee, Wis. (q)
 1909 Cleveland, O. (q)
 1909 New York City. (l)
 1909 Racine, Wis. (c)
 1910 Newark, N. J. (c)
 1910 Antigo, Wis. (c)
 Before March, 1911 (i):
 Pasadena, Cal.
 Streator, Ill.

Opened

- Before March, 1911 (i):
 Portland, Me.
 Rochester, Minn.
 Providence, R. I.
 Platteville, Wis.
 1911 Jersey City, N. J. (c)
 1911 Bloomington, Wis. (c)
 1912 Boston, Mass. (j)
 1912 Detroit, Mich. (c)
 1912 Passaic, N. J. (j)
 1912 Lancaster, Pa. (j)

APPENDIX V

PROVISIONS FOR DEPENDENT AND NEGLECTED CHILDREN

PRIVATE AND SEMI-PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS

Opened

- 1729 Louisiana, New Orleans: Ursuline Orphanage. (b)
1801 Maryland, Baltimore: St. Paul's Industrial School for Girls. (a)
1802 Virginia, Fredericksburg: Female Charity School. (a)
1806 New York, Hastings-on-Hudson: New York Orphanage. (a)
1814 Massachusetts, Boston: Farm and Trades School. (a)
1826 Ohio, Massillon: Charity Rotch School. (a)
1834 Missouri, St. Louis: St. Philomena's Technical School. (a)
1836 Missouri, St. Louis: Mission Free School. (a)
1838 Alabama, Mobile: Industrial School for Catholic Orphan Boys.
(a)
1839 New York, New York City: St. Paul's Industrial School. (a)
1840 Maryland, Baltimore: Baltimore Manual Labor School. (i)
1845 Maryland, Baltimore: St. Peter Calver's Industrial School for
Colored Girls. (a)
1848 Pennsylvania, Philadelphia: Girard College. (b)
1853 Massachusetts, Boston: Industrial School for Girls. (a)
1854 Pennsylvania, Zelenople: Orphan Home and Farm School. (a)
1858 New York, Dunkirk: St. Mary's Home and School. (a)
1864 New York, Lackawanna: St. John's Protectory. (a)
1864 New York, Mt. Vernon: Wartburg Orphan Farm School. (a)
1864 Ohio, Cleveland: Children's Industrial Home and School. (a)
1865 Maryland, Baltimore: St. Joseph's School of Industry. (a)
1866 Pennsylvania, Philadelphia: Lincoln Institution and Educational
Home. (a)
1868 District of Columbia, Washington: St. Rose's Industrial School.
(a)
1872 New Jersey, Kearney: Catholic Protectory. (a)
1874 California, San Francisco: Boys' and Girls' Home School. (a)
1874 South Carolina, Clinton: Thornwell Orphanage. (i)
1879 Delaware, Delaware City: St. James' Protectory. (a)
1881 Maryland, Baltimore: St. Elizabeth Home for Colored Chil-
dren. (e)
1881 Nebraska, Lincoln: Home for Friendless. Transferred to state
and became State Public School in 1899. (a, b)
1884 Georgia, Covington: Reed Home and Industrial School. (a)

Opened

- 1884 North Carolina, Charlotte: St. Michael's Training and Industrial School. (a)
- 1885 New York, Saratoga Springs: St. Christina Industrial School. (a)
- 1887 Illinois, Glenwood: Glenwood Manual Training School. (a)
- 1889 Kansas, Hillsboro: Industrial School and Hygiene Home for the Friendless. (a)
- 1890 Indiana, Indianapolis: St. Joseph's Training School. (a)
- 1890 New York, Hicksville, L. I.: St. John's Protectory. (a)
- 1891 Pennsylvania, Cornwall: Mother Katharine's Home. (e)
- 1892 Colorado, Denver: Clifton Training School for Girls. (a)
- 1892 Missouri, Conception: St. James' Industrial School. (a)
- 1893 Missouri, Nevada: St. Francis Academy. (a)
- 1893 New York, Valhalla: Brace Farm School. (a)
- 1893 Rhode Island, Barrington: St. Andrew's Industrial School. (a)
- 1893 Virginia, Fredericksburg: Assembly's Home and School. (a)
- 1895 Delaware, Clayton: St. Joseph's Industrial School for Colored Boys. (a)
- 1895 New York, New York City: Five Points House of Industry. The institution was established in 1850 (i), but, according to its report of 1909, only since 1895 has its aim been the care and education of homeless children.
- 1895 Pennsylvania, Pittsburgh: St. Joseph's Protectory for Homeless Boys. (a)
- 1895 Pennsylvania, Williamsport: Girls' Training School. (a)
- 1896 New Mexico, Albuquerque: Harwood Industrial School. (a)
- 1896 New York, Charlton: Charlton Industrial Farm School. (a)
- 1897 New Jersey, New Brunswick: Colored Industrial School. (a)
- 1898 Delaware, Wilmington: Delaware Orphans' Home and Industrial School. (a)
- 1898 Maryland, Buckeystown: Buckingham Industrial School. (a)
- 1898 Pennsylvania, Redington: William T. Carter Junior Republic. (a)
- 1899 Indiana, Plymouth: Julia E. Work Training School. (a)
- 1899 Massachusetts, Boston: Daly Industrial School. (a)
- 1900 California, Los Angeles: Francis M. DePauw Industrial School. (a)
- 1900 Massachusetts, Millbury: St. Joseph Industrial School. (a)
- 1900 New Jersey, Gladstone: St. Bernard's School. (a)
- 1901 New Jersey, Kearney: Italian Protectory. (a)
- 1902 Maryland, Baltimore: Universal Progressive School for Orphans and Destitute Children. (a)
- 1903 Georgia, Thomasville: Vashti Industrial School. (a)
- 1903 Iowa, Sioux City: Convent of the Good Shepherd. (e)
- 1903 Michigan, Farmington: Ford Republic. (a)
- 1904 West Virginia, Elm Grove: Manual Training School. (a)
- 1906 Arizona, Tucson: Methodist Industrial School. (a)
- 1907 Illinois, Harrison: Winnebago Farm School. (a)

Opened

- 1907 Pennsylvania, Philadelphia: Seibert Institution for Boys and Girls. (i)
 1908 Utah, Murray: Lund School for Boys. (a)

STATE INSTITUTIONS

- 1861 District of Columbia, Washington: Industrial Home School. (a)
 1862 Iowa, Davenport: Iowa Soldiers' Orphans' Home. (a)
 1864 Nevada, Carson City: State Orphans' Home. (b)
 1864 Pennsylvania, Chester Springs: Soldiers' Orphan School. (a)
 1866 Massachusetts, Monson: State Primary School. Closed 1895. (b)
 1869 Illinois, Normal: Illinois Soldiers' Orphans' Home. (a)
 1874 Michigan, Coldwater: State Public School. (d)
 1881 New York, Watervliet: St. Colman's Industrial School and Orphanage. (a)
 1885 Rhode Island, Providence: State Home and School. (b)
 1886 Maine, Bath: Military and Naval Orphan Asylum. (a)
 1886 Minnesota, Owatonna: Minnesota State Public School. (c)
 1886 Wisconsin, Sparta: Wisconsin State Public School. (a)
 1887 Indiana, Knightstown: Indiana Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home. (b)
 1887 Kansas, Atchison: Home for Soldiers' Orphans. (b)
 1889 Texas, Corsicana: State Orphans' Home and School. (e)
 1894 Montana, Twin Bridges: State Orphans' Home. (a)
 1899 Nebraska, Lincoln: State Public School. (b: 94) Transferred from private control.
 1905 Pennsylvania, Scotland: Soldiers' Orphans' Industrial School. (a)
 1907 Colorado, Denver: Home for Dependent Children. The institution was established in 1896, but, according to its report of 1908, the school was not opened until 1907.
 1907 District of Columbia, Washington: Industrial Home School for Colored Children. (a)
 1909 Oklahoma, Taft: Institute for Negro Deaf, Blind, and Orphans. (f)

APPENDIX VI

PROVISIONS FOR THE FEEBLE-MINDED, RETARDED, AND EPILEPTIC

PRIVATE AND SEMI-PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS

Opened

- 1848 Massachusetts, Barre: "Elm Hill" Private Home and School for Feeble-Minded. (w)
- 1848 Massachusetts, Waverley: Massachusetts School for the Feeble-Minded. (w)
- 1852 Pennsylvania, Germantown: Pennsylvania Training School for Feeble-Minded Children. Moved to Elwyn in 1855. (c)
- 1870 Massachusetts, Fayville: Hillside Home. (d)
- 1878 New York, New York City: Seguin School for Children of Arrested Mental Development. Moved to Orange, N. J., in 1880. (w)
- 1880 Connecticut, New London: School for Backward and Delicate Boys. (d)
- 1881 Massachusetts, Amherst: Home School for Backward Children and Youth. (d)
- 1883 New Jersey, Haddonfield: Bancroft Training School. (w)
- 1884 California, Vallejo: Home for the Feeble-Minded. Moved to Alameda and became state institution in 1885. (b)
- 1884 Michigan, Kalamazoo: Wilbur Home and School. (d)
- 1886 Maryland, Baltimore: Gelston Heights. (d)
- 1887 New York, Amityville: Brunswick Home School. (d)
- 1888 New Jersey, Vineland: The Training School at Vineland. (w)
- 1889 New Jersey, Cranbury: "The Larches," Educational Sanitarium for Mentally Defective. (d)
- 1893 Kentucky, Farmdale: The Stewart Home and School. (w)
- 1893 Missouri, Marthasville: Emmaus Asylums for Epileptics and Feeble-Minded. (w)
- 1893 Pennsylvania, Sharon Hill: Miss McGrew's School for Boys of Defective Mentality. (d)
- 1893 Virginia, Falls Church: Virginia Home and Training School for Feeble-Minded and Epileptics. (d)
- 1896 Massachusetts, Newton: Hillbrow School. (d)
- 1897 Illinois, Godfrey: "Beverly Farm" Home and School for Nervous and Backward Children. (w)
- 1897 Minnesota, Northfield: Baker School for Backward Children. (d)

Opened

- 1897 New York, Newburgh: The Sycamore Farm Home School. (c)
- 1899 Michigan, Kalamazoo: St. Anthony's School for Feeble-Minded and Backward Children. (c)
- 1899 Pennsylvania, Philadelphia; Classes for Backward Children. Became part of the public school system in 1901. (*Charities*, XI: 391.)
- 1900 Colorado, Pueblo: Woodcroft School. (d)
- 1900 New York, Saratoga Springs: Miss Copeland's School. (d)
- 1900 New Jersey, Plainfield: Herbart Hall Institute for Atypical Children (The Groszman School). Originally begun in Virginia, it was moved to New York City and later to its present location. (w)
- 1901 Michigan, Detroit: Reed School for Backward and Nervous Children. (d)
- 1901 Missouri, St. Charles: Emmaus Asylums for Epileptics and Feeble-Minded. (w)
- 1901 Missouri, St. Louis: Miss Compton's School for Children of Retarded Mentality. (w)
- 1903 Iowa, Red Oak: Powell School for Backward and Nervous Children. (d)
- 1903 Pennsylvania, Lansdowne: Brookwood School for Nervous and Backward Children. (d)
- 1903 Wisconsin, Lake Geneva: "Oak Leigh" Educational Sanitarium. (d)
- 1904 Wisconsin, Watertown: Lutheran Home for Feeble-Minded. (d)
- 1904 Wisconsin, Jefferson: The St. Coletta Institute. (d)
- 1905 Tennessee, Murfreesboro: The Bristol-Nelson School for Sub-normal Children. (d)
- 1907 New York, Port Jefferson, Long Island: Brooklyn Home for Blind, Crippled, and Defective Children. (United States Census, Report of Benevolent Institutions, 1910.)
- 1909 Ohio, Marietta: Riverview School. (d)
- 1909 Texas, Austin: Texas School for Defectives. (d)
- 1911 Massachusetts, East Orleans: "Ivy Lodge" School for Backward Girls. (d)
- 1912 Pennsylvania, Philadelphia: The Biddle School for Nervous and Backward Children. (d)

STATE OR PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS

- 1851 New York, Albany: State Institution for Feeble-Minded Children. Later moved to Syracuse. (w)
- 1857 Ohio, Columbus: Institution for the Feeble-Minded. (w)
- 1858 Connecticut, Lakeville: Connecticut School for Imbeciles. (b)
- 1861 Kentucky, Frankfort: Kentucky Institution for Feeble-Minded Children. (d)

Opened

- 1865 Illinois, Jacksonville: State School and Colony. Moved to Lincoln in 1873. (b)
- 1870 New York, New York City, Randall's Island: New York City Children's Hospitals and Schools. (b)
- 1876 Iowa, Glenwood: Iowa Institution for Feeble-Minded Children. (w)
- 1879 Indiana, Richmond: Indiana School for Feeble-Minded Youth. Later moved to Fort Wayne. (b)
- 1880 Minnesota, Faribault: Minnesota School for Feeble-Minded and Colony for Epileptic. (w)
- 1881 Kansas, Lawrence: State Home for Feeble-Minded. Later moved to Winfield. (w)
- 1882 Massachusetts, Baldwinville: Hospital Cottages for Children. (d)
- 1885 California, Alameda: State Home for the Feeble-Minded. Transferred from semi-public control and finally located at Eldridge. (b)
- 1885 New York, Newark: State Custodial Asylum. (w)
- 1887 Nebraska, Beatrice: Nebraska Institution for Feeble-Minded Youth. (b)
- 1888 Maryland, Owings Mills: Maryland Training School for Feeble-Minded. (b)
- 1888 New Jersey, Vineland: New Jersey State Home for Care and Training of Feeble-Minded Women. (d)
- 1892 Washington, Vancouver: State School for Defectives. Later moved to Medical Lake and called State Institution for Feeble-Minded. (w, d)
- 1894 New York, Rome: State Custodial Asylum. (w)
- 1895 Michigan, Lapeer: Michigan Home for Feeble-Minded and Epileptic. (w)
- 1896 New York, Sonyea: Craig Colony for Epileptics. (w, x)
- 1896 Wisconsin, Chippewa Falls: Wisconsin Home for Feeble-Minded. (w)
- 1897 Pennsylvania, Polk: State Institution for Feeble-Minded of Western Pennsylvania. (w)
- 1898 New Jersey, Skillman: New Jersey State Village for Epileptics. (d)
- 1899 Missouri, Marshall: Missouri Colony for Feeble-Minded and Epileptic. (w)
- 1901 New Hampshire, Laconia: New Hampshire School for Feeble-Minded Children. (w)
- 1902 South Dakota, Redfield: State School and Home for Feeble-Minded. (d)
- 1904 North Dakota, Grafton: Institution for Feeble-Minded. (d)
- 1905 Montana, Boulder: Montana Training School for Backward Children. (w)

Opened

- 1907 Massachusetts, Wrentham: State School. (d)
 1907 Pennsylvania, Philadelphia: School for Backward Children at the University of Pennsylvania. (h)
 1908 Maine, West Pownal: Maine School for Feeble-Minded. (w)
 1908 Pennsylvania, Spring City: Eastern Pennsylvania State Institution for Feeble-Minded and Epileptic. (d)
 1908 Rhode Island, Slocum: Rhode Island School for the Feeble-Minded. (d)
 1910 Oklahoma, Enid: Institution for Feeble-Minded. (d)
 1910 Oregon, Salem: State Institution for Feeble-Minded. (New International Year Book, 1910.)
 1911 New York, Thiells: Letchworth Village. (c)
 1912 Colorado, Ridge: State Home and Training School for Mental Defectives. (d)
 1912 Wyoming, Lander: Wyoming School for Defectives. (d)
 1914 North Carolina, Kinston: North Carolina School for the Feeble-Minded. (d)

CITIES HAVING SPECIAL CLASSES

Opened

- 1896 Providence, R. I. (m)
 1898 Chicago, Ill. (m)
 1898 Springfield, Mass. (p)
 1899 Boston, Mass. (m)
 1899 Worcester, Mass. (m)
 1900 New York City. (n)
 1901 Westerly, R. I. (d)
 1901 Philadelphia, Pa. Transferred from private control. (*Charities*, XI: 391.)
 1903 Detroit, Mich. (m)
 1905 Cleveland, O. (m)
 1906 Bridgeport, Conn. (h)
 1906 Washington, D. C. (d)
 1906 Waukegan, Ill. (p)
 1906 Newtonville, Mass. (d)
 1906 Portland, Me. (p)
 1906 Rochester, N. Y. (m)
 1907 New Britain, Conn. (d)
 1907 Indianapolis, Ind. (d)
 1907 Saginaw, Mich. (h)
 1907-8 St. Louis, Mo. (h)
 1907 Camden, N. J. (d)
 1907 Passaic, N. J. (h)
 1907 Cincinnati, O. (m)
 1907 Reading, Pa. (m)

Opened

- 1909 New Rochelle, N. Y. (d)
 1909 Toledo, O. (d)
 1910 New Orleans, La. (h)
 1910 Somerville, Mass. (d)
 1910 Grand Rapids, Mich. (h)
 1910 Englewood, N. J. (h)
 1910 Montclair, N. J. (h)
 1910 Newark, N. J. (d)
 1910 Portland, Ore. (m)
 1910 Harrisburg, Pa. (d)
 1910 Seattle, Wash. (m)
 1910 Tacoma, Wash. (h)
 1910 Racine, Wis. (d)
 1911 Oakland, Cal. (d)
 1911 Denver, Colo. (h)
 1911 Chelsea, Mass. (d)
 1911 Bayonne, N. J. (h)
 1911 Jersey City, N. J. (d)
 1911 Trenton, N. J. (d)
 1911 Auburn, N. Y. (h)
 1911 Elmira, N. Y. (d)
 1911 Columbus, O. (m)
 1911 Coshocton, O. (d)
 1911 Dayton, O. (m)
 1911 Wilmerding, Pa. (d)
 1911 Richmond, Va. (m)

CITIES HAVING SPECIAL CLASSES—*Continued**Opened*

1908 Buffalo, N. Y. (m)
 1908 Mauch Chunk, Pa. (d)
 1908 Houston, Tex. (h)
 1908 Milwaukee, Wis. (c)
 1909 San Diego, Cal. (c)
 1909 Bloomington, Ind. (d)
 1909 Baltimore, Md. (m)
 1909 Lynn, Mass. (h)
 1909 Malden, Mass. (h)
 1909 Taunton, Mass. (d)
 1909 Elizabeth, N. J. (h)

Opened

1911 Spokane, Wash. (h)
 1912 Los Angeles, Cal. (d)
 1912 Aurora, Ill. (m)
 1912 Fall River, Mass. (m)
 1912 Jackson, Mich. (c)
 1912 Paterson, N. J. (m)
 1913 New Haven, Conn. (h)
 1913 Louisville, Ky. (m)
 1913 Cambridge, Mass. (h)
 1913 Bloomfield, N. J. (d)
 1913 Albany, N. Y. (m)

Up to March, 1911—According to Van Sickle, Witmer, and Ayres (p), 159 cities, aside from those already mentioned, reported special classes for the feeble-minded, or the retarded, or the epileptic.

For the year 1912-13—Witmer (q) lists the following:

39 additional cities as having newly organized such classes,

14 additional cities (previously unreported) maintaining such classes.

APPENDIX VII

PROVISIONS FOR CRIPPLES

PRIVATE AND SEMI-PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS

Opened

- 1861 New York, 321 E. 42d St., New York City: Hospital of the New York Society for the Relief of the Ruptured and Crippled. (c)
- 1866 New York, 126 E. 59th St., New York City: New York Orthopædic Dispensary and Hospital. (d)
- 1877 Pennsylvania, Philadelphia: Children's House of the Home for Incurables. (d)
- 1880 New York, 139th St. and Riverside Drive, New York City: House of the Holy Comforter for Incurables. (d)
- 1882 Pennsylvania, Philadelphia: Home of the Merciful Saviour for Crippled Children. (d)
- 1891 New York, Garden City, L. I.: House of St. Giles the Cripple. (d)
- 1891 New York, Tarrytown-on-the-Hudson: Robin's Nest. (d)
- 1892 New York, Broadway and 156th St., New York City: House of the Annunciation for Crippled and Incurable Children. (d)
- 1893 New Jersey, Englewood: Daisy Fields Home and Hospital for Crippled Children. (d)
- 1894 Massachusetts, Hyde Park: New England Peabody Home for Crippled Children. (l)
- 1895 New York, Spuyten Duyvil Parkway, New York City: Seton Hospital. (d)
- 1895 Maryland, Hillside, near Baltimore: James Lawrence Kernan Hospital and Industrial School of Maryland for Crippled Children. (d)
- 1896 Connecticut, Newington: Virginia T. Smith Home for Incurables. (d)
- 1897 Pennsylvania, Sewickley: Sewickley Fresh Air Home. (d)
- 1902 Pennsylvania, Pittsburgh: Industrial Home for Crippled Children. (d)
- 1903 Ohio, Cleveland: Holy Cross House. (d)
- 1903 New Jersey, Orange: New Jersey Orthopædic Hospital and Dispensary. (d)
- 1904 New York, Coney Island: Sea Breeze Hospital. (d)
- 1904 New York, Southampton: Summer Home for Crippled Children. (d)

Opened

- 1904 New York, White Plains: Country Branch and Industrial School of the New York Orthopædic Hospital and Dispensary. (d)
- 1906 Pennsylvania, Philadelphia: Widener Memorial School for Crippled Children. (d)
- 1907 New York, Port Jefferson, L. I.: St. Charles Hospital for Crippled Children. (d)
- 1907 Michigan, Detroit: Van Leuven Browne Hospital School. (d)
- 1907 Rhode Island, North Kingston: Crawford Allen Memorial Hospital. (d)
- 1907 Washington, Seattle: Children's Orthopædic Hospital. (d)
- 1908 New York, White Plains: St. Agnes Hospital for Crippled and Atypical Children. (d)
- 1909 Illinois, Maywood: Home for Disabled Children. (d)
- 1910 New York, Buffalo: Crippled Children's Home. (d)
- 1911 Illinois, R. D. No. 2, West Chicago: Convalescent Home for Destitute Crippled Children. (d)
- 1912 Maryland, Baltimore: Children's Hospital School. (d)

STATE OR PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS

- 1888 New York, Randall's Island, New York City: New York City Children's Hospital. (n)
- 1897 Minnesota, St. Paul: State Hospital for Indigent Crippled and Deformed Children. (d)
- 1900 New York, West Haverstraw: State Hospital for the Care of Crippled and Deformed Children. (d)
- 1905 Nebraska, Lincoln: Nebraska Orthopædic Hospital. (d)
- 1907 Massachusetts, Canton: Massachusetts Hospital School. (d)
- 1910 Minnesota, Phalen Park: Minnesota State Hospital and School for Indigent Crippled and Deformed Children. (Country Branch) (d)

PRIVATE DAY SCHOOLS

- 1890 New York, 350 E. 80th St., New York City: Rhinelander Industrial School for Crippled Children. (d)
- 1893 Massachusetts, Boston: Industrial School for Crippled and Deformed Children. (l)
- 1899 New York, 471 W. 57th St., New York City: William H. Davis Free Industrial School for Crippled Children. (d)
- 1899 New York, New York City: Avenue B School for Cripples of the Children's Aid Society. Closed in 1906 and classes transferred to a city public school. (n)
- 1900 New York, 155-9 Henry St., New York City: Crippled Children's East Side Free School. (d)
- 1902 New York, Foot of E. 26th St., New York City: Miss Spence's School Society. (d)

Opened

- 1904 New York, 18 LeRoy St., New York City: School for Cripples conducted by Guild for Crippled Children of the Poor. Closed in 1908 and classes transferred to a city public school. (n)
- 1906 New York, New York City: Day classes provided through the coöperation of the Board of Education and two private guilds. Board assumed entire responsibility in 1907. (g)
- 1907 Ohio, Cleveland: Day classes provided in the Public Schools through the coöperation of the Board of Education and the Sunbeam Circle. (f) Board assumed entire responsibility in 1913. (n)
- 1912 New York, 159th St. and Mott Avenue, the Bronx, New York City: Trade School of the Hospital of Hope for the Injured and Crippled. (Adult men.) (d)

CITIES HAVING SPECIAL CLASSES

Opened

- 1899 Chicago, Ill. (c)
- 1907 New York City. Transferred from semi-public control. (g)
- 1910 Detroit, Mich. (i)
- 1913 Baltimore, Md. (d)

Opened

- 1913 Newark, N. J. (m)
- 1913 Cleveland, O. Transferred from semi-public control. (n)
- 1913 Philadelphia, Pa. (d)

APPENDIX VIII

PROVISIONS FOR NON-ENGLISH-SPEAKING IMMIGRANTS

The following table indicates, by decades, the general movement of immigration to the United States:

TABLE 1. (d: 64)
TOTAL IMMIGRANTS AND THEIR ORIGIN

Years	Immigrants	From N. & W. Europe	From S. & E. Europe	Total from Europe	Other Specified Lands
1820-30	151,824	87.0%	2.9%	89.9%	10.1%
1830-40	599,125	92.5%	1.1%	93.7%	6.3%
1840-50	1,713,251	95.9%	.3%	96.2%	3.8%
1850-60	2,598,214	94.6%	.8%	95.5%	4.5%
1860-70	2,314,824	88.5%	1.5%	89.9%	10.1%
1870-80	2,812,191	73.7%	7.1%	80.8%	19.2%
1880-90	5,246,613	72.0%	18.3%	90.3%	9.7%
1890-1900	3,687,564	44.8%	52.8%	97.5%	2.5%
1900-10	8,795,386	21.8%	71.9%	93.7%	6.3%

(From 1820 to 1867 the figures are for alien passengers arriving; from 1868 to 1903, for immigrants arriving; from 1904 to 1906, for aliens admitted; from 1907 to 1910, for immigrant aliens admitted.)

In Table 2 the chief nationalities of the old and new immigration are compared as to their preferences for urban and rural communities, according to the United States census of 1910.

TABLE 2. (g: 902)

Old Immigration			New Immigration		
Land of Birth	Per cent.	Per cent.	Land of Birth	Per cent.	Per cent.
	Urban	Rural		Urban	Rural
Belgium.....	59.6	40.4	Austria.....	72.4	27.6
Denmark.....	48.3	51.7	Balkan States...	50.9	49.1
England.....	72.6	27.4	Finland.....	50.	50.
France.....	69.9	30.1	Greece.....	71.4	28.6
Germany.....	66.7	33.3	Hungary.....	77.3	22.7
Holland.....	54.9	45.1	Italy.....	78.1	21.9
Ireland.....	84.7	15.3	Portugal.....	69.4	30.6
Norway.....	42.2	57.8	Roumania.....	91.9	8.1
Scotland.....	72.4	27.6	Russia.....	87.	13.
Sweden.....	60.6	39.4	Turkey in Asia..	86.7	13.3
Switzerland....	53.9	46.1	Turkey in Eur..	79.5	20.5
Average.....	62.3	37.7	Average.....	74.1	25.9

CITIES HAVING SPECIAL CLASSES

<i>Opened</i>	<i>Evening Classes</i>	<i>Opened</i>	<i>Day Classes</i>
About 1870	New York City. (i)	1898	Worcester, Mass. (l)
About 1870	St. Louis, Mo. (k)	1901	Denver, Colo. (k)
About 1870	San Francisco. (k)	About 1901	Chicago, Ill. (l)
About 1882	Chicago, Ill. (l)	1902	Lincoln, Neb. (k)
About 1885	Boston, Mass. (l)	About 1902	Springfield, Mass. (l)
1891	Denver, Colo. (k)	1904-05	New York City. (j, l)
1891	Rochester, N. Y. (k)	1905	Trenton, N. J. (w)
1895	Louisville, Ky. (k)	1906	Rochester, N. Y. (k)
1900	Providence, R. I. (k)	1906	Cincinnati, O. (l)
1900	Indianapolis, Ind. (k)	1908	Lynn, Mass. (w)
About 1900	Philadelphia, Pa. (k)	About 1908	Boston, Mass. (l)
1900	Portland, Ore. (k)	About 1908	Cleveland, O. (k)
About 1901	Springfield, Mass. (l)	About 1909	Newark, N. J. (k)
1902	Seattle, Wash. (k)	1910	Somerville, Mass. (w)
1905	Cincinnati, O. (l)	1910	Bridgeport, Conn. (w)
1905	Atlanta, Ga. (k)	1911	Louisville, Ky. (k)
1905	Washington, D. C. (k)	1912	Bayonne, N. J. (w)
1906	La Porte, Ind. (k)	1912	Hackensack, N. J. (w)
1906	Grand Rapids, Mich. (k)	1912	Washington, D. C. (k)
About 1906	Buffalo, N. Y. (k)	1912	Pittsburgh, Pa. (k)
About 1908	Cleveland, O. (k)	1912	Providence, R. I. (k)
1909	East Saginaw, Mich. (k)	1913	Fall River, Mass. (w)
1909	Lincoln, Neb. (k)	1913	Hibbing, Minn. (w)
1911	Joliet, Ill. (k)	1913	Kansas City, Mo. (k)
1911	Richmond, Ind. (k)	1913	Buffalo, N. Y. (k)
1911	Bay City, Mich. (k)	1914	Philadelphia, Pa. (k)
1911	Kansas City, Mo. (k)	1915	Omaha, Neb. (k)
1912	Kalamazoo, Mich. (k)		
1912	Duluth, ¹ Minn. (k)		
1912	Pittsburgh, Pa. (k)		
1913	Aurora, Ill. (k)		
1913	Minneapolis, Minn. (k)		

Up to March, 1911—According to Van Sickle, Witmer, and Ayres (m), 173 cities, aside from those already mentioned, reported special night classes for non-English-speaking immigrants, and 60 cities reported special day classes.

For the year 1912-13—Witmer (n) lists the following:

- 23 additional cities as having newly-organized special night classes,
- 6 additional cities as having newly-organized special day classes,
- 9 additional cities (previously unreported) having special night classes,
- 2 additional cities (previously unreported) having special day classes.

¹ Originally inaugurated such classes in the '90's, but discontinued them till 1912. (k)

APPENDIX IX

OPEN-AIR SCHOOLS

The following table shows the total number of cities reporting open-air schools in each year since their inception in the United States:

Year	Number of cities
1908	3 (d)
1909	7 (d)
1910	15 (d)
1911	32 (d)
1912	60 (d)
1913	(¹)
1914	137 (q)

APPENDIX X

PROVISIONS FOR SPEECH DEFECTIVES

The following cities² maintain special classes for speech correction in their public day schools:

<i>Opened</i>		<i>Opened</i>	
1908-9	New York City. (g)	1912	Cincinnati, O. (k)
1909	Milwaukee, Wis. (h)	1912	Pittsburgh, Pa. (m)
1909-10	Minneapolis, Minn. (k)	1912-13	Washington, D. C. (m)
1910	Chicago, Ill. (i)	1913	St. Paul, Minn. (m)
1910	Detroit, Mich. (k)	1913	Princeton, N. J. (l)
1910	Portland, Ore. (k)	1913	Rochester, N. Y. (k)
1911	Jersey City, N. J. (l)	1913	Kenosha, Wis. (l)
1912	Decatur, Ill. (l)	1913-14	Appleton, Wis. (f)
1912	Boston, Mass. (k)		

¹ Thus far the writer has been unable to obtain a reliable total for the year 1913.

² Seattle, Wash., established a school of this kind in 1909, but it was discontinued at the end three months. (h)

APPENDIX XI

PROVISIONS FOR THE EXCEPTIONALLY GIFTED

The following cities report special schools or classes for exceptionally gifted pupils in their public school systems:

Opened

- 1900 New York City. (p)
- 1901 Worcester, Mass. (q)
- 1902 Baltimore, Md. (r)
- 1908 Indianapolis, Ind. (o)
- 1909 Lincoln, Neb. (v)
- 1910 Richmond, Ind. (v)
- 1910 Cincinnati, O. (o)
- 1910 Coshocton, O. (v)
- 1910 Harrisburg, Pa. (o)
- 1911 Concord, Mass. (v)
- 1912 Madison, Ind. (v)

Opened

- 1912 Montclair, N. J. (v)
- 1912 Johnstown, Pa. (v)
- 1913 Washington, D. C. (v)
- 1913 Boston, Mass. (o)
- 1913 Brockton, Mass. (v)
- 1913 Long Branch, N. J. (v)
- 1913 Hempstead, N. Y. (v)
- 1913 Waco, Tex. (v)
- 1914 Louisville, Ky. (v)
- 1914 Solvay, N. Y. (v)
- 1914 Lead, S. D. (v)

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