Delaware Federal Writers Project Papers

Volume 10

Mary Mazzeo
February 15, 1940

EDUCATION IN DELAWARE
Public Schools

EDUC. FILE

From Every Evening, Oct. 20, 1885, Page 1 - Col. 5.

An adjourned meeting of the Board of Education was held last night. There were to be considered by laws for expelling from the board members who failed to be present at 3 consecutive meetings or to be of dissolute habits or immoral character, also that an estimate of yearly expenses for each school to be made during June. The non-closing of schools on Good Friday or any other purely religious holidays. Promotion of only scholars averaging 70% at the time of promotion, vaccination of all school children, and the salary of the Secretary of the board at $200, and the Treasurer at $100, were some of the subjects up for discussion.

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From Delaware State Journal, Jan. 1, 1839.

Educational

From the Common School Journal

An elaboration on the value and reward of a sound education. (Expressions and ideas or opinions on education.) Nothing spectacular in the build up of education.

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Delaware State Journal, Jan. 25, 1839

Educational

Common School Education

(From a speech by Professor Taylor)

An elaboration on the unjust methods of applying any great class distinctions by the use of the common school. Stated that rich and poor are alike and the value of education

remains the same whether in private or in common schools. Also that education is "common as light and air are common but not inferior."

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From Delaware State Journal, Jan. 25. 1839

Extracts from proceedings of New Castle County Convention

There are 63 school districts in New Castle County, counting 9 united Wilmington districts as one. From 33 of these districts reports written or verbal were furnished to the convention. Schools are in operation in nearly all the districts reported. Many of those districts not reported have no schools, especially those in the south and southwestern sections of the County. Number of districts which do not support schools at all is 20.

Aggregate number of pupils at those schools which gave reports average 1,300, or 45 at each school, except Wilmington and New Castle where schools are larger and the number may be 35. There seems to have been an improvement in this respect since last report and it cannot be questioned that the average number of pupils is now quite sufficient for instruction and that more teachers will be needed. By the common mode of teaching, one teacher cannot do justice to more than thirty pupils. It will be noticed that the average number exceeds this and in some cases is doubled.

No. 23 school,	Christiana,	68 pupils
No. 2 & 6 " ,	Brandywine Hundred,	60 "
No. 52 " ,	Delaware City,	60 "
No. 8 " ,		50 "
No. 4 " ,		50 "
No. 27,35,57 ,		45 "

From report of Wilmington school it appears since the

organization 372 boys and 344 girls have been admitted, making 716 pupils. 217 pupils admitted in past year. Average number for year is 260.

117 pupils write on copy books, and the rest on slates.

Several new school houses have been built and paid for within the year.

The branches taught and the proportions of the scholars in the schools cannot be ascertained from the report.

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From Delaware Gazette, Feb. 18, 1840.

Excerpt from a letter to the Editor

.... It appears from the committee of the legislature that their report upon examination of the accounts of the late and present state treasurer, as settled by the auditor, were led to the conclusion that, as the late and present together had placed to the credit of the state the sum of $14,939.26 interest and dividends on the loan and installment of surplus money, under the act of Feb. 22, 1837, and which ought to have been placed to the credit of the school fund in accordance with the said act, that the school fund did not receive benefit of said sum. ..... But that the said act had been entirely overlooked.

The said sum of ($41,939.26) referred to by the committee was actually distributed and paid to the several school districts according to their respective rights, but the state to whose credit the same had been placed, was not thereupon charged with the payment thereof to the school fund. ..... Therefore there is no danger that the schools will be deprived of one cent of their fund. ....

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From Delaware State Journal, Dec. 22, 1840.

To the Friends of Education in Del.

By the census of the State published last week it appears that there are in this State 5,291 white adults who can neither read nor write.....

What shall be done? Our school fund is large and ample and the distribution liberal. The law with the exception of a few (as in the mode of collecting the school tax) is as good as can be devised. What then do we want? At all our school conventions the cry comes up we want more teachers. Increase the number of teachers and education will go ahead.

E. W. Gilbert

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From Delaware Journal, September 17, 1885, 1855 Page 2, Col. 3.

The Twentieth Annual School Convention

The twentieth annual School Convention of New Castle County convened at the City Hall, Wilmington, at 10½ A M Sept. 4, 1885 with Willard Hall in the chair. .....

Willard Hall was unanimously elected president.

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From Delaware Journal, Sept. 28, ~~1885.~~ 1855

In our paper will be found a report of the superintendent of public schools of this county. It contains many valuable suggestions and hints as regards improvements in our public school system. ....

Dr. Grimshaw is one of the most untiring indefatigable men in the State of Delaware and since his appointment he has been pressing his inquiries and examinations into the present school system, with untiring zeal and energy. .... We invite a careful

perusal of his report by the youth of the county and we hope that the efforts of the superintendent may be met with an amount of cheerfulness and spirit on the part of the public worthy the efforts of his applications and research.

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From Delaware Journal, Feb. 20, 1855.

Delaware Legislature

On motion of Mr. Biggs, the bill entitled a supplement to the act of the benefit of public schools of Wilmington was read a third time and passed the Senate.

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From Delaware Journal, Feb. 23, 1855.

The bill making many important alterations in the law regulating our public schools passed the House of Representatives this morning.

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From Delaware Journal, Mar. 9, ~~1885~~, 1855

Board of Education

At a meeting of the board of education, a committee was appointed to submit for consideration the most advantageous method of expending the $15,000 to be raised under the act just passed for the benefit of the common schools.

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From Every Evening, Feb. 24, 1879.

The citizens of school district No. 85 having voted "no tax," the school was compelled to close last week due to lack of funds.

The voters of school districts 39 & 41 held a meeting in Newark on Saturday and by a vote of 77 to 42 decided that the

time had not come to build a new schoolhouse.

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From Every Evening, Tues. Sept. 29, 1885.

After waiting until nearly 8:30 o'clock last night the Board of Education adjourned without any business being transacted, there not being a quorum present. ....

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From Delaware Gazette, Feb. 3, 1837.

.... A supplement to the present act of the establishment of free schools introduced by Mr. Hamilton has passed the House, but as we have not seen the bill, we are most ignorant of the changes in the present law which it contemplates. .....

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From Delaware Gazette, Feb. 14, 1837.

The bill, supplement to our school law, has passed both houses.

(Beginning on Feb. 17, 1837, there appeared a series of long letters or dissertations on pupular education. They appeared about twice weekly.)

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From Delaware Gazette.

Beginning on Feb. 17, 1837 there appeared a series of letters or dissertations on pupular education.

Letter No. 2 - Feb. 24, 1837

A long discussion of the qualificationsand abilities of teachers, examinations and new methods of employing teachers, etc. ....

Letter No. 3 - Mar. 7, 1837.

Discussed the morals and general principles of the schools

under a new system.

Letter No. 1 - Feb. 17, 1837. P. 2

A long dissertation on the defects of the common schools, cost, comparisons, conditions, terms and various other phases of education in the schools. These letters were signed

Misenus

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From Delaware Gazette, Aug. 20, 1841

School Laws

The edition of the school laws authorized by the act of the last general assembly has been published, and the required number of copies has been sent to the Clerk of the Peace for each county.

Every member of the school committee is entitled to one which he can obtain by applying to the Clerk of the Peace of his county and he is required to deliver the same to his successor in office - (see laws of last session P. 408-409)

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From Delaware Journal, Feb. 2, 1855.

Public schools

The bill to borrow $15,000 for the public schools of Wilmington has just passed the House and is now before the Senate.

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From Delaware Journal & Statesman, Sept. 27, 1859. P. 2. Col. 5.

School Convention

Mr. Editor

Allow me to inquire through your column why it is that no county school convention has been held this year. Although the convention has been, in earlier years, held earlier than the present, we suggest that the proper person or persons immediately

issue a call for the assembling of a convention on Sat. Oct. 15th.

(Communication)

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From Delaware State Journal, Sept. 2, 1859.

Letter to the Editor

Public schools

.... Much has been said and much may be said on the subject of public schools and late events will turn to direct the attention of thinking men not only to the necessity for good "grammar schools" but in the selection of managers and directors and inquiring into the measures adopted by the Board.

A notice for a meeting to conduct an examination of teachers preparatory to the re-opening of schools next week, calls to the mind of the writer a matter of interest to teachers and possibly to the public in general. An item in the local city papers of a few months ago informed us that a female teacher would hereafter receive an increased salary amounting altogether to the most handsome sum of 7 to 9 hundred dollars.

Think of it, 20,000 inhabitants and $50,000 in public school property and not a single male teacher is employed, a case which finds not a parallel in this land or any other.

But we are asked to submit to reign of and here is the w eakest part of the argument.

Before we find an item purchasing a costly lot on which to erect a building, the authority for which hinged on a doubtful contingency, since we learn by the item already quoted a salary voted to a favorite female teacher nearly double that of any other teacher and larger than was ever paid to the best male teacher we ever had. It is said then that in consideration of this sum two schools are superintended. But is it just to pay such a large

sum to one who is entirely dependent upon the labors of the poorly paid assistant for the management and order of the school. The salaries are widely disproportionate and should be equalized at once.

We think it is more desirable to know more of the doings of those who control so large a portion of the city's revenues, about which so much is said just now, and if the city council can afford to present to the public, a report of their proceedings, why are we not supplied with a monthly statement of this most important body? and the public more enlightened as to whom they are indebted for motions and votes on questions affecting the welfare of teachers, scholars and citizens.

We ought to know who are foremost in using the credit of the board for purchasing first class town lots and the names of members who are so infatuated as to enrich the teacher with several months back pay and high salary in the future at the expense of not only the city but at a sacrifice of feeling of many who have a stronger claim for favor than those who receive them so liberally.

A Wilmingtonian

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From Every Evening, Feb. 19, 1879.

Our Public Schools

The report of the state superintendent of schools Groves has been printed and it contains some very interesting statistics and comments relating to our public schools. The whole number of schools in the state is 404, not including school rooms in the city of Wilmington. The average number of months taught including Wilmington schools in 1877 was 7.5. .... The whole number of school children in 1877 was 23,830. Cost per pupil not

including books was in 1877 7.72, being a decrease since 1875 of 91 cents. In 1877 there were employed in our public schools 402 teachers, being 28 less. The average monthly salary of teachers not including the Wilmington schools in 1877 was $29.53. (Following shows report of value of school property and other interesting facts. .....

In regard to teachers and their examinations, the superintendent says:

Four years ago our teachers were subject to an examination in only 4 subjects, written arithmetic, English grammar, U. S. history, and geography, with perhaps a few questions on theory and practise. Year by year additions have been made until at the last meeting teachers were required to stand a rigid examination in orthography, reading, penmanship, mental arithmetic, geography, English grammar, History of United States, and theory and practice of teaching.

From my personal knowledge and careful calculation I am satisfied that of the 462 teachers who were examined and received certificates not more than 1/5 of the same could have passed then the examination required this year. ....

.... The schools of Sussex County are steadily improving even in the face of unsurmountable difficulties. The schools are being taught by men and women full of enthusiasm and eager in most cases to accomplish a great work. Whatever peculiar views may be had by some people the fact forces itself upon my mind that the time is not far distant when Sussex County will be loudest in demand for a thorough system of education. ....

Of Kent County schools in more than 2/3 of Kent County are in prosperous condition. The remaining schools seem to be left in much the same condition as they were years ago or with very

little change perceptible. The plan of retaining a teacher in the same school for the entire year is being tried in the greater number of schools. Number of teachers in the county is smaller than when last reported.

... In some schools it has been supposed that female teachers were not able to master the winter schools but experience has proved otherwise.

Of New Castle County, more thorough systems and perfect methods are taking the place of the old order of things. Unlike Sussex and a part of Kent, pupils are not compelled on account of short sessions to go back and restudy the things passed over in the previous year, but can pursue, review and finish studies in a reasonable time.

The report is quite voluminous and contains other valuable information but too diffusely given to permit publication in a newsletter.

Annual Catalogue of the Wesleyan Female College

Wilmington, Delaware

THINGS REQUIRED

Order, Regularity and Industry, must be observed in every department of the College, both by teachers and pupils. The Government is based upon reasonable and necessary rules, and it will be administered with mildness and firmness. Observence and self-denial are necessary to the present happiness and future welfare of the students, and, for their own benefit, they are required to observe the following regulations:

1. To manifest, at all times, proper respect and politeness to their teachers and fellow students, and to all persons in whose company they may be.

2. To rise in the morning at the given signal, have their rooms in order before breakfast, and open to the inspection of the teacher at all times, to avoid sitting or lounging on their beds, to obey, promptly, the retiring bell, and preserve silence in their rooms.

3. To walk at the times appointed, unless excused by the Teacher in charge for the week.

4. To attend Church on Sabbath morning and evening, unless excused for sufficient reasons, which, must be given Preceptress in the Ladies' Parlor immediately after breakfast, Sabbath morning.

5. To attend to all shopping, &c., under the direction of a teacher, on Saturday morning, and at no other time unless by special permission from the Governess.

6. To deposit with the teacher on the Hall, money and other valuables, to be called for when needed; if kept by themselves and lost through negligence or otherwise, the College will not be responsible for them.

7. To place all letters for the mail in the box in the library.

8. To be provided with an umbrella, towels, table-napkins, fork, spoon and napkin-ring, one pair of pillow-cases, one pair of sheets, one pair of blankets, and a clothes bag. Every article of clothing should be legibly marked with full name.

THINGS FORBIDDEN

1. To leave the premises, under any circumstances, without permission.

2. To write on, or otherwise deface, the walls of the rooms or any part of the buildings.

3. To send or receive letters or notes through day pupils.

4. To remove articles of furniture from one room to another; to throw things from the windows, or to talk from the windows to persons on the street, or in the yard, or from one building to another, or to lounge upon or lean out of the windows.

5. To visit the kitchen or dining-room, except for meals.

6. To send into town by the servants for anything without permission from the Governess, or to have any unnecessary conversation with the servants.

7. To sleep in each other's room, or to borrow articles of clothing of school-mates without permission.

8. To do any secular work on the Sabbath day.

9. To open store accounts, or to contract debts of any kind. The occupants of rooms will be held responsible for all improper conduct in them, and for all injury done to the rooms or furniture, and the cost of repairs will be assessed upon them.

VISITING-- Young ladies can visit,

(1) On their own Halls in the evening, from the close of school till tea.

(2) Other Halls on Saturday afternoons.

(3) In town only once a month, when deportment is satisfactory, at the discretion of the President.

MEALS--promptness and regularity in attending meals must be observed by teachers and by students. No student is to absent herself from a meal unless excused by a teacher. If one remains away through sickness, her case must be reported by her room-mate, or a teacher, to the Governess, that she may receive proper attention.

The young ladies are required, on Saturday forenoons, when not engaged in other duties, to be in their rooms repairing their clothing; &c., and no visiting allowed.

Orphanages

Name	Location	Name of Order
St. James' Protectory (Grade School) (Boys)	Reybold	Sisters of St. Francis
St. Peter's Female Orphanage Asylum (Girls) Taught at St. Peter's Parochial School, 6th & Tatnall.	6th & West Sts.	Sisters of Charity
Mater Admirabiles (Polish) (Male & female) (Grade School)	Ogletown	Felician Order

Industrial School

St. Joseph's (Boys) colored	Clayton	Josephite Fathers and Sisters of St. Francis

Capuchin Franciscan Novitiate and Missionary Home (St. Patrick's) R.D. 3 Silverside Road
1931

Parochial Schools.

Name	Location	Name of Order
St. Peter's	6th & Tatnall Sts.	Sisters of Charity
St. Peter's	New Castle	Sisters of St. Francis
St. Joseph's	Henry Clay	Sisters of St. Francis
St. Mary's	Lord & Pine Sts.	Sisters of St. Francis
Sacred Heart	10th & Monroe Sts.	Order of St. Benedict
St. Ann's	Shallcross Ave. & Union St.	Sisters of St. Francis
St. Paul's	4th & Van Buren Sts.	Sisters of St. Francis
St. Hedwig's	Linden & Harrison Sts.	Felician Order
St. Patrick's	14th & French Sts.	Sisters of St. Francis
St. Joseph's (col.)	11th & French Sts.	Sisters of St. Francis
St. Thomas'	4th St. & Bayard Ave.	Sisters of St. Francis
St. Elizabeth's	Cedar & S. Rodney Sts.	Order of St. Benedict
St. Stanislaus Kostka	8th & Buttonwood Sts.	Felician Order
St. Anthony of Padua (Kindergarten)	9th & Scott Sts.	Sisters of St. Francis
Christ Our King	28th & Monroe Sts.	Sisters of St. Joseph

Secular Schools.

Ursuline Academy (High School for Girls)	1106 Penns Ave.	Ursuline Order
Salesianum (High School for Boys)	801 West St.	Oblates of St. Francis de Sales.
Archmere Academy (Prep. School for Boys)	Claymont	Order of Premontre Fathers

Location - Wilmington, Del.

Submitted by - Ellen Samworth

Date - March 26, 1936

PRIVATE PAROCHIAL SCHOOLS

Connected with the Roman Catholic churches of this city is an interesting phase of PRIVATE education with which the general public seldom comes in contact.

Many of the children of families of the Catholic denomination receive the greater part of their education in parochial schools. These schools do not come under the jurisdiction of the City or State Board of Education, but are conducted independently. The members of the faculty are all nuns of various orders, and the pastor of the church is the principal of the school. While time is devoted to religious training, the students in the parochial schools are given the same courses as the pupils of the public, primary, grammar, and junior high schools receive.

A change in the program of instruction is made after the eighth year, when a commercial COURSE is offered, which is equivalent to the training given in the junior and senior classes of the senior public high school.

The schools now existing were not established without encountering the same difficulties which were ~~not~~ MET by other educational institutions, which were established in the latter part of the nineteenth century. There were no school buildings available, and each church desiring to establish an educational program was forced to build a structure to accommodate the students, an undertaking which incurred heavy expense.

All the churches in the city of the Catholic faith have parochila schools including the two Polish churches, St. Stanislaus and St. Hedwigs, and one colored school, connected with St. Joseph's R. C. Church. The nuns teaching in the parochila schools are for the most part members of the Franciscan Order, although there are a few exceptions. Instructors at the Sacred Heart School and St. Elizabeth's School are members of the Benedictine Order. Christ Our King, the most recent addition to the church schools of this city, is under the direction of the sisters of the Order of St. Joseph.

Among the pioneers of the existing religious schools were St. Joseph's-on-the-Brandywine, which was built about 1840, and St. Peter's Parochial School, which has been conducted for many years. The former was established and still is conducted by Sisters of the Order of St. Francis. In 1841, Mrs. Amelia duPont donated land for the construction of a home for the sisters of the church, which was completed the same year.

~~St. Joseph's School~~ The Church of St. Joseph was built near the Banks of the Brandywine in 1841 by the forethought and the earnestness of P. M. Brennan, who was clerk for Charles I. DuPont Company, large woolen manufacturers on the east side of the creek. Charles I. duPont gave one acre of land on which the church now stands.

Another half acre on each side of the church was purchased for $100 and on the westerly side the modern school was built and the easterly side is the site on which the pastor's home is located.

The school is in charge of the Sisters of St. Joseph and has an enrollment of about 215 pupils.

St. Peter's School On February 1, 1926, the students of St. Peter's School went to their studies in a new $150,000 school, located at Sixth and Tatnall Street, with an enrollment of 215 pupils.

The school is conducted by the Sisters of Charity, and is successor to the private boarding school for girls, which was at one time connected with the church. The old academy was located in the building at the N. W. corner of Sixth and West Street, which is now used as a home for orphan girls.

Ursuline Academy Ursuline Academy is the leading Catholic school for girls in Wilmington with a new building, modern in every respect, costing a quarter of a million dollars, which is located at Pennsylvania Avenue and Franklin Street. The school has an enrollment of about 300 students.

The Reverend Mother Olympias is the superior mother and head of the Academy. The institution was founded by the Ursuline Sisters in 1893 and is affiliated with the New Rochelle College in New York. The sisters came to this city from Bedford Park, New York, to succeed the Visitation Sisters who had conducted a boarding and day school for girls since 1868. The first few years following the establishment of the academy were a continual struggle and in 1909, Bedford Park recalled the sisters. At the request of Rt. Rev. John J. Monoghan, then Bishop of the Diocese of Wilmington, a few of the sisters volunteered to remain in this city and continue their efforts to establish a successful school. Their faith was justified.

When the enrollment reached 40, the members of the faculty and Board of Directors were enthused, and the institution began to show signs of being successful. In 1915, the enrollment reached 300 pupils, and it was necessary to have more room. In the same year work was started on the construction of the building at Pennsylvania Avenue and Franklin Street.

Salesianum School The Salesianum Catholic High School for boys was established by the Oblate Fathers more than twenty-eight years ago. It has an enrollment of 175 boys, and according to Father George A. Maloney, 300 boys are turned away at the beginning of the school term because of the lack of room. The school was started in 1903.

St. Mary's School St. Mary's School at Sixth and Pine Street, modern in every respect, was begun in 1858, under the supervision of the Sisters of St. Joseph and the site selected for the school was owned by Father P. Reilly, to whom the Catholics of Wilming ~~on~~ owe much of their education.

Sacred Heart School In 1857, Father Stenzel, recently from Germany was sent to this city to preach to a congregation of German Catholics in the chapel of St. Mary's College which was volunteered by Father Reilly until a church could be built. After a year's service here, Father Stenzel went back to Philadelphia and the German Catholics were without the services of their language.

The Sacred Heart Church was founded by the Rev. Wendaline Mayer, O. S. B., and soon after his death in 1881, the school as an annex to the church was constructed.

During the past years, evening courses have been started in many of the Parochial schools.

Mary Mazzeo
Feb. 15, 1940

From Delaware State Journal and Statesman, Oct. 4, 1859

The Hannah More Academy

Eighth and West streets, Wilmington

A school for young ladies.

The thirty second session of this well established institution will commence on the first Monday of September. This academy offers peculiar advantages to ladies who desire to prepare themselves to teach.

For terms apply to Charlotte Isabella A. H. Grimshaw Principal. Aug. 22. m.

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From Delaware State Journal and Statesman, Oct. 4, 1859

Miss McLean's

Boarding and day school for young ladies.

Orange street.

The next session will commence on Wed. Sept. 7th. No pupil will be accepted for a shorter term than one year. Notice of one month required previous to removal.

Circulars obtained on application to

Miss McLean

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From Delaware State Journal and Statesman, Oct. 4, 1859

Young Ladies Institute

Wilmington Delaware

Number limited to thirty. Rev. T. M. Cann principal assisted by experienced teachers.

School buildings 622 King Street

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From Delaware State Journal and Statesman, Sept. 23, 1859

Professor Shelps Writing Academy

Professor Shelps Writing Academy has engaged rooms in Flint's buildings 519 Market streets, this city, and opened a writing academy. His second class will begin Monday, Oct. 3rd. He has secured the services of a qualified person to give instruction in bookkeeping and a class will be formed Oct. 17th. The great success which has attended this gentleman, and the fact that he has been selected to teach the beautiful art of penmanship in some of the best schools and colleges in the country, are the best guarantees that can be given as to his ability as an instructor. Heretofore in this city his patronage has been very extensive, never failing to secure a class in a very short time. Those who wish to make applications should do so immediately so as to secure seats.

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From Delaware Gazette, Mar. 14, 1837 -- Page 2.

Seminary for Young Ladies

Miss M. C. Smith Ladies Seminary is one of the most flourishing institutions of this city. It has been in operation several years and has enjoyed a patronage and reputation that has been rarely excelled by any institution of this kind. Indeed we believe it is the only seminary in Wilmington where music and other female accomplishments may be acquired.

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From Delaware State Journal, Jan. 23, 1855

Thomas W. More

Writing Academy

Has removed to 120 Market Street below fifth. Pupils received.

Visiting & wedding cards written.

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From Delaware State Journal, Jan. 30, 1855

The Rev. Asa A. Colton proposes to open a select school for boys on Feb. 12, in the upper room of the old Presbyterian Church, Market Street above ninth.

Terms about as usual.

Number not to exceed 25 pupils.

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From Delaware State Journal, Feb. 6, 1855

The Middletown Academy

There is a petition before the legislature by most of the leading citizens of Middletown and vicinity, praying for some alteration in the charter of the Academy. The principal of the academy was opposed to these alterations .... Wrote a letter to the members of the house.

Letter was read and became public property.

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From Delaware Gazette, June 26, 1840

Writing academy on Shipley street two doors north of post office open for ladies and gentleman from 8: A.M.to 3 P. M. where Messrs. French will continue to receive pupils daily for a short time. Messrs. French feel confident in saying that their method of penmanship will reform any writing however bad to a style of uniformity, ease and facility in a few easy lessons and that the hand thus acquired is in no danger of being lost.

We have numerous testimonials from some eminent men, and specimens of improvement as we believe beyond a doubt, to confirm our statements to any who will favor us with a call at the academy. Practical or ornamental writing, pen making, and stenography taught. All who need our instructions are respectfully invited to make an early application.

For further particulars see handbills.

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From Delaware State Journal and Statesman, Oct. 28, 1859

The St. Andrews New Mission School

The St. Andrews New Mission School, corner of Third and Washington streets, will be opened for religious exercises on Sunday next at 9 o'clock in the morning until half past three in the afternoon. The scholars are particularly requested to be present. The house is a very neat edifice recently erected under the auspices of the St. Andrews Protestant Episcopal Church, this city, to supply the place of the building formerly occupied by them on Front street. Those connected with this laudable enterprise deserve credit for their praiseworthy efforts to impart both mental and religious instructions to those young residing in that locality. We anticipate that a flourishing school will soon be the result.

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From Evening Journal, Feb. 18, 1879

Fire at Claymont

Mrs. Washington's boarding school burned down last night. The school took fire about six thirty and was entirely consumed only the stone wall left standing. The building was partly of stone and partly of wood and the fire originated in the northern end which was wood. Most of the furniture was saved but some of the boarders lost their personal effects.

Fears were expressed for the Protestant Episcopal Church near by, the wind blowing in that direction, but the coating of

snow on the roof prevented it taking fire.

The fire made a great light and drew a large crowd but nothing could be done to arrest its progress. The fire started in the part of the building occupied by servants, who lost all their clothes except what they had on.

The building was insured but the fire occurring in the midst of a school term will prove a serious loss to Mrs. Washington.

The building belonged to Mrs. Croff and the loss is estimated at $5,000.

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From Every Evening, Sept. 21, 1885

The Academy of Newark opens its fall term with more than twice its usual number of students. It is under the new management of Dr. Albert N. Raub (late of the State Normal School at Lock Haven, Pa.). This is the 119th year of the institution, it being the oldest Academy under Presbyterian control in the country. This institution is without debt and has a fine endowment raised by Benjamin Rush and others.

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Education

LOCATION - - Statewide File No.240

Submitted by J. Barton Cheyney,

Date August 7,1936.

Spared Neither Rod Nor Pupils.

The inital public schools in Delaware and the Eastern Shore were usually founded on the pledge of the people of the neighborhood promising to send twelve pupils and pay five dollars each for the schooling. The State agreed to furnish the same amount of money and the same number of children. The school house perhaps had already done service as a Negro cabin, a wagon shed or a barn - of course enclosed against the wintry blasts and storms. The first teacher of the school on the borderland between Maryland and Delaware who was typical of teachers of that time was Nathan Wilson. He was a Quaker and a bachelor and engaged board and lodgings with another Quaker family in the immediate neighborhood. Stipulating that he would eat but two meals a day, he saved 30 per cent of the sum exacted for three meals daily. On Saturdays he did his own washing and ironing, patching and darning. He owned an economy suit of gray cassinette. When a garment became thread-bare, Teacher Wilson bought a piece of material as nearly as possible like the original the same quality and color. He would replace the worn underside of the coat sleeves or ~~replace~~ renew the front panel of his pants or any other article that needed replacing. Eventually every imaginable shade of gray and every possible quality of Cassinette found its way into the teacher's suit.

As a general rule pupils were not permitted to attempt reading until they had mastered the spelling book even to such words, as"concatenation"and "Hieroglyphically". One word was

composed by the teacher as the test for the pupils' fitness for advancement into reading; even-~~such~~ so simple as the reading of the "Wren," and Robin RedBreast and the Lion. This test word was honorifticablitudeanditatibusque. When the pupil could spell and repeat the huge medley of nonsense, going back at each syllable and pronouncing up to and including the last syllable spelled in regular order without a hitch or blunder the teacher reached the conclusion that such a student was worthy of taking up "reading". Introduction to the English Reader came next provided the pupil could conveniently obtain a copy from which to study. This being impossible the New Testament was pressed into a service as a text book if there were a Bible on the family library shelf.

The bachelor Quaker teacher was a firm believer in the efficiency of the rod as an aid to school discipline or as a mental stimulant to children who did not study their lessons. There was no way to escape a flogging for one who had broken a rule of the school. These were so numerous and vague as well as variable, that it was a lucky day for the student who wasn't stood up and soundly flogged. One narrator of his experiences under the Quaker School teacher, declared for most of the whippings administered to him he was unable to find the slightest cause or reason unless it be that the teacher felt impelled to maintain an average of one flogging a day throughout the entire term of school.

It was impossible for to ascertain the cause that brought the daily floggings and the teacher was too dignified and quiet

to furnish an explanation. Day after day although entirely unconscious of violating any of Master Wilson's rules his hickory plied with unerring aim would roll from the chastized boys. The schedule meant that the disciplined pupil was to take the hickory switch back to the teacher's desk and unprotestingly stand to receive the chastisement supposed to be needed for intellectucal development.

They made many solemn and earnest decisions to square up accounts with Teacher Wilson when they reached man's estate. All joined in the condemnation of the teacher and were likewise waiting only for manly strength to turn on the flogger and administer a whipping that would atone for the cruel treatments with hickory switches. However, when they had attained to the size and strength they had hoped for all unanimously foreswore intent of revenge on the gpound that it would have been dishonorable to thrash a non-combatant.

The son of the house wherein Wilson boarded, however, ventured to resent the frequent application of the hickory to his back. The lad was seventeen and insisted that he had not violated any of the school rules - and the battle was on. It only lasted five minutes, but in that brief interval the school room and its benches were wrecked. Books, slates, with stands, hats, dinner baskets were scattered promiscuously. Girls screamed and boys mounted their desk tops for safety; When the hostilities ceased it was shown that blood had been drawn from the boy's face and hands and his teeth had drawn blood from the Quaker teacher'a leg. The battle resulted

in the teacher losing one of the tails of his coat and trousers were torn into shreds. Wilson and his tyrannical methods were not exceptional in the effort to enforce study and discipline in the first decades of the last century.

The Quaker teacher's administration lasted but a single winter -. His successor was a good fellow, a disbeliever in the rod, but an excellent judge of whiskey and similar strong drink, a qualification acquired by a long series of years in frequently partaking of the fruits of vine, the corn, or the rye. He brought with him to school, regularly in his dinner basket a large black bottle from which he took not infrequent draughts of medicine"to keep off the Ager," he explained. It has been a long way from the primitive schools held in any discarded old building with the pupils obliged in some cases to walk to and from eight or nine miles a day to the present community public schools of the state, the buildings costing perhaps a million dollars where the pupils are supplied with lunch and driven to school daily and back without money or without price, both for whites and blacks.

q
REFERENCE: -

Methodism in the Peninsula, Robert W.Todd,
(1 Vol. p.250 pp.336) Methodist Episcopal
Book Concern, Philadelphia,Pa. 1886.

Ellen Samworth

May 11,1937

Brief Chronology of Education Progress in
Delaware During the Pre-Revolutionary period.

Each national group colonizing America brought a contribution to education in terms of their national background and of their purpose in colonizing.

1640 Sweden came to plant homes and with the second expedition sent Reverend Reorus Torkillus to teach in the highest office the teacher holds, that of minister, strengthening that best first school at mother's knee in the home.

1643 Governor Johan Printz brought Reverend Johan Campanius (Holm), a student and an educator, who fulfilled the terms of his commission "to have at heart the conversion of the natives "not only by teaching them but by learning their language and making for them a translation of Luther's shorter catechism so that they might have their own further means of instruction. First translation in America.

1697-1738 Charles Christopher Springer, native of Stockholm, carried on the Swedish language and the Lutheran religion as
1700 lay reader and teacher in absence of ministers. Engaged by Indians to teach their children. In 1698, he was forester for the Jesuits of Md.

1700 Reverend Ericus Biork established the first formal Swedish school "with an able teacher, Swen Colsberg at the head of it.

1699 First school master of record at Christianham, Swen Colsberg, bell-ringer and schoolmaster. Epidemics hindered school keeping.

ne 17, 17 Johan Gioding kept a famous, or rather an interesting, Swedish school in Johan Stalcup's house. The first record of a Parent- Teacher-Association in Delaware. He was a "leader among his people,- - - - discussed their doctrines with the Quakers and refuted their ideas in regard to dancing, etc."

0 - 1841 The Swedish schoolmasters who came to New Sweden to teach were generally university men, educated at Skara or Abo, or Lund, and coming with credentials, thus long ante-dating present- day teacher requirements.

20 Bishop Swedberg, counsellor of the Swedish King, Charles XI, and father of the famous Emanuel Swedenborg, sent his own son, Jesper Swedberg who taught school for more than a year in New Sweden.

41 Frederick, King of Sweden, donated two pieces of jubilee medals to two Swedish schoolmasters in New Sweden in 1841, which is an evidence that the existence of schools in the Swedish settlements was recognized in the mother country.

49 Acrelius urged the people to preserve in its purity the Swedish language (the French of the North) and advised them to employ Herr Nils Forsberg a graduate of the University of Lund as teacher. The homes were so scattered about the country that a schoolhouse was impractical and he lived from house to house in turn, instructing the children in their homes. Thus the Swedes used the plan of "boarding around". Sickness hindered this type of school-keeping so he gave it up. Later he began to keep a school in Swedish in the house of Mr. Timothy Stedham but having few children and those from neighboring homes only, he gave it up and thus endeth the

record of Swedish schools in Delaware. TP Dutch settlements in America were trading centers and not colonies of home builders, and the educational record is brief, not that the Dutch authorities were less keen about education, but that the Dutch West India Company and its colonists were keener about money making.

656-1657 The first Delaware schoolmaster was Dutch, Evert Pietersen, sent by Amsterdam with the first expedition to the City Colony. He was schoolmaster and Zicken-Trooster to read God's word and lead the singing, comfort the sick and fill the place of spiritual guide until an ordained minister should come. What a wonderful curriculum for a teacher to interpret. Not qualified by a university only but led of God. Equally good men followed Pietersen. The last of the three, Abelius Zetscoven seems to have been a Swede, and an ordained minister.

672 There are ~~wonderful~~ traditions concerning Lewes schools. The first one of the illustrious Wiltbanks, Hermanus, who came to Lewes in 1650, He is said to have donated a lot for a school in 1672 when he was appointed Schout. We have no record of a school having been built so early but the Society of Friends met regularly for worship in his house. ~~and whenever the first school may have been built in Lewis,~~ The town enjoys the distinction of having many fine things in education such as girls' schools, women teachers, outstanding men who developed their teaching ability in the schools of Lewes and became teachers in higher institutions.

4-1682 Who came after the Dutch in school history? Did the Church of England? ~~with~~ The Duke of York's provision calling on Constable and Overseers to Admonish the Inhabitants in instructing their children and Servants in matters of Religion and the Laws of the Country? No school-house ~~was~~ needed nor was built for that teaching.

Presbyterians have a firm belief in education being necessary to religions development~~s~~. In order to read the Bible, Even the servants in a Presbyterian household own a Bible and are able to read. Did they build schools next or did the Quakers who sailed with William Penn on the "Welcome" calling at New Castle to receive Delaware allegiance in 1682? Let us see.

83 Enoch Flowers School in Pennsylvania. (Friehd).

89 Friends Public School in Philadelphia became the present Penn Charter School.

86 Christopher Taylor's classical school established on Tinicum Island; A school of such high scholarship as led Tinicum to be called "College Island."

83-1692- ~~1711~~ 1701 Dutch, German and English Friends establishing a Meeting house with a school in it or beside it where ever five or six Quaker families settled.

84 The Friends Quarterly Meeting of Philadelphia established a meeting at New Castle.

58 Meeting was raised and the Friends attended at Wilmington.

77-1680 Some authorities state that the ship Kent arrived in New Castle, 1677, with 230 passengers, mostly Friends of good faith.

Their arrival led to the building of this old Quaker church and the laying out of the old burying ground. N.W. from the foot of Vine Street, and the erection of a school house on Union Street on the N. W. side thereof a few yards N.E. of South Street. A frame structure probably of logs was the school house.

689 "The Friends Public School", one of the oustanding schools of today known as the William Penn Charter School,
697 had its origin at this time, it was incorporated in 1697 and
701 confirmed and extended in 1701, 1708 and 1711. Thus early
708 a real public school was projected which lost its public character almost while it was a-borning. George Keith was the first teacher of this school. Part of his salary was the profits of the school for one year. Did his Scotch thrift lead him to look for profit from every one and thus shut the poor out? His ~~asker~~ usher was Thomas Makin or Meakins
693 who keep a free school in Philadelphia as early as 1693. In that year the council required him to secure " a certificate of his learning, diligence, and ability from the inhabitants of note in this town."

693 After securing the testimonials the council gave Meakins a license to teach. One of the first (perhaps the first) instance of a teacher's public school certi-
733 ficate in our history. Was Makin the first instance of a Philadelphian drowning in the Delaware river? He lost his life trying to dip a pail of water from that large supply.

1702 Until this time Delaware was part of Pennsylvania but from this date on the Delaware parents who had means to send their children to Pennsylvania could have them share the advantages of her schools, but for the most part we will consider schools strictly within our own State.

1701 June 16 Dr. Bray, D.D. obtained an act of incorporation for the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts. This society was like all religious organizations at this date, equally as educational as it was religious. One of its functions was sending "schoolmasters for the slaves with other ignorant persons," improvement of the clergy as well as the laity. In Delaware and Pennsylvania alone the society before 1728 supplied two hundred volumes of bound books and fifteen hundred dollars worth of tracts. This is a huge contribution when we consider that the field covered in any state at this date was merely the tide-water region.

1705 Rev. George Ross, preacher and teacher was sent to New Castle.

1729 Rev. George Ross reported the custom of New Castle people buying "redemptioners" from ships arriving at the wharves and getting many mean and contemptible characters.

1704 Rev. Thomas Crawford was sent to Dover. He Catechised the children all summer before sermon, but not in winter. His own salary was $250 per year. He was allowed $75 per year for books.

1717 Reverend Mr. Becket was sent to Lewes where he preached and taught. He, it was, who wrote a letter to his superior in London proposing that the church secure title to what is now the State of Delaware, to which he said neither Lord Calvert nor William Penn had a valid claim, and dividing it into farms to be sold for the benefit of the Church of England in America.

1770 Last service of the Society in Delaware rendered by sending Reverend Israel Acrelius to Trinity parish and some small religious books to be distributed to those who needed them. By these services we see that the Episcopalians made education general.

1707 Presbyterians organized Presbytery of Philadelphia of which four churches were members. New Castle was one. This connection had a great effect on education in Delaware thus:

Evolution of Newark Academy eventuating in the University of Delaware.

1716 From the Presbytery of Philadelphia through increase in the number of churches founded, grew the Synod. The churches belonging to the Presbytery separated themselves into four Presbyteries of which New Castle became one with six churches in its judicatory. A little later the church at Lewes became a member of the New Castle Presbytery.

Sept.1717 The first meeting of the Synod of Philadelphia.

1734 Came Francis Alison as probationer from the University of Glasgow, recommended to Mr. Samuel Dickinson as tutor to his sons. Later Mr. Dickinson moved into Delaware and Francis Alison became a member of the Presbytery of New Castle through appointment to a charge at New London where he opened a school.

1734-1735 Many non-conformists driven from home by persecution found haven in America. A large proportion of them came through New Castle. Mostly Scotch and Irish Presbyterians who raised the standard of education. Schools were established in their settlements. Even their servants were able to read and each possessed a Bible.

1735
Sept.17

An overture from four ministers in charges nearer to Lewes than to New Castle asking that they be set off from the New Castle Presbytery and erected into a Presbytery of themselves.

1735

1736

The Synod agreed that they become a Presbytery under the name of the Presbytery of Lewes Town and do order them to meet and and constitute the 19th day of November next (1736) at Lewis Town.

May 24,
1738

Committee appointed by Synod of Philadelphia which led to Newark Academy

A proposal made by the Presbytery of Lewes to the Synod of Philadelphia for the appointment of a committee of their members yearly to examine students in phylosophy, divinity and languages and allow them a public testimonial from the Synod which shall in some measure answer the design of taking a degree in college. Two committees appointed of seven members each, one to work southward of Philadelphia and the other to work northward for this purpose.

May 26,1742

Alison grows educational in leadership

At this meeting of the Synod Mr. Francis Alison appears in the light of a protestant against certain criticisms of the decisions of the Synod. He writes over his signature the first article protestatio contra factum. (Minutes of the Synod of Phila. p. 162)

May 25,
1743
Providing for a succession of capable teachers

Upon a supplication brought by Mr. Alison desiring that Mr. McDowell be joined to the Presbytery of New Castle in order to be appointed to Elk River and White Clay Creek, ordered that he be joined to it and that they supply Nottingham for a year.

See 169 & 173

May 23,1744 Establishing the Academy

1. That there be a school kept open where all persons who please may send their children and have them instructed gratis in the langugages, philosophy, and divinity.

Free but not public Parochial

2. That congregations be applied to for yearly contributions.

Supplies Provided For.

3. That anything above the master and tutor's support be used to buy books

Note** (See letters from Synod to Scotland)

May 22 1745 Synod's care for Alison's school

Those congregations that have not contributed to the school be urged to do so.

May 25, 1748.

The school loses its public character.

The Synod on serious consideration finding the salaries appointed for the master and usher of the public school were not sufficient encouragement order that the master be allowed forty pounds and the usher twenty pounds and the salaries to be raised by - - - - - - - sessing each scholar twenty shillings per annum only excepting such as - - - - -

May 22 1751

The affair of the school continued. We find it now in most sessions of the Synod.

May 27 1752

Mr. Alison's removal to Philadelphia considered.

May 29 1752

Allowed under protest

May 24 1753

Decided that the school be continued under Mr. McDowell's care and inspection for another year.

May 23, 1754 — Mr. McDowell declined to have the whole burden of the school therefore Mr. Wilson is appointed to teach languages.

1755 — The affair of the school deferred.

June 2 1755 — Gift of books from Ireland for the benefit of public schools, the use of students, and the encouragement of learning.

Newark Academy the successor to Alison's school used as a plea for establishing and supporting Dutch public schools. — That an application be made to the trustees of the German schools to procure a sum of money to encourage our school on certain conditions. Calling attention to the fact that the Synod had for twelve years supported a public school under Mr. Alison where able ministers some of them Dutch had been educated at a time when ignorance even amongst the ministry had been likely ~~be~~ to over-run the whole colony.

May 29, ~~1752~~ 1758 — Letter written to University of Glascow thanking them for conferring Doctor of Divinity on Reverend Francis Alison, calling attention to his industry and success in promoting learning.

1785-1787 — Some notable pupils of ~~a~~ this notable school, Dr. John Cochrane, Director general of hospitals, and Ebenezer Hazard, U.S.postmaster General of U.S.

1782-89 — John Dickinson, Chairman of the Revolution - John Henry, - U. S. Sen.& Gov. Md.

1789-1797 — James Latta D.D. and Col. Alex Martin, who fought at Battle of Germantown, was Gov. of North Carolina and U.S.Senator.

1793-99 — Dr. John Ewing, provost of U.of P. and Thomas McKean, signer, President of Cong. and Gov. of Penna.

Robert McPherson, - - George Read and Dr. Benj. Rush.

Charles Thompson and - - Matthew Wilson, D.D.

Four governors, eight congressmen, four signers of Declaration. were sent out by this school, as well as other noteworthy men.

1752 Rev. Alexander McDowell succeeded Dr. Allison, and the School moved to Elk River.

1769 Thos. & Richard Penn granted the academy a charter.

1773 Dr. John Ewing and Dr. Hugh Williamson were sent to England and Scotland to secure funds.

1777 The American Revolution caused the abandonment of the school.

1777-1780 ~~Shoe factory~~ The building was used as a shoe factory.

1783 Trustees Reopened the minute book and renewed the life of the school.

1834 The Academy merged with Newark College.

May 4 1869 Trustees of Delaware College deeded back to the trustees of Newark Academy the property conveyed to them. Willard Porter and Wm. T. Reed were the only remaining trustees.

1873 Girls were admitted.

1888-87 The Academy merged with public schools of the State.

LOCATION - - Wilmington

Submitted by Ellen Samworth,

Date July 16,1936.

URSULINE ACADEMY.

Ursuline Academy, Pennsylvania Avenue and Franklin Streets is a private parochial school on a beautiful estate, with the Tenth Street storage basin of the City Water Department gleaming like a placid lake through the trees at the rear, with commodious buildings in the Gothic style, the one which faces Franklin Street is Mary Rankob Hall, a beautifyl memorial auditorium. A School building, a residence hall, with gymnasium, science rooms, cafeteria, and other features that make this group of grey stone buildings one of the modern school plants in keeping with twentieth century educational progress.

This school offers to girls a course from kindergarten to college entrance. It is affiliated with New Rochelle College and of course meets the Regent's requirements of the State of New York. It is under the direction of the Ursuline Sisters of New Bedford, New York. The sisterhood took over the work of the Academy of the Visitation established under Bishop Thos. A. Becker in 1868, and after a few years it has established itself in the hearts of the Catholic citizens of Wilmington as their girls' high school.

Proof read, + corrected.

Ellen Samworth,

June 3, 1937.

Private Schools in Delaware Hundreds.

New Castle

1657 While New Castle is not as old a settlement as Christanham (Christina)
to (Wilmington) it has the honor of having the first regularly
1664 appointed schoolmaster. Evert Pietersen, followed by his son Arent
Everson Molinaer and the last of the Dutch schoolmaster, Abelius
Zetscoven, all Godly men who took care of the spiritual needs
of the people when no ministers were sent.

1672 New Castle was chartered and made a bailiwick under the
care of six bailiffs. George Fox held the first Quaker meeting.

1684 A Friend's meeting established and, as a matter of course,
a Friends' school organized.

Oct.20 Friends meeting house built.
1705

John French & Samuel Lowman New Castle Church vestrymen petitioned S.P.G. in G.B.
1711 for a schoolmaster. Rev George Ross pastor petitioned for £6 per annum for a catechist or schoolmaster.
1729

June 13, Lot of land granted in the northwest corner of the grave-
1772 yard of the Church for the support of a school. This land was
vested in a board of five trustees "for the erecting of a school-
house or schoolhouses thereon and to be for that use forever."
James Tenney, John Thompson, George Read, Thomas McKean, and George Monro.

1800 Academy built on this lot by voluntary contribution.

Jan.30, Academy incorporated.
1801

Jan 28 Act of Assembly incorporated New Castle Benevolent Society for establishing a
1817 charity school. Members of Society were Ann Johns, Anna McCollmont, Sally
McCollmont and Mary Riddle

New Castle is unique among Delaware towns in first, a chartered baliwick; second, an established church under English establishment; third, an established school site dating 1800 under a named board of trustees; and fourth, a Commons reserved for public use under a board of trustees for the people of New Castle.

Unfortunately this board directed the building and site only, and left the management of the school to the principal who charged rates that made it a select private school.

un.28
317 A group of charitable women secured an act for the New Castle Benevolent Society for the purpose of establishing a charity school. Only destitute white orphaned children were permitted to attend.

New Castle Trustees of the school were the trustees of the
361 Commons and the Common's income partly supported the school. An act requiring every child to receive a common school education turned this private academy into the New Castle Institute in which, and in additional schools, every child who could not pay was admitted free.

87 In 1887 there were nine schools in New Castle. The United States Arsenal was occupied for school purposes. Wm. E. Herbert was Superintendent.

The trustees of the Common continued to manage the funds of the school until the construction of a water system called for "Common" funds and the school system came under the state with William F. Lane, Principal, as Superintendent.

923 With the erection of the William Penn consolidated school the schools have all been accommodated in one building.

Christiania Hundred.

One of the important links in education in Delaware is the

1816 Sunday school, E. I. duPont and his daughter, Mrs. Vitorine Bauduy erected a building near the powder mills in which both secular and religious instruction was given on Sunday. This work had such important results that the school was legalized.

Jan.29 1817 This Sunday school was incorporated as the Brandywine Manufacturers Sunday-school. The purpose of the incorporation was declared to be to promote the instruction of youth in manufacturing establishments, to conduce greatly to their good and orderly behavior by preventing youth from spending Sabbath in idleness and contracting habits of vice and immorality.

1841 St. Josephs-on-the-Brandywine parochial school opened ~~by~~ under the Sisters of St. Francis.

1881 St. John's (Ashland) parochial school opened.

Jan.2 1886 Home opened for inmates of Ferris Reform School, "Ferris Industrial School." Seventeen inmates during first year, white and black, from nine to sixteen years of age.

Jan. 1957 The Ferris Industrial School, having become an institution receiving State Aid, it is inspected by the members of the General Assembly. During the last inspection many improvements in buildings and instruction were projected and in due course of time will be made. The enrollment is tenfold the original number.

Christiania Hundred was fortunate in having a consolidated school as early as 1910. The Alexis I. du Pont school gave to the children of this area a rural high school modern in building and equipment and with ample campus for physical needs.

BRANDYWINE HUNDRED(The Troublesome Corner).

In the three hundreds, Brandywine, Christiana, and Wilmington the major emphasis on education was on Wilmington where the schools were quite available to pupils from the surrounding rural areas, but good local schools were maintained in the districts and the achool houses were used for many local evening gatherings. Many of the fine churches and other societies had their preliminary meeting in the district school house.

Aug.9 1874 At Sharpley's Schoolhouse, West Brandywine Grange was started.

Dec.10 1835 At Talley's schoolhouse a preliminary meeting to organize Grace P. E. Church.

1843 Bishop Lee preached many times at the stone school house at Darley Road Naaman's Creek resulting in building Church of the Ancension at Claymont. 1854.

The stone school at Darley's road and the Philadelphia Pike was the district school for over a hundred and 20 years. It is still useful as the home of the Claymont Women's Club, and the district kindergarten. We grow tired of old things and discard them, or re-make them while still good but not so a Delaware school house. While the progressive people of rapidly growing Claymont were willing to tax themselves for a new school the conservative

~~BODY BEWAILED~~ bodily bewailed the thought of abandoning a school that had served their grandparents for a hundred years. After much agitation the progressives prevailed and the ample new school was built,
1925 Claymont becoming a special district having Holly Oak Creek ~~being~~ its southern district boundary.

Mt. Pleasant public school has been necessary to meet the needs of the rapidly growing section to the south of Holly Oak creek.

In the western part of Brandywine Hundred the Alfred I du Pont school, a consolidated school, with modern grounds and equipment has taken the place of several more of the outgrown small schools.

Mill Creek Hundred.

The fourth of the Delaware Hundreds lying under the circle has been rich in school facilities. Large numbers of Scotch, Irish and Welsh Presbyterians emigrated here and the people felt the need of educating their children. For this purpose private schools were opened which
1808 accommodated those able to pay. In 1808 a school was incorporated near St. James Chapel. Afterwards this school was turned over to the Public Schools' use. The old stone school at Stanton was built many years ago, but the new era of education has brought a modern brick building at Marshallton which has accommodated most of the small schools.

As the population of Mill Creek Hundred has increased, ~~It~~ it has been necessary to multiply the schools for the education of the children. Several of the improved modern schools have been built in the section north and west of Wilmington between that city and the circle. In White Clay Creek hundred one of the most notable schools that any community boasts is the school that originated

with the scholarly Presbyterians who came at the end of the seven-
1741 teenth and the first half of the eighteenth century,
Dr. Francis Alison's Newark Academy.
Some notable teachers served in the flimsy unattractive buildings that antedated the present public school system. William Medill, afterward Governor of Ohio, spent part of his early life teaching in this section of Delaware. The early school districts overlapped the Hundred lines and were so unpopular for that reason that but few attended them. The first public school at McClellandsville had but three scholars.

1834 Newark Academy merged into Newark College, now Delaware University.

Pencader Hundred.

Jan.28 1803 Only schools in private homes or a few subscription schools were available in this section before the school law of 1829. On this date an act of the General Assembly was passed to incorporate the Glasgow Grammar School and five leading citizens including John Hyatt and William Cooch(names well known today) were appointed to take subscriptions.

1829 This date brought a division of five public school districts, the erection of school houses and an opportunity for an education was opened to every child. Curtis B. Ellison was the first teacher in the southern part of the hundred. He taught in an octagonal brick shhool-house. It was said that an octagonal shaped school was in use in many places so that the teacher's rod from the center would reach all the scholars. This school was recently burned.

Red Lion Hundred
The Smallest in the State.

Mr. John Higgins, five generations removed from the Lawrence Higgins, Ulster Presbyterian arriving in Delaware in 1750 was always a public spirited citizen. He gave to the public schools of Delaware City such unwearied attention that he was called the father of the public schools. They needed a father for there was considerable complaint upon the adoption of a free school system. He himself was childless. One of the five trustees of the first public school, he with his fellow trustees built a brick school house known as District School No. 52.

Feb.10 1829

Manuel Eyre deeded a tract to the Trustees of the school in Delaware City to be appropriated forever hereafter by the said Grantee, to their successors and assigns to the use and service of a house for religious service to be erected thereon or nigh thereunto upon a lot adjoining the above described and which said lot is granted or about to be granted, by Daniel Newbold to the said Trustees of the school in Delaware City for the use and service of said House for religious worship thereon to be erected and to be made free of access for the purpose of religious worship to all denominations of professing Christians.

The house therein mentioned was never erected but the school house was thrown open for worship and was the place where Methodists and Presbyterians both held their first services.

1850 The town of Delaware City grew and in 1850 it became necessary to divide the district. A frame school was erected where the Presbyterian Church was later built.

March 4 1875 An act of Assembly combined the two districts. The buildings were not large enough and an effort was made to build a new school but true to the static spirit so permeating Delaware school history there was bitter opposition from some of the citizens.

1877 A primiary room was secured in another building and put in charge of Miss Ida L. Bigger.

Jan.2 1884 However, a new building was at last built and on this date was delivered to the trustees. On these dates the building was open for public inspection to the tune of martial music furnished by the Delaware City Band.

Feb.21-22-1894 The building of brick was forty-three by sixty-five feet, two stories high. The second floor was used as a public hall until population growth compelled its full use for school purposes .

1856 For several years Delaware City and the rest of Red Lion Hundred were well supplies with private schools. The Randall Hall about a mile and a half away was well known.

1820 The Franklin school built by Major George Clark and Major Philip Reybold of bricks burnt on Major Reybold's farm was a well known private school.

1856 In this year a number of the citizens of Delaware City decided to build an academy. Owing to some difficulty the building was not finished by the original contractor but was
1858 turned over to the trustees by another builder. A residence was built and turned over to the trustees. Thirty-eight of
1862 the most-well-to-do citizens contributed to the cost.

Oct.
1858 The school was opened on this date. It was a first class institution and numbered some of the best known citizens of this vicinity as its patrons.

1876 In 1876 the school was closed and sold.

While the public school system met with opposition in Delaware City the necessary school buildings were erected and with the improvement in the system it has become of its proper value. Three schools for colored children existed before proper measures prevailed in all parts of the State. These schools had an exceptional attendance record for this race, showing a seventy per cent regularity.

1848 Dr. Robert Sutherland, a Scotchman, located at RedLion and, in addition to his medical practice, he taught school very successfully introducing many new methods. He had a fine
1835 grove of trees planted around the school-house. The school-house near the Indian Mound was the first school-house built and in 1835 the one in the hamlet was built.

Mar.24
1804 Small brick schoolhouse built on road leading from St. Georges to Presbyterian church, conveyed to Enoch Thomas to John Sutton and Jesse Higgins.

Oct.19 1830 Same schoolhouse and lot sold to public school commissioners and public school opened on October 21st of the same year by Alexander Cooper. A larger schoolhouse was

1842 built in 1842

Private schools have been maintained.

In St. Georges Hundred, the largest hundred in New Castle County private schools were held in private residences and improvised school-rooms and some of the best known names of worthy citizens were the teachers. The Records of Old Swedes Church at St. Georges contains an item of the school-house at St. Georges being offered in for preaching to Pastor

1829 Shortly after the revision of the Public School Act the old houses were turned over to public school use and new schools were built. While these new schools were without necessary comforts and were inadequate for American youth they have been abandoned and replaced by the well-located, attractive, consolidated Commodore Mac Donough School on the du Pont Highway at the entrance to St. Georges from the north.

In Appoquinimink Hundred the prople were concerned about educating their children and opened subscription schools. The schoolhouses were poorly built and lacking in accommodations for comfort of the children. Many children of parents too poor to subscribe to the expense of select schools were

1829 looked after and sent to these schools. The advent of the public school system was considered a great blessing. New school-houses of a better character replaced the poorly constructed subscription schools but these new schools fell far

1883 short of being convenient or comfortable.

Townsend built one of the best of these newer schools following a plan much in use in rural communities, a two story

frame building the lower story for school purposes and the upper room for community meetings.

1921 to 1937 The old schools have been replaced with attractive modern buildings.

Blackbird Hundred

1829 Blackbird Hundred until the last quarter of the nineteenth century was a part of Appoquinimink Hundred and its school history coincides with school history here.

KENTON HUNDRED

1710 West of Morton are a class of people who claim they are
1785 original Moors. They claim to have settled here in 1710. There were several families owning large estates. They have lived apart from both colored and white. They inter-
1877 marry, refuse to attend the colored school. ~~Charles~~ Hon. Charles Brown of Dover gave them ground and lumber with which to build their own school at Moore's Corner. There are a number of families remaining.

1797-1800- The schools of this hundred were built of logs. In some of the districts one patron gave the land while others donated the timber hewing it into desired sizes, while others performed the labor.

With the growth of population new districts have been laid out and better schools built.

LITTLE CREEK HUNDRED

Feb.1 1816 Attempt made to create a school near Leipsic in Little Creek Hundred. Act of Legislature to raise $1000 by lottery. Nothing came of it.

1831 School opened in old Baptist Church.

1856 New building on site of old.

1829 District 12 was the largest in the county. First school opened in Gun Swamp Church.

1836 Present building was erected at Cowgill's Corner. It was considered the finest school district school building in the state, is of 8 sides, is of brick and was called Pleasant Hill Academy. This school is now used as woman's club house. Opened with 87 pupils.

1886 There were 66 scholars attending. Some well known Delawareans attended here.

1861 District 85 in the Little Creek Landing School, established in a blacksmith shop at the landing in 1861. Wm. D. Learned was the first teacher.

1830 White Oak colored school built on farm of Hon. Jacob
1884 Stout. Burned down during Civil War, rebuilt in 1884 and again burned. Rebuilt. Mrs. Sally Cowgill, a Friend's public speaker and a sister of Hon. Jacob Stout, endowed the school and charged the cost on the farm. C.C. Babbitt paid the annunity off.

1832 A school was kept in the old Gun Swamp Methodist Episcopal church about a mile from Little Creek Landing where both white and colored children attended. The building went into decay.

Duck Creek Hundred

First Hundred of Kent

1827 One of the original schools in Duck Creek Hundred was of logs built in 1827 about two miles from Smyrna. It was used until 1840. One of the logs built in 1810 stood for fifty years until the scholars were too numerous to find room in the small structure. In 1886 the district contained fifty scholars.

Sept.10 1820 Union S.S. organized by 8 young ladies in a home. After first Sunday the session was held in Mechanic's Academy. In 1823 There were 71 scholars, 37 girls - 34 boys.

1823

1827 Several denominations separated and formed ~~district~~ distinct organizations.

First school in Smyrna was Friends Southern Boarding

1825 School - disbanded. in 1825

Jan.29 1817 Mechanic's Academy of Smyrna was incorporated.

Jan.22 1818 First free school in town incorporated as ~~French~~ Female Union Society to educate those unable to pay private tuition.

Smyrna built two frame schools, one on North and one

1854 on South St. Built new brick school, 26 x 40.

A son of John Cummins was educated at Smyrna Academy. At 13 years he became a pupil of a famous scholar and mathematician, Enoch Lewis, who conducted a school at Wilmington.

Smyrna Academy founded and largely supported by John Cummins who was born in Smyrna Apr.7,1777 died July 29,1833. His own children received their early education in this school It was held in the Friends' Meeting House.

Nov.18 1857 — Smyrna Library Association, was formed.

March 15 1858 — Public inauguration of library. in Rooms in Odd Fellows Hall, later in Town Hall. Lectures by eminent men such as Philips Brooks, - Dr. Cook, - Frank Hurn, - Rev. Dr. Carrow and others. The Library has always been in a prosperous condition and has been of unestimable worth to community.

East Dover Hundred

The capital of the State is the central point for all schools of East Dover Hundred, and Dover school history is East Dover Hundred history too. The first schools were private and there was no organized education until the public-school system was organized.

1829 — St. Jones Neck District has eighty children of school age and no school-house. District No.15 had the Jones school-house and eighty children but no school in operation. No.16 or Forest of Dover had were seventy schildren, no school. In all this Hundred had five hundred sixteen children of school age with sixty-seven of them attending school. To-day there is a place in school for every child and a compulsory attendance law, well enforced to keep them there and so well taught that interest keeps them in school.

1937

1836 — Boliver J. Howe taught in Jone's Neck for many years and was so successful that his patrons doubled his salary unasked.

1840 — The first school was instituted at DuPont's mills.

1830 — Log school-house near Moorton.

West Dover Hundred

West Dover Hundred — William Dickey, Irish, came in early eighteenth century.

No school houses have been established he taught as many as could reach his house. His body was the first interred in cemetery of Thomas' Chapel.

825 Log school house erected in what is now Hazelville.

828 Day school erected by Matthias Day on Burrowsfield Tract had among its early teachers Hon. Eli Saulsbury, Ex-Governor Gove Saulsbury, William Rome, Dr. Cahill and other men who rose to equal prominence in the State.

pr.14
859 Rose Valley (79) The voters of this district met in the house of Dinnie Connor and decided that there being 36 scholars in the district, the legal Number, the establishment of a separate District is made necessary. A school-house was erected and sessions held there until 1880 when it was destroyed by fire. (This shows how new school districts originated.)

864
886 Hawkins school (96) This district was composed of parts taken from three other districts and surveyed by John Slay and John M. Foraker in 1864. A school house was built that same year fifty pupils attending the same year. In 1887 $6,000 appropriated for a new one. The new school was used, and this shows how new districts were formed and small schools were multplied.

SCHOOLS IN DOVER AND SMYRNA.

767-68 First knowledge of Dover schools given in life of Dr. Nathaniel Luff of Jones Neck in Dover Academy.

tors Referred to in Dr. Luff's memoirs.

78 Rev. Freeborn Garrettson preached the first Methodist sermon from a platform in front of this academy.

80 Plan made between Dr. Stephen Megaw, rector of Christ Church and Rev. Francis Asbury to educate youth in this vicinity. Mr. Asbury induced James Coleman to come from Virginia to Dover to teach a boy's school.

85 Bill introduced into General Assembly to place Academy property under control of Board of Trustees. Failed to pass although endorsed by forty six notable citizens.

n.23 10 Act to incorporate Dover Academy passed by raising $10,000 by lotterty to assist in purchasing land and erecting suitable building. Twelve of the leading citizens of Dover were named as trustees. Thomas Clayton, Andrew Haudain, Cornelius P. Comegys, Richard Cooper, James Harper, John Finder, Peter Caverly, Willard Hall, James Bayard, William McClyment, Nathaniel Smithers and Henry M. Ridgely.

32 Public school law first adopted in Dover by opening a public school in lower part of the old academy while still maintaining a select classical school on upper floor.

25 Famous teachers all from New England taught pupils who became famous in this academy. They did not spare the rod.

During the time of Theodore Gallaudet, one of a family of famous teachers who taught in the Academy on the second floor, was Miss Elizabeth Thomas who taught a school for girls in the lower part of the academy.

52 When town was growing northward accommodations were needed in that part of Dover and a room was hired in a building on the site of the Hotel Richardson.

65 85 ft. front of land on Governor Ave extending through to

67 New St. was purchased. Contract was made for a brick schoolhouse at a cost of $2,600.

69 Frame building erected on west end.

.872 An addition made and four additional teachers employed.

arch January .880 New school opened on New and Queen St., a large building in form of Maltese cross with cupola and bell- 10 ft. hall through the center, cost $16000, number of pupils enrolled 512. I. E. Carroll, Principal.

.846 .849 Seminary established by Mrs. Mary N. U. Cowgill.

.849-65 Cowgill seminary conducted by Dr. Edward Worrell & wife.

.865-72 Widow of Dr. Worrall continued seminary part of time in basement of Baptist church.

.852 Rev. Thomas G. Murphy commenced a select school for young ladies conducting it for six or seven years. A ~~portable~~ notable present day benefit for dependent children has grown out of a son's interest in Dover.

Wilmington conference of M.E. church set off from Philadelphia Conference.

868 Conference Academy for boys conceived.

870 Charter obtained. Control vested in 17 ministerial trustees elected by the conference and 17 lay trustees elected by the stockholders

873

pr.8, 873 Trustees bought six acres of land and commenced to build.

irst rincipal 3-1878 Rev. J. M. Williams, graduate of Dickinson, studied in Europe, taught 3 years at Milford, now stationed at Felton. was the first principal.

878-884 R.H.Skinner A.M. elected principal, He admitted girls. Very successful period. Wesleyan Female College in Wilmington closed. Conference academy profited by this closing and became the one educational center of Peninsular Methodism. This school did for the clergy of the Methodist church what the Newark Academy did for the Presbyterians without aspiring to establish a college.

une 8, 885 Library opened with one thousand four hundred and fifty

pr.5 886 two volumes to be supported by life subscriptions at twenty-five

dollars each, annual subscriptions three dollars. The only source of revenue was the annual subscription.

1805-06 Camden - Society of Friends determined to build meeting house and school.

1815 The Union Academy gave to the ~~growth~~ youth of the country in and surrounding Camden a classical and academical education at the hands of some of the best instructors in the United States. It continued in successful operation down to 1857.

1853 Colored church belonging to old side M. E. Church.

1863 A division by schismatics being minority allied themselves with African M. E. which has its own colored bishops and built a meeting house near Green's Mill which they named Star of the East and use as church and school house.

School under patronage of Freedman's Bureau and which continues in operation nearly the whole year.

1883 Colored people of North Murderkill Hundred institued another church St. James Chapel Col M.E.Church (South)

Union Academy of Camden,
Wyoming Academy Oct. 1869 O.F.Flippo.
Warrens School House, Dist #80 A 1150.
} to be looked into later

South Murderkill Hundred

before 1829 In South Murderkill Hundred private subscription schools were established in nearly all of the Methodist Episcopal churches, before the public school law was passed (1823). In other places subscription schools were established by parents. Instead of paying a school tax and having the State Department build the schools the parents in some districts subscribed the amount required or donated the land or the labor. Fifteen such schools were built in this way.

Mispillion Hundred

Before 1829 private subscription schools in nearly all Methodist churches.

Schoolhouses built by private persons and the teachers paid by subscription from parents.

After 1829 money for schoolhouses was still raised by subscription. In many districts the land was given by an interested parent. Land was plentiful, money was scarce. In District 37 James Booth gave the land on which the Tomahawk schoolhouse was built and the money to build was raised by subscription.

In the town of Harrington a large school was built having six teachers and four hundred pupils.

Milford Hundred was formed from Mispillion hundred. The schools previous to 1929 were subscription schools which afterward gave place to public schools. As the number of children increased Milford Hundred considered itself well conditioned as to education and prided itself on a nine months school year and on skillful and competent teachers.

William Johnson, a surveyor, kept a school which like all schools in Milford up to 1832 was private. His note-book details even the trivial misdemeanors of his pupils to say nothing of such breaches of discipline as truancy. A private school was held in the Masons' building for many years.

The Milford Female Institute was conducted by the Reverend Mr. Kennedy, the Presbyterian pastor who, wishing to educate his own family, opened a school for females where the common branches, languages, and music were taught.

A Mr. Johnson, surveyor, who came from Londonderry about 1700 seeing a tall red-headed young man working at a wood-pile in an awkward manner spoke to him and knew from his speech that the young man was educated. He proposed that in exchange for room, board, light and heat the stranger exchange his manual task for the teacher's service, there being at that time no school where Mr. Johnson could send his children. The exchange was made and the tutoring of the young Johnsons began. In the course of time the neighbors learned that the Johnson family had a teacher member. A request was made that the neighbors build a school convenient to all, share the expense of the teacher's support, and have their children taught with Mr. Johnson's family. The plan was agreed to, a subscription school took the place of tutoring and the school continued to the benefit and satisfaction of all concerned.

The schoolmaster received notice of a call from all men's master, Death, and calling his friend and benefactor, Surveyor Johnson, he said, "I received a home and friends from you and your family when I came here a stranger. I would like to be buried with your family, where I have lived happily." His request was granted and after his simple funeral services were over Mr. Johnson opened the small trunk that had been given to him and found his certificate from Dublin University, Michael Daly was his name and beside the University credentials there was the course in arithmetic which he taught in the family school, each day's lesson written out in a hand as neat as copper plate finished and dated as per the day it was taught. This handmade arithmetic is still a treasured possession of the Johnson family. Michael Daly was undoubtedly a political refugee and much of the education that found its way into rural Delaware, preparing men for leadership in creating a new nation was brought to them by educated men fleeing from the evils of an older government.

1832 The public school system began to be used at this time and grew in use and in efficiency as the years passed. Today the public school system supplies all educational needs up to college entrance.

1808 Miss McNatt attended a log school with an earthern floor with planks around the walls for desks. A Quaker meeting house was near by. This was an old school when Miss McNatt attended it and the Quaker meeting-house was old too.

The presence of good schools throughout the State is testified to by the character of the men and women who came from them. Among these men of note educated in the local private schools and at West Point is Major General Alfred T. A. Torbert, minister to San Salvador, 1869, consul general to Havana 1873, consul general to Paris 1873. Curtis S. Watson educated at local schools and at Milford Academy, farm boy, merchant, lumberman, ship-builder, shipper, banker, railroad director, town commissioner, State Legislator, church steward and trustee,

These good local schools were held in private homes, in churches, in public buildings and in buildings built for school
1832 use. In 1832 the first public school in North Milford was held
1846 in a private house and afterward the Masonic building was bought
1887 for public school purposes and used until 1887 when the same building, was remodeled and enlarged. Prior to the use of the Masonic building as a public school a number of poor children who have since become prominent were educated at the expense of the Masons

1868 At Farmington, James M. Williams, born at Laurel, Delaware, April 14, 1842 a notable teacher who afterwards conducted the

Milford Academy and became the first principal of the Wilmington Conference Academy was asked by the villagers of Farmington to open a select school. He was succeeded in the principalship of this village academy by men as well trained as himself, among whom were John P. Gordy with a degree of doctor of philosophy from a German university and his brother ~~William~~ William F. Gordy who has since made a reputation as a schoolmaster and text-book writer. Both of these men have attained high rank in the educational world of America. Under the care of the enthusiastic and talented men who occupied the principalship of this village academy this school was known far and wide and attracted pupils from remote parts of the State. During the ten years of its short existence it prepared many boys for college and around southern Delaware to a keener interest in education.

Lewes Hundred

June 23 1736 Sussex County's First official school provision

"A yearly quit rent of 1 penny sterling for every acre of the common to be duly paid by the inhabitants of the Town of Lewes for and toward the support of a school to be kept within the said town. Given under my hand and ~~easer~~ lesser seal at Philadelphia on the 23rd day of June Anno Domine 1736 to Benjamin Eastborn, Surv. Genl." "Tho. Penn."

1734 John Russell, deputy recorder, is spoken of as the schoolmaster of Lewes but no record of a schoolhouse exists.

1650 A family tradition unique if not entirely creditable is that a Swede named Wiltbank settled in Lewes in 1650 and donated a lot for a schoolhouse. Though there is no record of a schoolhouse before 1761 there is a record of a Swede on May 8, 1761 in the census of Horekill, Hilmonus Fredericks Wiltbank, his wife, two sons and a man servant.

1761

The history of Lewes from beginning to the present day gives to the Wiltbanks a prominent place in the civic, religious, and educational life of the settlement.

May 4 1762 The lot on which the first schoolhouse stood was deeded by John Wiltbanks for a consideration of ten shillings to a board of fifteen trustees who were the leading citizens of the town. This school was a frame house on Second Street near Ship Carpenter Street in which the youth of the town were instructed for more than one hundred years in the principles of religion and virtue, useful knowledge and learning. This school was as well for the promotion and encouragement of the youth of the county.

Feb. 1818 A Board of Trustees was incorporated for this chool enabling it to be better maintained.

1795 Rev. Francis Hindman opened a school where the classics were taught. This led to the establishment of the Lewes Academy

1803 soon after. A large frame building was erected for school purposes, which was controlled by a board of ten trustees of which one was

1805 of the Wiltbank family. The principal, Peter McLaughlin, retired and the Reverend James Wiltbank, a gradutate of Princeton College who afterward became the provost of the University of Pennsylvania, succeeded him.

1805 A school for young ladies was taught in connection with the academy by R. S. Clark. He had assured his patrons of his proficiency, stating that he could "teach grammar grammatically and would also use the globes,etc."

John Gibbons was a teacher of the ancient languages. The Reverend A. Strong taught in the academy for nearly twenty years. In its best days many students from abroad were in attendance.

Another Lewes tradition as precious to the citizens as their lives is to the effect that the first school in America for girls was established here. No original records have been found to prove this nor to disprove it, but there is evidence that Lewes had preeminence in female education more than two hundred years ago. Watson in his "Annals of Philadelphia" remarks of an incident in the seventeenth century.

1691 "At this early period of time so much had the little Lewistown at our southern cape the preeminence in female tuition, that Thomas Lloyd, the deputy governor, preferred to send his younger daughters from Philadelphia to that place to finish their education."

1738 Lewes Presbytery set in motion the force that brought higher education to Delaware by petitioning the Philadelphia Synod to establish a searching examination in the "several branches of philosophy and divinity and the languages" for the young candidate for the Presbyterian ministry. This petition led to establishing the most outstanding classical academy in the State and later to founding the present University of Delaware.

The first "schoolmarm" employed at a very early date in Lewes was a widow, Mrs. Wrexham Lewis. The second female teacher also a widow Mrs. Thompson.

Lewis is unique in having had assigned to it a "commons" the income from which was designated by Thomas Penn to be used toward the support of the schools.

New Castle has the same advantage.

Throughout all the changes in the public school laws of the State passed before 1875, Lewes has gone tranquilly forward a law unto itself in Education.

This independent proceedure must have come from the fact that Lewes was ahead of the State requirements and the intellectual advan advance prevailing among the citizens of Lewes prompted them to advance without the requirements enacted by the General Assemblies of 1796-1797-1816-1817-1827-1832-1833-1835-1837-1852-1857-1858-1861-1867.

1875 In 1875 one of the most important amendments to the law of 1829 was passed. This provided for the appointment of a State Superintendent one of whose duties was to visit each public school in the State.

March 5 1875 The "New School Law of 1875" provided that the schools of Lewes and vicinity be consolidated and controlled by a "Board of Public Education" Districts 14,15,110 and 112 were consolidated for the better promotion of the schools and the first board selected to control the schools of this union, twelve representatives men, were authorized to issue bonds for six thousand dollars to build a

1776 new schoolhouse and to grade the course of instruction. The new school building was made the centennial building of the town. The course of instruction embraced the classics and the first class to

1879 complete the course was graduated in June 1879. The first principal was later to become the assistant State Superintendent, Mr. H. C. Carpenter. While the new school was a handsome building for its day it could not be considered as a building fit to house a present day public school.

Georgetown Hundred

Jan.29 1791 Georgetown schools have existed since the location of the town. The first schoolhouse, twenty two feet square, occupied a site now a private residence.

Feb. 1812 Six citizens were incorporated as the "trustees of the Georgetown school," and they conducted it as a private enterprise.

1836 A new school house was built on Pine Street out of the income of the school fund and by voluntary subscription. Later 1843 this school became known as the "old academy" to distinguish it from the new one built in 1843. In the new academy the public schools were taught until 1885.

1825 In the winter of 1825 Dr. Davis had located in Georgetown and announced that by Divine permission he would open an academy Jan.1 1826. on January 1,1826.

The present academy building was erected by the joint 1843 efforts of the Masons and the citizens through a board of trustees. In 1843 by the help of a lottery a fund was secured sufficient 1861 to finish the first story for school purposes. The school was well patronized until 1861, and was the best high school of the County. the breaking out of the war. After the war the academy was reopened and conducted successfully 1885 until 1885.

1881 Under the amendment to the Act of 1829 a Union District was authorized consisting of Districts 67, 96,106 and 109 to be controlled by the Board of Commissioners of the Public Schools of Mar.11 1885 Georgetown. An amendment to this act empowered the commissioners to sell the old building, issue bonds amounting to six thousand dollars, secure a site and build a new school.

Dec. 1885 The schools were opened in the new school with over two hundred pupils under the care of four teachers.

In Cedar Creek Hundred there were subscription schools held seometimes in buildings erected by the subscribers, sometimes in

1829 rooms rented by them or appropriated by the owner for school use. When the public schools came into use after 1829 such of the subscription school buildings as were fit were adopted for district schools. These old schools were in use long after they were fit.

Broadkiln Hundred

1796 In Broadkiln Hundred the date when the first private school
1829 was opened is not known but after the public system of schools opened the private schools soon disappeared.

Very little can be learned of the private schools in this hundred but in Milton there was an academy and good private schools, one St. John Baptist School, was maintained by Rev. Frederick Thompson M.A. The Church of St. John Baptist was used as a school house for many years following its abandonment as a church sometime before eighteen hundred. The dilapidated Presbyterian church at Milton was used for school purposes. Buildings unfit for church purposes seem still to be fit for schools.

Jan.27 1819 The Milton Academy was incorporated and a body of trustees constituting the most outstanding men of the community was selected. At a meeting of the stockholders, the sum necessary to erect the building having been secured, a committee was appointed to prepare a constitution. Ex-Governor Hazzard presided at this meeting and was a member of the committee. The preamble was as follows: "We the Subscribers, in order to form a more perfect Union, secure Tranquillity, promote Learning, and secure the Blessings of Tuition to our Posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the Milton Academy."

The sessions of the Milton Academy were interrupted by the Civil War but the school was reopened, enlarged and continued under
1880 scholarly men. It was continued as a school until 1880.

There is scant record of private schools in North West Fork Hundred. Primary education being furnished by district schools. An act of Legislature incorporated the schools of
Apr.5 1883 Bridgeville naming a board of Education of five members to serve until April 1884 and authorizing them to borrow $2,000 to erect
1883 a school. The school cost $2500 and was opened in December 1883.

Broad Creek Hundred has many well-to-do farmers who are well able to send their children to distant schools, and as good schools in nearby hundreds are available. Broad Creek has had few good private schools.

NORTH WEST FORK HUNDRED

1765 North West Fork Hundred had two well known schools before the passage of the public free school law of the State. The one in Western Sussex of stone was in operation in 1765. Education in each of these western Sussex schools extended to the "simple rule of three" at which time the scholar knew as much as the teacher. The schools were open only three months in the year.

1829 Since the school law of 1829 was passed the schools have increased in number and quality.

Apr.5 1883 The Legislature passed an act incorporating the public schools of Bridgeville.

In Broad Creek there were very few schools of any kind before the public schools. In Elzy Moore's meeting-house a free school was conducted for several years and two or three subscription schools were conducted, one near Concord. These

schools were rarely open more than three months in the year.

Nanticoke Hundred

In Nanticoke Hundred there were three or four subscription schools run three months in the year. The wealthier residents sent their children away to school for their education.

Seaford Hundred

Seaford Hundred had several subscription schools and in addition the town of Seaford offered good educational advantages
June 29 1819 through The Seaford Academy which was incorporated on the date named.

In Seaford as in almost all the towns in the State and in Wilmington some teacher or some pupil attained national honor for scholarship, or statesmanship or inventive genius. From the Seaford Academy came the Reverend Leonidas Polk, later a bishop of the Episcopal Church and major-general of the Confederate army.

1837 A successful girls' school operated by Rev. Solomon Prettyman was moved from Seaford to Wilmington and became The Wesleyan Female Collegiate Insitute with power to confer degrees.

Other good private schools were held in this town. Schools for colored children were conducted here.

Little Creek Hundred

In Little Creek Hundred there were several subscription schools before the public school system was established.

1865 The first school house in Delmar, on the Delaware side of a prosperous border town in Delaware and Maryland was built in 1865. No record of a prosperous private school in Delmar is to be found. Laurel in this hundred was for a long time considered the wealthiest town in the State and was noted for the excellence of its schools. A two room subscription school was turned over to free school use when the public school system was adopted.

1856 An Academy was built by Samuel I. Weatherby but was used as a subscription school for many years. The schools lack the advantages of schools in smaller places.

Dagsboro Hundred

1780 In Dagsboro hundred a school was taught by Mr. Rollins.

1778 Major Benson, a surveyor taught in an old log house on the farm of Shadrack Short.

Three teachers held school in three old houses, the sessions

1800 to 1813 in the short days lasting from sunrise to sunset. One advantage held by the pupils in these subscription schools was the fact that many of the teachers, were men of strong quality of heart and mind. One teacher, Daniel Drain, a Revolutionary soldier, is said to have taught sixty years.

1835 The Lamb School House was both a school and a chapel for members of Prince George Chapel.

The old school house back of Millsborough was also used by the Methodists for their religious service previous to 1874.

Baltimore Hundred

1799 In Baltimore Hundred a farmer, teacher and preacher taught a school in his own house which stood near Roxanna. His fee was fifty cents a quarter for each pupil.

Until 1826 From Stephen Ellis's school to 1826 schools were held at intervals in empty cottages.

1826 Previous to this year Captain James Tunnell of the vessel "American Trader" taught some scholars, going from house to house

1824 of his pupils. He donated the site on which the first school known as "Black Water" was built.

1812 After the Methodist church "Salem" was built school sessions were held there for several years.

1825 A school house was built at Roxanna by subscription of labor and material by each citizen.

1813 In Gumborough Hundred one of the oldest school houses was known as "Battle Hill." In 1813 it was known as an old house. As in other rural sections some of the most outstanding men taught school especially during the winter. The influence of such men of character compensated in some measure for the short school years.

1816 Thomas Neal Martin taught school in 1816 in St. John's Church.

J. F. Pote
March 13, 1940

Education in Delaware.

EDUC FILE

Military College at Brandywine Springs

"Military College.- We have before us a circular from Capt. Alden Partridge in which he informs the public, that the "National Scientific and Military College," will be opened at the Brandywine Springs, for the reception of students on the 16th day of May next. This Institution we hope will receive the encouragement its projector anticipates and merits. The ability and experience of its superintendent are so well known that little doubt exists of its successful establishment. The instruction will embrace a complete course of Literary, Scientific and Military Education. The Mathematics, both theoretical and practical, Civil and Military Engineering, Physical Philosophy, Astronomy, Geography, History, Mental and Moral Philosophy, the Laws of Nations, the Science of Government, the Constitution of the United States, Political Economy, Agriculture, Rhetoric, Sound Literature the several branches of Military Science, &c., &c., will constitute prominent branches of instruction."

The Delaware Gazette, Jan. 28, 1853.

(2 p. total) Sarah McCarthy 75

Wilmington Franc: Education

The Ursuline Academy -
Wilmington, Del.

The Ursuline Order, founded by Saint Angela Merici in 1535, was the first of its kind in the history of the Church. It is the pioneer Order instituted for the education of young girls. In the course of its development a long and fruitful existence has spread to all parts of the world.

The first convent school in North America for the education of young girls was opened by the Ursulines at Quebec in 1639, exactly one hundred and thirty-seven years before the signing of the Declaration of Independence.

The first convent school within the present limits of the United States was opened by the Ursulines at New Orleans in 1727.

The Ursuline Academy of Wilmington, founded July 31, 1893, is an accredited member of the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. It is affiliated with the College of New Rochelle and its standard is recognized by the Board of Regents of New York and by the University of Delaware.

The Academy, admirably situated for a boarding and day school in what is considered a beauty spot of Wilmington, is easily accessible from all parts of the city. It is also on the main lines of the Pennsylvania and Baltimore and Ohio Railroads, thus bringing within easy reach New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore and Washington.

The beautiful buildings in Kent architecture are furnished with all modern improvements.

The course of study has been carefully worked out with a view to securing the best development of the students. The system of instruction is based on the solid and comprehensive principles which neglect neither the spiritual and moral, nor the intellectual and physical.

The curriculum comprises Kindergarten, Elementary and Secondary Courses.

Vocational subjects and the arts are also included.

A minimum of fifteen credits is required for graduation.

A large and well-equipped gymnasium is one of the attractive features of the school. Besides the physical training classes, indoor and outdoor sports, (Hockey, Basketball, Tennis, etc.) develop good sportsmanship while maintaining bodily vigor.

Information concerning rates, uniforms, etc. will be supplied on application.

V. E. Shaw
Jan. 31, 1940

FORWOOD SCHOOL FINANCIAL REPORTS TO THE AUDITOR

1834-1874

Year	Local Contribution	Fund (State)	Teacher	Other Expenses	Term	Enrollment
1834	$108.00	$58.55	$126.00	$27.60	9 mo.	58
1836	60.00	73.14	125.00	13.86	8--16	25
1838	95.01	145.74	175.76	35.88	9	45
1840	74.74	121.47	145.00	13.40	7	45
1841	54.50	183.54	177.52	60.20	8--15	66
1842	59.00	176.27	175.00	19.16	10	67
1843	30.00	142.75	108.33		7	82
1844	60.00	137.42	180.00	23.70	8	78
1846 FAILED TO SETTLE WITH THE AUDITOR						
1848	25.00	144.82	121.66	6.32	7	62
1850	72.19	144.84	187.33	33.18	9	70
1852	34.75	139.05	132.47	23.11	7--11	50
1854	41.52	133.75	130.55	12.96	6--16	35
1856 NO AUDITOR'S REPORT FOUND						
1858	101.89	140.18	206.00	26.76	9	42
1860 NO AUDITOR'S REPORT FOUND						
1862	100.00	134.00	201.00	28.21	8	40
1864	137.00	126.34	200.00	79.61	6½	40
1866	208.33	156.63	227.27	139.00	7	71
1868	167.90	134.21	252.47	50.97	9	56
1874	275.44	120.22	325.43	67.26	8	67

FROM STATE AUDITOR'S REPORTS FOR YEARS INDICATED

2/5/40
Mr. Ved.

Thompson, Gordon (2 p.) E S. File. 78
6-24-38 Education: Government Data

Laws of the State of Delaware, from The Twenty-Third Day of July, One Thousand Eight Hundred and Thirty-Five To the Twenty-Eight Day of February, One Thousand Eight Hundred And Forty-Three. Volume IX. Dover, Delaware, S. Kimmey, Printer, 1843. P. 425.

CHAPTER CCCLXIV

An Act concerning Lotteries

"Whereas, the drawing of lotteries now under contract, and authorized by acts of the Legislature of this State, cannot at present be prohibited, but may be, and it is expedient should be regulated: Preamble

Section I. Be it therefore enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the State of Delaware in General Assembly met, That from and after the fifteenth day of March next, the contractor or contractors for any lottery authorized by any law of this State, or drawn within this State, whether acting as manager or managers, or as agent or agents for any manager or managers, shall immediately upon the drawing of each and every scheme or class of such lottery, or within ten days thereafter, pay the sum of ten dollars, for each and every scheme or class so drawn, to the trustee of the school fund, to be applied to and for the benefit of 'The fund for establishing schools in the State of Delaware.' And such contractor or contractors shall immediately after such payment transmit a duplicate receipt thereof to the auditor of accounts. And the said trustee of the school fund shall in the settlement of his accounts before the auditor of accounts, faithfully account for the said payments. And the auditor in his annual report to the General Assembly or to a committee

$10 to be paid to trustee of S.F., when.

Trustee to account.

Auditor's duty.

thereof, of the settlement of the accounts of the trustee of the school fund, shall specify the said several payments made to the said trustee as aforesaid."

The penalty prescribed for neglect or refusal was a fine of $500.

VES.

Free attendence in Graded Schools

LAWS of Delaware: School Laws for Free Public Schools of the State of Delaware, 1898-1913, p.51-54

Digest of provisions

Under proper regulation of the State Board, children of a district having no graded school may be admitted free to one designated by the board; Provided:

Sect.3- No school shall be compelled to admit a student to a department already full.

Sect.5- In each county no more than 250 students may be in attendance under thisprovision at one time. When thequota is filled, no more may be certified until vacancies occur.

Sect.6 The free graded school district shall receive for each such student 20¢ for each day's attendance, from the state treasury.

Sect. 7- Wilmington may refuse non-residents or charge tuition for them as the local board sees fit. For each non-resident accepted under sect.1-6 the State will pay thestandard rate. This amount shall be deducted from thebill of thechild's guardian.

Act of March 9, 1899, amended 1909.

V.E.Shaw
February 6, 1941

BOROUGH ORDINANCE RELATIVE TO NIGHT WATCH

March 13, 1750

An be it enacted and ordained by the authority aforementioned that from and after the 13th day of this instant March, that at the discresion [discretion ?] of the Burgeses and Assistants there shall be a watch kept and placed [?] in this Burough from the hour of Ten at Night till Day Brake which watch shall consist of six men at least each night, one of each class when divided into companies must be qualified for a Constable of each class to have the Care and Command of [illegible], Class or Company to take their Rounds + Surcats as they shall come in Course till all have served their turn and so continue. And the Watch is hereby empowered to take up any suspected Person & them secure also, to enter into any house where they may here (sic) any disturbance to suppress the same & if they see cause may detain and keep till morning to bring them before one of the Burgers to be examined and the Constable of each Company or Class is to have notice from one of the Burgers, in the forenoon of the day that he is to watch the night following except upon extraordinary occassion and then to call his company together as soon as possible, and the Constable shall give notice to his company before sunset said day that they are to watch the night following to meet at some convenient place to be appointed by the constable and be it further enacted by the authority aforesaid that if any person or

persons that are housekeepers that have resided here the space of one month shall refuse or neglect to watch as aforesaid or to send such sufficient able men as shall be excepted (sic) by by the Constable and in the case of such default neglect or refuse upon complaint made to one of the Burgesses if they see cause they shall pay the sum of 1/6 for every such default to be recovered by Warrant...as in the case of other fines, to be paid into the hand of the Constable to pay other hands to watch in their stead anything to the contrary in any wise notwithstanding.

V. E. Shaw
July 2, 1940

Education
Sources

Educ. 83

MEMORANDA OF CORAM MATERIAL NOT ON FILE IN WILMINGTON

1. Library of Congress: Franklin letter of May 9, 1779, application of a French naval officer to accompany Jones. Letter book copy, C.C. 132, 29; 193; 259- L.S. 1 p. (Jones says the letter referring to Coram was dated May 10; are there any other accessible collections of Franklin letters which can be examined if Library of Congress item is not what we need? I have checked these at the Pennsylvania Historical Society, University of Pennsylvania, and American Philosophical Society in Philadelphia.--V.E.S.)

2. South Carolina: Is there any genealogical data concerning the Coram family? Is there any evidence that Robert Coram's survivors, Rhoda (wife, born Feb. 1768-maiden name unknown), John Robert (son, born Mar. 4, 1791, probably in Wilmington,) Ann, and Elizabeth, (daughters, born July 9, 1793, and Mar. 23, 1796, the latter posthumous; both probably in Wilmington) returned to Carolina at any time subsequent to September, 1796, the last record of them in Wilmington? Any record of Robert Coram's birth in 1761 or 1762, or any data explaining his presence in France in May, 1779, or throwing additional light on his education or his interest in Indians? Any early towns named Coram other than the one mentioned in Saunders I, p.987 cited below? Any connection of members of this family with the Georgia colony? Any further confirmation of Robert Coram's service in the Revolutionary navy?

3. Dover: Does the Archives Commission have any letters, diaries, etc., (1785-96) of Caesar A. Rodney, Dr. James Tilton,

Jacob Broom, Archibald Alexander, John James, Joseph Warner, Isaac Starr, junior and senior, James Wilson the bookbinder, Kensey Johns, the Mr. Higgins and Nicholas Vandyke who were active in the Patriotic Society, J. Bird, secretary of the same organization, or Vincent Bonsall? All these men are mentioned as having some business or political association with Coram in the final years of his life. His connection with Wilson during the last six months seems especially close. Is there any data referring to the Patriotic Society of New Castle county other than the transcripts of the Minutes reproduced in the attached article?

Would it be possible or desirable to write the three known towns of Coram (California, New York, Montana) to determine whether or not persons of that name who could supply any further information about the family now reside there?

5. The conjecture that the Wilmington Coram may have been connected with the same family as the English philanthropist is based on the following documentation:

Brewlow. John, Secretary of the Hospital. History and Design of the FOUNDLING HOSPITAL with a Memoir of the Founder. London, 1858; in University of Pennsylvania Library: This source says that Thomas Coram was probably the son of John Coram, Captain, whose younger son's baptism is recorded at Lyme in 1761. Since no children are mentioned in this detailed study of Thomas Coram's life, it seems reasonable to assume that there were none who survived.

Records of Holy Trinity Church of Wilmington, Del., record the baptism of Robert Coram's son John Robert.

Saunders, Colonial Records of North Carolina, I, p. 987, mention a "town of Coram" within the colony, ca. 1709.

Similar interests of the two Coram's, documented in article: followed the sea as boys, but not as men; were humanitarians, furthered the cause of education, seem to have been deeply religious, were students of American Indian life.

J. Barton Cheyney

February 2, 1937

Economic and Social Development

Education

Hard Times For Early Pedagogues

Even long after the three R's had been feebly launched in the Diamond State, the ~~life~~ lives of early pedagogues were far from ~~a~~ beds of roses, ~~but~~ more nearly ~~a~~ crowns of thorns. Those ~~affecting~~ who affected an interest in "schoolin" ~~mostly~~ picked men as teachers in the country districts, well-knowing that ~~following~~ the installation of "the new teacher" ~~there~~ would be followed by a demonstration on the part of students to ascertain "who's boss."

~~If On the other hand, the new teacher was a woman, she would be "hazed" by the pupils — not so roughly, perhaps, but they were able to gather from experiences that they must win in the tests as to who would rule their schools.~~

In the winter seasons, after the outside work on the farms had been disposed of, ~~came~~ the big, brawny sons of the community came to study the rudiments of "larnin" but found more congenial occupation in try-outs of their muscles on the new teacher. "Starting something" in the country schools was expected from the strong, rough-and-tumble lads.

There were no inhibitions against the use of the rod, strap, or switch, and it may be said that the pioneer school teachers applied the penalties for "off side" behavior, disobedience, or failure to know lessons, with a severity that was almost inhuman.

The old maxim, "Spare the rod and spoil the child", seemed to have been ingrained as one of the essential beliefs and practices of the teachers of the early-middle periods of the last generation.

Both teachers and students went about with chips on ~~their~~ shoulders and thus fostered an irresistable impulse for collisions. The effort to correct with the rod, the offending of one student was likely to inflame all the other lads of ~~scrapping strength~~ muscles into a state of belligerency. There are records still extant recalling old-time fights between masters and pupils that lasted until each contestant was prostrated by the violence of the riot - or had their clothes torn from their bodies and rent into shreds.

Had the life of the country teacher been without all the physical encounters, ~~that were~~ the fate of those instructors, ~~his~~ their ridiculously small pay, and ~~his~~ their "home" life would have seemingly been all that one individual should have been called on to experience. The country teachers usually found homes ~~- stopping places -~~ with a director of the school, or with a family whose children attended the school. They were expected to give about a third of their wages for board and living, and supplement those dues with services in the stable or field of their host. Possibly ~~- probably, in fact -~~ the man teacher was obliged to share his room and board with the biggest of the sons of the family - who was rarely a companionable bed-fellow.

Woman teachers were taken in to the homes of families on about the same basis - helper and "paying guest." They ~~helped~~ aided with housework, looked after the small children, or taught the larger daughters how to study their lessons by the light of the fireplace. Strength, fearlessness, and willingness to aid in home work where they boarded, were the paramount essentials for teaching the young ideas how to shoot in the early times. The mental qualifications required

pedagogues to be able to teach "Readin, Ritin, Rithmetic," the latter generally called "cypherin". It was some time before English grammar and other "high falutin" branches were added to the primative test.

The big boys ran the school unless the master was the better man on the knock-down-and-drag-out method of settling differences. They were also the bosses of the younger and less or rough-and-tumble-inclined lads. They brooked no interference by rival admirers of girl classmates they particularly fancied, and they fought for the position of leadership.

The school houses furnished no zest for the work of teaching. Often they were deserted log houses or tumble down shanties, dark and dreary and in Winter invariably cold. The teacher was the fireman, and frequently was obliged to chop the wood from a nearby forest. He swept the school room, if none of the pupils volunteered, and unless some of the boys would follow orders and bring a bucket of drinking water from a spring or well, frequently a distance off, He undertook that chore himself.

Only the teachers' need of money induced them to take up the job which they most frequently used as a stepping-stone to something more congenial and with better pay.

Teachers in the schools of the towns of Delaware and in the city of Wilmington were by no means spared the discouraging conditions. There were more boys to a school and the teachers were on the look out constantly against the pranks of obstreperous students.

On this point may be cited a case what was known as "Barring the Teacher" practiced on John Webster, master of the Friends' School, West Street near Fourth, in 1780. While the custom of thus taking the measure of a new pedagogue had been frequently resorted to, Friend Webster was the last Delaware school teacher subjected to ~~experience~~ such ignominy and humiliation.

As early Friends were disinclined to observe the holidays, in addition to the two days of the week that they attended divine services in their meeting houses, the boys of "Quaker Hill" ~~School~~ organized to force the master to close the school Christmas Day. The night before they piled wood against the door inside and nailed windows down securely. Teacher John appeared as usual at eight o'clock Christmas morning to open the school house with his key, and was infuriated and chagrined to find that he had been "barred out". The door yielded not an inch and the teacher in appealing to the boys inside, got the promise of opening the door "if you will give us Christmas for a holiday". The incensed teacher retorted that "it is not my will, that my boys shall rule or dictate terms of peace". Master John tried with renewed determination to force the door, but still found himself unable to break the blockade until three Friends on their way to meeting - just across the street - came to his rescue, and with an iron bar they banged open one of the barred windows while the "garrison" of boys fled through another.

Three of the obstreperous lads were caught, and eventually all the offenders were brought before their schoolmaster, who demonstrated that he was a firm believer of corporal punishment for infractions, such as "Barring the teacher", and trying to usurp his authority.

J. Barton Cheyney
February 2, 1937

There were ~~various~~ other equally offensive methods resorted to by school boys of the early times, when education had not been taken seriously. It was a not very general ~~but an~~ rough annoying custom, however, to plug up all the windows and crevices in the school and throw a smoke-producing compound into the fire which was sure to promptly empty the building. Animate or inanimate objects that would release a suffocating stench were likewise brought into play when the Wilmington school boys desired to harrass teachers.

The saddening feature of this early rowdyism or overflow ~~exhibition~~ of animal spirits, if preferred, was that the teacher who could not obtain and retain mastery over his students was obliged to try to find another school for the next year. An early pedagogue no matter how learned and equipped mentally for teaching, must have been able to master and control his biggest, hardest-hitting boys if he expected to continue in the educational field.

Reference: History of Delaware, J. Thomas Scharf, A.M. LL.D. (2 vold,)
Vol. 2 p 691 pp T.J. Lewis & Co., Philadelphia
1888; press clippings

SCHOOLS

Dover has one accredited High School, a Junior High, and Elementary School with a total enrollment of 1002 pupils, and a faculty of forty-three.

The school building is of comparative recent construction, having been erected in 1923, ground, buildings and equipment having cost $199,000. In 1930-31 six rooms were added at a cost of $21,000. The following year six more rooms were built, the cost being $50,000. The building is equipped with eighteen elementary classrooms, twelve high school classrooms, a Laboratory, Home Economics, Gymnasium, Auditorium, Library and Cafeteria.

The Booker T. Washington School is a school of nine grades for the colored children, with an enrollment of three hundred and thirty pupils, and a faculty of twelve teachers.

The school was completed in 1924 at a cost of $60,000. This is one of the colored schools for which Mr. Pierre duPont provided the money. In 1935 an addition was made to the school at a cost of $37,000.00, the State paying $28,000 and the United States Government the remainder.

Wm. H. Conner
June 2, 1937

Sewer Folder 91

From Bureau of Education Circular of Information No.3, 1893 Contributions to American Educational History edited by Herbert B. Adams No.15 THE HISTORY OF EDUCATION in DELAWARE By Lyman P. Powell, A.B. Fellow in the Wharton School of Finance and Economy at the University of Pennsylvania, and Staff Lecturer on History to the American Society for the Extension of University Teaching, Washington Government Printing Office, 1893. pp 60 and 61.

LEWES

The origin of this ancient town is all but lost in the mists of tradition.[3] Certain it is that more than 30 Dutchmen settled hereabouts in 1631, and fell a prey to Indian vengeance a few months later. A family tradition, so unique as to be noteworthy if not entirely credible, has it that a Dutchman named Wiltbank in 1650 settled at Lewes, then an Indian village, and donated a lot for a schoolhouse.

Another tradition, which the Lewes people would about as readily give up as their lives, is that the first school for girls in America was established here. No original records have been found either to prove or disprove it. But the following testimony indicates that Lewes had a reputation for preeminence in female education two hundred years ago. Further than this we dare not go. Watson, referring to the latter part of the seventeenth century, remarks: "At this early period of time so much had the little Lewistown at our southern cape the preeminence in female tuition, that Thomas Lloyd, the deputy governor, preferred to send his younger daughters from Philadelphia to that place to finish their education." Lewes was at this time, says Oldmixon, " a handsome large Town, standing on the lovely bank of a River, between the Town and the Sea, which makes the Harbour."

It must not be forgotten that the Lewes Presbytery in 1738 set in motion the current of higher education in Delaware by petitioning The Philadelphia Synod to subject candidates for the ministry to a searching examination in the "several branches of philosophy

and divinity, and the languages;" and that this petition led to the founding of the New London Academy in Pennsylvania, the germ from which Newark Academy and Delaware College developed.

Female teachers were employed at a very early date in Lewes. The first "schoolmarm" was the widow of Wrexham Lewis; the second, also a widow, was Mrs. Thompson.[1]

The first schoolmaster named in the records of Lewes is John Russell, who joined the functions of an educator to those of a deputy recorder in 1734. Two years later Thomas Penn ordered that the income from the Great Marsh[2] be devoted to the support of education in Lewes.

In 1761 a schoolhouse was erected on Second street, near Ship Carpenter street, in which school was kept for more than one hundred years. A deed was executed May 4,1762, for the lot on which it stood by John Wiltbank to David Hall, Matthew Wilson, and other citizens for a consideration of 10 shillings,"as well as for the promotion and encouragement of the youth of the county, being taught and educated in the principles of religion and virtue, useful knowledge, and learning." One of the best of the schoolmasters who occupied the building was William Harris, who lived at the beginning of this century. The school was incorporated in 1818 and a board of trustees appointed.

Rev. Francis Hindman, afterwards principal of Newark Academy kept one of the first classical schools in Lewes in 1795. Its success led to the establishment of Lewes Academy, for which a building was erected. Peter McLaughlin was appointed principal of the new academy in 1803, and was succeeded two years later by Rev. James Wiltbank, a graduate of Princeton. The latter afterwards achieved a reputation as provost of the University of Pennsylvania.

The school was incorporated February 2, 1818. A school for young ladies was organized about that time in connection with the academy, and R. S. Clarke was chosen to conduct it. He modestly assured his patrons that he could "teach grammar grammatically, and would also use the globes." Rev. A. Strong taught in the academy for almost a score of years, and is still remembered by the old inhabitants. The institution in its best days had an excellent repution and enrolled many students from remote quarters. Many years ago it was closed, and the building now serves as a private residence. The schools of Lewes and vicinity are now controlled by a "board of public education," created by an act of the general assembly passed March 9, 1885.

If the claim of Lewes to priority in female education has not been finally established, it has perhaps been strengthened. But that aside, Lewes enjoys a distinction that belongs to few towns in the land, viz, an educational history at least two centuries old.

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3 Bancroft, 1, 499,500. Letters from Dr. David L. Mustard and Miss Mary T. Hall. Watson's Annals of Philadelphia, 1,287. Oldmixon, 179. Scharf, 11,1230. Laws of Delaware, v,316 Chapter on Newark Academy, p.71.

1. Mrs. Margaret Coleman, one of the oldest residents, is the source of this information.

2. Scharf, 11, 1230. The history of the Great Marsh furnishes us another survival of Germanic customs till our own day that deserves a place, because of its age, by the side of the Boston Common, which dates from 1634. The marsh is northwest of the town, and is bounded on the northeast by Lewes Creek, and by Broadkiln Creek on the northwest. One of the first references to it in the records is found in a suit at court, September, 1687, in which "Jonathan Bailey was summoned to appear before the grand jury, for about since the beginning of the year 1686 contemning and despising the neighbors, not only the King's Highway to the own use which said highway hath been Made, Worne, and accustomed for many years, neither had the neighbors any other roads or highway to ye commons, commonly called Marshes, either to fetch hay, look after their cattle or

other orations, but alsoe to the only known Ancient place of a burying ground for the town of Lewis,&c." "He also had placed the frame of a windmill thereon and alsoe hath not only confidently and impudently denyed and Refused thy neighbors the use of ye said ground to bury their dead, forbidding them or any of them to come upon the said ground." The grand jury found a true bill against Bailey, and he was convicted of an infringement upon the rights of the public. Forty years later Thomas Penn confirmed the people of Lewes in the right to the use of the commons, and it has retained its public character to this day. Dr. D. L. Mustard writes the author that the "great marsh is still used for grazing." Annually the grass-bearing sections are divided into lots and the grass is sold at public auction, the proceeds going into the town treasury. It has been many years since the funds accruing from this source were appropriated to schools.

Ellen Samworth.

Education in Lewes.

The early history of Lewes is veiled in tradition and the same hazy record of education is all we have before the eighteenth century. Scharf records trade being carried on between the Dutch and the Indians as early as 1622. (2:1221) The Swedes are said by the same writer to have left some of their colonists at Paradise Point in 1638 who were joined by Dutch traders who again traded with the Indians. Through their influence the Horekill section was purchased from the Indians in 1658.

There is a tradition firmly adhered to by the descendants of one Wiltbank, a Dutchman, who settled in Lewes in 1650 when it was nothing but an Indian village. He was appointed schout* and he gave a lot for a schoolhouse at that early date. There is no record of a school having been built, but there are records of Wiltbanks in prominent positions in Lewes history, for a century and a half after this date, especially recurring in educational matters.

In 1672 the first deed for land in Lewes, issued by Governor Francis Lovelace, was to Hermanus Frederick Wiltbank for all that piece of land at the Horekill called Lewes.

In 1682 William Penn gave title "to the lot on which he is building a vessel to 'Hermanus Wiltbank', the lot adjoining his farm."

In 1683, Hermanus Wiltbank sued William Beverly for his neglect of his work in building his vessel.

These seventeenth century references to the Dutch Hermanus Wiltbank establish his residence and real estate ownership in this ancient town at a date early enough for him to have antedated any other patron of education. In addition to these court records, the Friends, having no meeting house in Lewes, met weekly in the home of Hermanus Wiltbank.

In 1735 we find an Abraham Wiltbank owning a wharf. In 1740, one Cornelius Wiltbank was elected Sheriff of Sussex County. In 1774 John

* sheriff.

Wiltbank was a member of the committee appointed by Lewestown to protect British taxation.

Earlier than his taxation protest, John Wiltbank, in 1762, sold for ten shillings, a lot on Second Street near Ship-carpenter to a group of leading citizens for the erection of a school for the youth of the county, "where they might be instructed in religion, virtue and useful knowledge and learning." Here is the first subscription school in Sussex County.

Whether the lot for a schoolhouse was given in 1650 we cannot say with confidence, but on January 23, 1763, the quit rents of the Common, one penny sterling per acre, were ordered to be paid for the support of the schools. We must know that this extensive Common had been set aside for the benefit of the County. The first Lewes school to be erected on Second Street was designated for the youth of the "county."

In Lewes as in all colonial settlements the church either accompanied, or soon followed, the colonists. Almost before the end of the seventeenth century we find a Presbyterian congregation in Lewes served by one Rev. Samuel Davis, a scholarly man having the interest in educating the young that has always been the concern of a scholarly church. The Presbyterian churches in the vicinity of Lewes were erected into the Presbytery of Lewis-Town, September 22, 1735, after having membership in the New Castle Presbytery since 1706 and were appointed to meet on the 19th of November 1736. At the annual meeting of the Synod of Philadelphia May 24, 1738 the Presbytery of Lewes presented a petition to that body calling their attention to the lack of proper educational facilities for the youth in "this part of the world where God has ordered our lot," and praying for a proper examination of candidates for the ministry in the several branches of "philosophy, divinity, and languages, etc." for the encouragement of students--without putting them to further expense than attending." This petition coming

from the southern-most end of the three Lower counties brought a notable classical schooling in the northernmost county and in the course of almost two centuries, a State University.

The Presbyterians were not alone in their contribution to the education of boys and girls. Every missionary minister was a teacher, and parochial schools were everywhere the earliest seats of education, usually limiting their instruction to the ability to read the Bible and the church catechism. In 1715 the Episcopalians reported to George Keith, the missionary of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, that their people were falling away for the need of a minister, that they had preserved their identity by house to house visiting and by instructing the children. The Rev. Wm. Beckett was sent to them, a scholarly man, and in 1720-1721 thefirst Episcopal church in Lewes was erected.

The Rev. George Ross, the long time missionary pastor located in New Castle writes in his journal, "his labors in the Gospel during his stay in the County of Sussex, August 27, 1717. There has been a Presbyterian minister settled among them these many years. The Presbyterians also are becoming very strong in the county. They have built two chapels and have a min^{s} appointed lately amongst them, a gent^{n} who for great learning, goodness and strong judgment, and eloquence of speech by reports of much better judges than ourselves is deemed to have a large share of these excellent qualifications."

The Presbyterian minister of whom the Rev. Ross speaks so highly, the Rev. Samuel Davis, was probably the first teacher of a school organized in Lewes. He was sent to Lewes in 1704, built his first church in 1707, which was both meeting house and school, though the use as a school is not recorded. In the minutes of the Presbytery of Philadelphia and later of the Synod the absence of Rev. Samuel Davis is noticeable, but his excuses were always satisfactory, and indicate a life too busy

for long absences.

The Friends in Quakertown had a meeting after the manner of their sect in 1692 which, as before stated, used the home of Cornelius Wiltbank in 1712. That these Friends, as was their custom, had a school organized though they had erected no meeting house, is supported by a statement made by Watson in his Annals of Philadelphia, "that Governor Thomas Lloyd, the deputy Governor, preferred to send his younger daughters from Philadelphia to that place to finish their education."

At the Zwaanendael Museum, Lewes, there is a metallic seal on display about one and one-half inches in diameter that bears a clearly cut inscription, "Trustees of Penn's Charter School." This seal was dug up by workmen excavating a cellar in Quakertown. The people of Lewes will never give up their tradition of having the first girls' school in America.

Besides claiming the honor of having the first girls' school in America they employed women teachers long before women were in favor as teachers. The first woman employed was the widow of Wrexham Lewis. The second was also a widow, a Mrs. Thompson.

As an evidence of early educational progress the witnesses to a Friends marriage ceremony, twelve men and women, in 1683 made their marks. On August 20, 1705 nine of the twelve witnesses wrote their names.

School masters are remembered in Lewes before schools were built, for although the first school building was erected in 1762, John Russel, who was Deputy recorder, is spoken of as the schoolmaster of the town in 1734. Dr. William Harris was a schoolmaster of such worth that his work lingered long beyond his own generation.

One of the first classical schools in Lewes was kept by the Rev. Francis Hindman, a strict disciplinarian, who afterward was principal of Newark Academy. The opening of this school in 1795 led to the

establishing of the Lewes Academy soon after, for which a building was erected at the intersection of South and Third Streets under the management of a Board of Trustees one of whom was a Wiltbank. At the same time a school for young ladies in connection with the academy was taught by R.S.Clark who made a great profession of his ability, a assuring his patrons that he would teach Grammar grammatically, and would also use the globes. The Rev. James Wiltbank was the principal of Lewes Academy who succeeded Peter McLaughlin, and who afterward became provost of the University of Pennsylvania. Of course, these schools, fine as they were, did not offer public education but were subscription schools open to all white pupils who could pay the fees.

In 1829, under the public school law, Sussex County was divided into school districts, but no school in Lewes was built or owned by the town until 1875.

In 1875 and act providing for a State Superintendnet of schools, a certification of teachers, consolidation of school districts, led to the consolidation of districts Numbers 14, 15, 110, 112 for the better promotion of the schools. A local board of education consisting of t twelve outstanding citizens was elected. Bonds were issued for six thousands dollars for the erection of a public school, and a commodious building adequate for the needs of the town was erected at a cost of eight thousand dollars. A course of study was laid out for all the grades, and the first class to finish the course was graduated in 1879 under the principalship of Prof. H.C. Carpenter who afterward became assistant State Superintendent. After the new Code went into effect in 1921 a modern up-to-date building was erected on an ample campus that gives space for expansion, but that contains in building, grounds

and equipment the facilities for liberal education from kindergarten to college entrance, or to rich social living.

The public school has taken the place of the Lewes Academy and the other private schools, because it offers academic training- manual arts, physical training, fine arts, opportunity for full life in childhood preparatory for fuller life in manhood and womanhood.

Besides the work in education done by the good classical private schools of Lewes it is fair to say a word about the Sunday schools in the early days. An Act of the General Assembly Feb.3, 1821 provided that to Sabbath-Day schools for the children of poor parents an allowance of twenty cnets per pupil should be paid in Sunday Schools that were in session at least three months in the year. Two schools in Sussex County participated, one received $8.73 and the other $11.00 but there is no record that these schools were in Lewes. In 1867 an Act provided that fifty cnets per pupil annually should be paid. Whether any State funds came to Lewes or not there were outstanding Sunday Schools in the town. The first Sunday School in Lewes was held in the old Bethel Church as a Union School. In 1816 the school was conducted under a constitution written by Rev. John Rodney, and taught by eight ladies, three Methodists, three Presbyterians, and two Episcopalians. The school was held first in the Methodist, then in the Presbyterian Church. In 1820 a Sunday School was taught in the school-house on Second Street by ladies of the various denominations.

Lewes is situated at the mouth of Delaware Bay and its favorable location should have made it a maratime port, but for some reason it has been the port of men of culture rather than men of commerce. It has always had a large percentage of its people who were men of culture, physicians, authors, lawyers. The collector of the port appointed before 1703 by Queen Anne was a man of great knowledge and classical learning. He translated many Greek and Latin writings. The

Rev. Wm. Beckett, scholar and author left a manuscript volume of poems now in possession of the Pennsylvania Historical Society.

The fine schools in the town and the culture of the townspeople has led to Lewes being called the Cradle of Education.

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Copy.

Town.

1c in pamphlet drawer in "Rodney" folder

THE

DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION

IN NEW CASTLE

**

We are met tonight to celebrate the formal opening of this magnificent building--the last word in educational architecture. We are met to formally dedicate this latest expression of the public desire to surround our youth with all material advantages for the attainment of their early education without which life must be but an empty existence.

I have been asked to speak to you tonight somewhat about the history of education in New Castle. I willingly concede that there are many who can perform this duty more suitably than I, yet I gladly undertake it and will feel well repaid if I am able to marshal sufficient facts or array enough of the scattered fragments of educational history of the town to portray in some degree the difficulties under which our fathers struggled and by throwing them in sharp contrast with all of our advantages and opportunities of the present to make us appreciative of all that is done for us.

The whole subject of education is one of change. The word itself is, of course, of Latin origin meaning a "leading out" but the whole matter is one of a process of change--a leading of the human mind out of the gloom and darkness of ignorance

into the bright rays of an intelligent knowledge whereby all the glories of human achievement and human history are made known.

Change is ever present and its manifestations so common that we may never notice them. A hole dug in the surface of the earth, it has been said, is a change, differing only in degree, from the act of moving a mountain to join two mighty oceans.

So education has been likened to the growing of a tree. Without man's intent a tree will grow, but he prunes it and trims it--tends it and waters it and it well repays him for the care he takes. So it is with childhood in the formative years when the teacher trims and nourishes the quickening brain and develops the mind and body for the corporate life of tomorrow.

A more impersonal characterization of the teacher likens her to a guide for tourists in a strange land. If she be capable she can make us see with her eyes all the glories of the past ages of history and give us some faint glimpse into the limitless wonders of fiction!

But, I am not to speak of education as an abstract subject, but to confine myself to the dry and insipid task of glorifying ourselves in appreciation of our own surroundings by comparing them with the inadequacies of those whose footsteps we now follow.

It is not my purpose nor would time admit of a detailed description of the oldest and most primitive educational effort in New Castle. During the Swedish regime, during the occupation of the Dutch and during the early years of the English settlement, the conditions were much alike. We read repeatedly of the request of the early settlers for the sending of schoolmasters, but generally the schoolmasters consisted of the clergy

of the different denominations whose education best fitted them to perform this additional task.

I prefer to start my consideration of the subject at or about the period of the Revolution. I do this for several reasons. The names and the circumstances of the older schoolmasters are set out in the few printed works we have, notable in the admirable work of Powell's History of Education in Delaware. When I choose to tread the fascinating maze of Delaware History, I prefer the more obscure trails feeling that any information I acquire and preserve is an addition to the sum of knowledge and a contribution to the history of my town or State. More particularly, I prefer to commence at the Revolutionary period because in this period I see more than a mere desire for political freedom from the throne of England. The Revolution was not only a war, but it was far more. It was an era in our civilization when the human mind was expanding and our forefathers were reaching out to grasp ideals hardly dreamed of a few short years before. The Revolutionary period covers a decade before the outbreak of armed hostilities. In that decade I see the germ of the first idea of a fixed and general education in New Castle--not yet a common and free school--but a marked advance beyond any step of the past. During the period from 1766 to 1770 the Assembly of these Three Lower Counties took occasion to investigate the title to the Square in the Centre of our town which they called the "Market Place," the "Market Plain," and the "Market Square," and they found "that upon the first laying out of the town the same square was laid off and allotted for the public use and benefit of the inhabitants and has ever since been occupied as such, but that the legal estate hath not been conveyed to or

vested in any person or body corporate for the purpose aforesaid or any other."

This was followed by the Act of June 13, 1772 (Delaware Laws Vol. 1, p. 516). In this Act the Legislature vested the lot of ground that is now the corner of Third and Harmony Streets, in certain Trustees, David Finney, John Thompson, George Read, Thomas McKean, and George Monro, but the recital in the Act and the purpose of the Trust are the important things. The Act recites that the inhabitants of the town intend to erect a school house and the ground is conveyed for the erection of a school house or houses thereon. Here is the first formed design that I know of to have a building in New Castle set apart for educational purposes. Before this I imagine the masters held their schools in their own houses or in the houses of the more prominent of their pupils.

Notwithstanding the recital of the Act, I can find no suggestion that a school was started on the site for the next twenty-six years. I am aware that certain historians, including the late Alexander B. Cooper, state that soon after the original grant a building was erected. I can find no proof whatever that the building was started until 1798. We must remember that from the time of the Continental Congress in 1774, conditions in Delaware were in a turmoil and a chaotic state. When armed revolt had become necessary, our Delaware soil was long either in the grasp, or under the close surveillance of the enemy and during all the long years of active strife men could not give of time or means for building the school. The master minds were either in cabinet or in camp and the small voice seeking education could not be heard amid the din of arms.

So far as I have been able to ascertain, the first general school established in New Castle after the British had evacuated Philadelphia and withdrawn their forces from the control of the River was started in 1779. In that year George Read, Nicholas Van Dyke and David Finney rented for school purposes, from John Lewden and others, the then Trustees, the meeting house of the Society of Friends. They paid £ 6 per annum for the use of the building and school was there maintained for a number of years--at least six. This building was located on a lot 120 feet in width and 300 feet in depth and bounded on the southeast by Beaver Street (now called Fourth Street) on the northwest by Otter Street (now called Fifth Street) and on the northeast by what is now called William Street.

Samuel Armor was the first teacher. I do not know exactly where he came from, but I do know he had expected a professorship in what is now the University of Pennsylvania. He left New Castle to become a professor in Washington College in Chestertown, Maryland. I do not know the exact compensation received by Mr. Armor, but I do know that it was largely based upon the guaranty to him of 300 bushels of wheat, because in the following year after his coming, he stipulated that because of the advanced price of all necessaries, the 300 bushels of wheat should be rated at the market price in Wilmington or Chester, instead of at the basic rate of $1.00 per bushel.

The exact number of pupils in Mr. Armor's school is unkown, and I can only definitely identify fourteen.

Mr. Armor left New Castle in 1783 and was succeded by Rev. Matthew Tate. Mr. Tate was in New Castle certainly for three years, but beyond that date I have no information. Indeed the next ten years cover a period of which little is known of the

educational progress in New Castle.

We know that the school was held in the Friends Meeting House from 1779 to 1785. We have no data from 1785 to 1796. We are again assured that the school was held in the Meeting House from 1796 to 1799, because of the record of a lease from "Jacob Starr, Nicholas Robinson and George Spackman, a committee of the Quaker Society," dated September 1, 1796. It is extremely probable that the school continued to be held in the Meeting House during the entire time from 1779 to 1799 when the Academy was created.

We know that Abraham Miller was teaching in New Castle in 1796 and 1797, but it is not clear how long he had been teaching and his continuance here is doubtful after the formation of the Academy.

Retaining some semblance of chronological order, we now come to a consideration of the erection of the old Academy building and from this time forward the history of education in New Castle is largely a study of the buildings themselves.

On March 17th, 1798, appears the first tangible and conclusive evidence of an intention to establish a real school in New Castle. It was called a public school, but the time had not yet come for a free school as we know our public schools today. It was public in the sense that all could attend it upon the payment of a small tuition. On the date mentioned there appears this entry on the minutes of the Trustees of New Castle Common:

> ORDERED, that a Committee be appointed to draw the form of an ordinance respecting the disposal of the monies belonging to this corporation. The committee was George Read, Kensey Johns, and Nicholas Van Dyke, who made the following report:

WHEREAS, the establishing of a public seminary of learning in the town of New Castle would conduce much to the general benefit of the community,

BE IT RESOLVED, that the funds arising from the lands known by the New Castle Common shall be and they are hereby appropriated for the erection and support of a college in the town of New Castle after the discharge of the debts of this corporation and the necessary expenses in the management of the business thereof.

Educational developments followed quickly in the wake of the first movement. It is unfortunate that the minute book of the New Castle Academy has not been preserved or at least cannot be located. The treasurer's book shows 69 individual subscriptions totalling $2,714.56. Practically all subscriptions are dated June 20,1799, so we may assume that the activities started about that time and it would appear that the actual building operation commenced immediately.

On March 11, 1801, the minutes of the Trustees of the Common again recite the appropriation of funds for the erection and support of a seminary of learning in the town of New Castle and further recite that

"a building for that purpose has been erected to which it is requisite that an addition be made to render the said building necessary and convenient as an academy."

The resolution then proceeds to make all funds on hand payable toward the cost of erection of the addition and all future rents to be divided so that one-half would be applicable to discharge the cost of erection and the other one-half of rents for the support of the school. Between 1801 and 1809 the Trustees advanced for the Academy nearly $5,000. In 1811 the sum of $700

was appropriated to build the cupola and install the bell.

On April 22, 1799, the name of New Castle Academy was adopted for the new school and six trustees chosen--Kensey Johns, James Booth, George Read, Archibald Alexander, James Caldwell and John Crow. The first five of these were again selected in 1800 with the addition of James Riddle, Nicholas Van Dyke, John E. Latta and Robert Clay. Mr. Latta was the minister of the Presbyterian Church, and Mr. Clay, rector of Immanuel Parish.

On January 30, 1801, the New Castle Academy was incorporated by Act of the General Assembly with nine trustees--Kensey Johns, James Booth, George Read, Archibald Alexander, James Riddle, James Caldwell, Nicholas Van Dyke, James McCallmont and John Bird. In 1808, under authority of one of the sections of this Act, Thomas McKean, surviving trustee of the school house lot under the Act of 1772, conveyed the legal title of that lot to the trustees of New Castle Academy. On February 4, 1818, the charter of the New Castle Academy was amended and it was provided that five trustees should annually be chosen. The electors consisted of white male persons who had either (1) contributed at least $20 toward the original erection of the building, or (2) contributed $10 toward the fund for the education of poor children or (3) agreed to pay $30 for the education of a child at the academy for one year. Elections were held for a short time, but no further entries or information about the trustees of the academy is in my possession. It is probable that as the years passed and educational management and control drifted into the hands of the trustees of New Castle Common that all elections for trustees of the academy were simply passed over and were discontinued. In 1849 Chancellor Kensey Johns and Chief Justice James Booth were the sole surviving trustees.

We have no complete list of the teachers in the academy, but appended to this paper are the names of some of those who spent many years in the education of the youth of New Castle.

It is reasonably clear that the first teachers of the new academy in April, 1799, were Michael Smith, who taught the male department, and Joseph Dana, who taught the female. Mr. Smith's compensation was $466.66 per year and that of Mr. Dana, $400.00. Both were in New Castle until at least 1802.

The Rev. John E. Latta in 1800 became the Presbyterian minister in New Castle. For a long period he was also a tutor in the academy. A letter is in existence from William T. Read in New Castle to James Booth, Jr., at Princeton, dated March 26, 1806, which throws some side-lights upon the course of study at the academy. Read was then 14 years old, and Booth but little older. Read says:

> "It has always been my idea that I was to enter the freshman class (at Princeton) next fall. I think I would be rather too young for the Sophomore * * * We have begun a few days ago to read Xenophon, but I am very much afraid that I shall not be able to obtain much benefit from it, as Mr. Latta still perseveres in his ridiculous plan of making us read Xenophon in Latin. The little man has not yet been able to get over the prejudices of the old school. * * * Mr. Latta still continues to tire us with his usual long Saturday prayers, but I believe the little man does it for the best."

This letter came again into the possession of its author in 1868 and to it Mr. Read made this note:

> "Rev. John E. Latta was our well-qualified teacher and his pupils, it was said, were better prepared than was

usual for the college. Though his prayers and religious instructions may at times have been tedious yet I have ever felt that I owed to them very much."

Hugh W. Ritchie, James Riddle, Ebenezer Wright, Aquilla Thomas and Samuel Hood were also tutors, while Samuel Jaquette seems to have taught from at least 1804 to his death in 1831. The tuition seems to have varied from $2.00 to $6.00 per quarter depending, I presume, upon the grade of the pupil. In 1842, John Long started a new school for boys in the academy, but it is not clear how long it was maintained. It is hoped that some day the minutes of the New Castle Academy may come to light. It is not necessarily a vain hope, for only within the last month one of our leading business men found in a far corner of his cellar two books containing the names of all Mr. Jaquette's scholars from 1816 to 1831.

In 1829, Judge Willard Hall fostered and had passed the first free and public school bill in this State. The entire State was divided into school districts and a comparatively small sum was allotted to each for the maintenance of the school dependent on each district supplying its own school building and contributing an amount equal to the state allotment for maintenance. New Castle was divided between Districts No.45 and No.46 and the division line ran through the hallway of the academy building and the voting place of each district was in the lower room on each side of the hallway. Subsequently the districts were united. New Castle did not come under the Public School System for many years, but on the contrary the schools of New Castle continued to be operated in the same manner whereby a small amount was paid for the tuition of each pupil and the schools were assisted

from time to time by the Trustees of the Commons.

The condition of the schools in New Castle at this time was most unsatisfactory and continually grew worse. In 1845 a committee of the Trustees of the Common was appointed to investigate the matter. The committee made a long report in which they set out the failure of the free school system as then in operation in the State and recited that a number of desirable citizens had refused to move to New Castle because of the lack of educational advantages. Notwithstanding a strong report by the committee recommending a small appropriation, it was voted in the negative. The matter was again brought up in 1850 and in 1851. The trustees appropriated $1,500.00 for the purpose of establishing a correct system of public instruction in New Castle.

This was the beginning of the New Castle Institute and on February 4, 1852, an Act of Assembly was passed which in reality for the first time brought the New Castle schools within the public and free school system of the State in any degree. This act recited that the institute had been formed by the Trustees of the Common for the teaching not only the rudiments of learning, but such classical literature as is usually taught in seminaries and colleges; that the school was supported by the Trustees of New Castle Common and by subscription of such as could pay, but that any child whose parents were unable to pay tuition would be admitted without charge. After these recitals the act provided that the share of the school fund due to the United School Districts should be paid to the Educational Committee of the Trustees of the Common for school purposes. So the schools had become free, but in no other respect had they become part of the school system.

Prior to the last few years, when the New Castle

Schools acquired their present high state of efficiency, I think the period of the institute from 1851 to 1875 represents the high water mark of educational standards in New Castle. Mr. A. M. Wiggins was the first principal and Mr. W. F. Lane his assistant. In 1857 there were four graduates of this school who entered directly from the institute to the junior class at Princeton. I have not the exact course of study, but for the years 1852 and 1853 I have the examinations papers and the questions asked in Greek, Latin, English, Etymology, Algebra, Arithmetic, History, Physiology and Constitutional history could well puzzle more than these fourteen-year-old students. It is amazing to me that the school was so good. The institute consisted of entirely separate male and female departments, but with the same course of study.

Let us now for a minute turn our attention from the old Academy Building and direct our thoughts to the other of the two buildings on the Public Green..

The termination of the Revolutionary War resulted, of course, in a treaty of peace between the United States and Great Britain, but for a long time there was no amity or spirit of friendship between the two nations. Between the Revolution and the War of 1812 there were several periods when it seemed that hostilities must again be begun. The national and state authorities were giving their attention to the task of national defense and the attention of both was drawn to the necessity of defending the Delaware River and protecting Philadelphia. As one step in this matter of defense the Federal Government in 1809 erected an arsenal in New Castle upon the Green. It was a one-story brick building, 26 feet wide and 96 feet long. That building comprised the lower floor of what was our high school

building for over 50 years and until this present magnificent school was built.

In this arsenal building there were later placed 4 brass cannon with a large quantity of cannon balls, ammunition and other supplies for the army. The cannon each had its name and the Lawrence and Washington were 20 pounders and the Wasp and Hornet 6 pounders each. During the War of 1812, several companies of militia, infantry and artillery saw service at New Castle and a portion of the 42nd Regiment of U. S. Infantry was quartered here with headquarters at the arsenal. Later when Fort Delaware was destroyed by fire, two companies of U. S. Artillery were quartered in the Arsenal.

In 1809 when the arsenal was originally built the government obtained a deed, but a defective one, for that portion of the Green upon which it was erected. In 1845, about the time of the Mexican War, the arsenal was again in active use and the government sought to have the title corrected and a new deed executed. A new deed was executed pursuant to the wishes expressed at a public meeting, but the terms of the new deed were very restrictive. The building was limited to a use as an arsenal but it was subject to the further restriction that no ammunition could be there stored or troops quartered without the consent of the town.

The conditions and limitations plainly made the lot of little or no use to the Federal Government and it is not strange therefore that we find the Arsenal Building practically abandoned by the Federal Government and ready to be used by the Trustees of the Common when that body founded the New Castle Institute in 1852. Between 1853 and 1855, the structure was largely rebuilt. The walls were raised and a second story added with the

stairways and cupola as we see them there today. The Trustees of the Common expended between four and five thousand dollars in making the alterations to the building. The senior and junior classes of the male department met in the two rooms of the old arsenal when it was a one-story building and before the rebuilding began. During the construction in the fall of 1854 the classes met in the Town Hall.

And so conditions remained from 1852 to 1874. The Trustees of the Common ran the schools directly through the agency of a committee on education and the system gave more or less general satisfaction. The school was by no means small and in 1868 had 340 scholars, 200 in the male department and 140 in the female.

In 1874, however, the Trustees of the Common found it necessary to withdraw their financial support from the schools. This was because the trustees had guaranteed an annual sum in order to have a water system introduced into New Castle and a general reduction in the income of the board made it necessary to place the burden of the schools directly upon the people themselves. They, therefore, notified the citizens of the town that after March 31, 1875, it would be necessary to discontinue appropriations for schools.

Pursuant to this notice on March 10, 1875, the Board of Education was established by the General Assembly and the management and operation of the schools was directly under this board until the adoption of the present School Code. During these years the board had a most difficult task with insufficient funds. The total cost of the operation of the schools with a principal, and five female assistants could not exceed about $5,000. Twenty years later, in 1894 we find the total income of the board was

$7,075, being $1,575 from the State of Delaware and $5,500 raised from taxation in the city. Of course, these sums went further than they do today. Some of the teachers received the magnificent salary of $300 per year, really an average of $25 per month, for the teacher could take no other permanent occupation. Salaries seem not to have advanced much in the century from 1786 to 1886 for this amount of $300 per annum paid in 1886 seems to bear a striking resemblance to the entry of 300 bushels of wheat at $1.00 each guaranteed to Samuel Armor in 1786. One must not fall into the error of thinking that the New Castle Board of Education was conducting its schools upon a short year basis and therefore explain the smallness of salary. An early entry in the board's minutes reads "After July 5, the afternoon session might close at 4 o'clock instead of 5 o'clock." Truly the school years were long ones made up of long school days.

The necessity that the board was under of exercising every means of economy was apparent in another instance. The board had difficulty in absorbing the idea of a public and free school. We, therefore, see evidences of many long and bitter debates as to whether textbooks should be sold to the pupils or furnished free. The board was divided with a large majority against free books. But this cause celebre was not to be settled by the mere vote of a board. A town meeting was held and again there was a considerable division of opinion--so great was the division that it was considered so important a question that there should be a special city election to decide it. The election was held and the advocates of free books won and the financial troubles of the board were increased. It is not surprising that the advocates of free books won--it was probably right in principle, but the advocates of free anythings always win.

In 1879, it was considered necessary that the growing western part of the city be provided with a school and a lot was purchased at the corner of 11th and Gray Streets and the brick school house there erected. This building cost approximately $3,500, all of which was donated by the Trustees of the Common.

Notwithstanding all the difficulties the authorities have faced in attempting to give to the citizens of New Castle proper and adequate educational advantages, it seems to me that they have attained a remarkable success. Hampered for many years by inadequate financial resources, retarded by the lack of decent buildings and surroundings, the measure of success achieved by them was truly remarkable and must in a large measure be laid at the feet of those who labored so faithfully that the youth of the town might learn.

Notwithstanding the worries and difficulties that continually confronted the Board of Education, its membership at all times was of a high order and consisted of the best that the citizenship of the town could produce.

And now my story's done. In this rough and rather futile fashion I have attempted to draw to your attention some of the changes that from time to time have developed the present high state of education here.

To those who labored so faithfully under the adverse conditions connected with the old environment we render our heartiest appreciation. All praise and congratulations do we give to those responsible for the present structure. Admirably planned and of a style of architecture in keeping with the atmosphere of the city the development of the design shows such exact and careful foresight and skillful execution as to entitle every one connected

with the building the largest measure of our appreciation.

But we must not lose our sense of proportion--just as "Stone walls do not a prison make--nor iron bars a cage," so the buildings, surroundings and material advantages do not constitute education.

All depends upon what use is made of opportunities. One sees from the dim, shadowy glimpses of the past names of men who received their early education in the atmosphere of the New Castle schools--men who because of their attainments merited and received, in no small measure, the highest honors in the gift of their fellow-citizens. One sees among the youth, here educated, the names of those who graced the following offices:

Two United States Senators, two Representatives in Congress, a Governor, Chief Justice, two Judges and a whole galaxy of private citizens, men and women, doctors, lawyers, clergymen and business men who to the purity and sweetness of their private lives have added a culture of mind and a general refinement of attitude toward life that forms the very flower of our civilization--the true substratum of our race.

If the mental and spiritual growth of those who shall replace us in the active affairs of life shall reflect in any degree the great advance in material environment, then we shall have no fear of our future and shall have a just cause for a firm belief that we have done our full duty to our city and to our State.

Textbooks in Wilmington Public Schools
1881-1889

1881-1882

New American Primary Speller.	
Watson's Child's Speller.	dropped out in 1883
Watson's Complete Speller.	
Parker and Watson's Elementary Speller.	" " " 1884
Patterson's Speller and Analyzer.	
Parker and Watson's Primer.	
Parker and Watson's 2d Reader.	
Parker and Watson's 5th Reader.	
Watson's Independent 1st Reader.	" " " 1882
Watson's Independent Primary Reader.	
Watson's Independent 2d Reader	
Watson's Independent 3d Reader	
Watson's Independent 4th Reader	" " " 1884
Watson's Independent 5th Reader	" " " 1884
Watson's Independent 6th Reader	" " " 1884
Coates' Comprehensive Speaker	
Brooks' Union Arithmetic, Parts II and III.	
The New American Arithmetic Parts I and II.	" " " 1888
Ray's Higher Arithmetic.	
Todhunter's Algebra for Beginners.	
Greenleaf's Higher Algebra.	
Davies' Legendre's Geometry.	
Warren's New Primary Geography.	
Harper's School Geography.	
Warren's Physical Geography.	
Hadley's Lessons in Language.	
Swinton's Language Primer.	
Swinton's Language Lessons.	" " " 1883
Harvey's English Grammer.	
Bigsby's Elements of the English Language.	" " " 1888
Quackenbos's Rhetoric.	" " " 1884
Higginson's Young Folks' History of the United States.	
Barnes' History of the United States.	
Barnes' History of France.	" " " 1885
Leighton's History of Rome.	" " " 1885
Thalheimer's History of America.	" " " 1885
Shaw's New History of English and American Literature.	
Shaw's Specimens of English Literature.	
Norton's Elements of Natural Philosophy.	" " " 1882
Eliot & Storer's Elementary Manual of Chemistry.	
Payson, Dunton & Scribner's Copybooks.	
Crittenden's High-School Book-keeping	
Crittenden's High-School Book-keeping Blanks	
Alden's Science of Government.	
Webster's High-School Dictionary.	
Webster's Academic Dictionary.	
Webster's Unabridged Dictionary.	

Bartholmew's Primary Drawing Cards.	dropped	out	in	1888
Bartholmew's Drawing Books, Industrial Series	"	"	"	1888
Coe's Drawing Cards	"	"	"	1885
Calkin's New Primary Object Lessons	"	"	"	1884

June, 1882.

New National First Reader (~~first appearance~~)
Swinton's Easy Steps for Little Feet
Peck's Ganot's Natural Philosophy

1883.

Lancaster's History of England	"	"	"	1884

~~Barne's New National First Reader~~
Barne's New National Second Reader
Barne's New National Third Reader
Monteith's Popular Science Reader

1884.

Watson's Graphic Speller
Barne's New National Fourth Reader
Barne's New National Fifth Reader
Swinton's Golden Book of Choice Readings
Swinton's Readings in Nature's Book
Hill's Elements of Rhetoric
Harkness' Introductory Latin Book
Leighton's Latin Lessons
Allen & Greenough's Latin Grammar
Stuart's Caesar's Commentaries

1885.

Swinton's Book of Themes
Swinton's Readings in Nature's Book
Harper's First Book in Arithmetic

1886.

1887.

Barne's Elementary Arithmetic
Barne's Hygiene for Young Folks
Barne's Hygienic Physiology
Appleton's Reading Charts

1888.

Avery's Natural Philosophy
Barne's National System of Penmanship
Prang's Drawing Books

Wilmington
Board of Education.

List of Public Schools and Locations- 1926:

High School - Delaware Avenue and Monroe Sts. - Principal, M. Channing Wagner

School No. 1 - 5th and French Sts.
2 - 11th and Washington Sts.
3 - 3rd and Jefferson Sts.
4 - 3rd and Washington Sts.
5 - 12th and Walnut Sts.
6 - 3rd and Walnut Sts.
7 - 5th and Pine Sts.
8 - 7th and Spruce Sts.
9 - 8th and Wollaston Sts.
10 - Elm and Adams Sts.
11 - 9th and Scott Sts.
12 - 22nd and Market Sts.
13 - 17th and Union Sts.
14 - 309 S. Claymont St.
15 - 3rd and Harrison Sts.
16 - 12th and Orange Sts.
17 - 16th and Claymont Sts.
18 - 422 Townsend St.
19 - Oak and Harrison Sts.
20 - 10th and Spruce Sts.
21 - 5th and Scott Sts.
22 - 2nd and Justison Sts.
23 - 30th and Madison Sts.
24 - 14th and Washington Sts.
25 - 3rd and Bayard Sts.
School No. 26 - 14th and Thatcher Sts.
27 - Rockford Road and Park Ave.
28 - 8th and Adams St.
29 - 12th and Poplar Sts.
30 - Concord Ave. and Boulevard

Wilmington Drawer
Education :- Public Schools

LOCATION - - Wilmington

File No. W-643

Submitted by Ellen Samworth,

Date April 20,1936.

Pierre S du Pont High School.

Since 1871, the first year of high school history in Wilmington, the number of pupils graduated has increased. In a single year 1934-1935 the graduates alone numbered four times the entire seating capacity of the two room school at the S.W.Cor of 6th and French Streets, Wilmington's first public school building, that housed the first high school class of boys. The increase in high school enrollment has exceeded Wilmington's increase in population. Vocational education has been a holding power for boys and girls, and the overlapping of class schedules, and the double sessions necessary to seat the high school classes aroused the citizens to the need of a new high school building. With the help of every one ~~fe~~ of from the Governor, the services groups, interested citizens, especially that public-spirited citizen, Mr. Pierre S duPont, the sentiment led the General Assembly to allot a sufficient fund to build the school and later a fund to remodel the present Wilmington High School.

Population studies, as to present and future needs led the Board of Education to select a site containing ~~20~~ 22 acres at 34th and VanBuren Sts for the new school to accommodate 2,000 pupils.

The architect retained was Mr. E. William Martin, A.A.L. The Delaware School Foundation under Mr. Alexander T. Taylor furnished the engineering service for the construction of the building.

The General Assembly alloted the sum of $1,500,000. and the P.W.A. alloted the sum of $435,000.

The design is roughly E. shape, Georgian design and faces south-west so as to afford the best distribution of light and air.

The building is three stories and part basement high, nearly one half the basement is unexcavated. The construction is of steel and reinforced cement. The roof of part tile and part composition. The exterior is face brick with cut stone trimmings in pleasing proportion and relief. Class room partitions are of gypsum block. Corridor and stair hall partitions are of buff brick. The main entrance is placed in the direct center of the west wing and is of interesting design, the six piers of cut stone supporting an equal number of columns with capitals, frieze, and pediment which carries in the eye up to the graceful tower capping the west of main wing of the building. There is a triple entrance in the main wing leading to the corridors 12 feet wide covered with block linoleum. Secondary entrances are located at the ends of the west wing, two in the north, and two in the south wings. In addition to these seven principal entrances there are outside doors leading to the boys gymnasium, the cafeteria, the corridors surrounding the auditorium, and all courts. Stairways are eight in number, four in the main wing, two in the north and two in the south wings.

The heating system of three boilers, automatically stoked with soft coal provides fresh, washed, and filtered heated air throughout the entire building. Grills and exhaust vents are located in each room for the prupose of removing foul air. The exhaust system is operated by motor driven fans and gravity.

Standard pipe system is part of the fire protection equipment and no part of the building is more than 75 feet distant from the nearest hose and outlet,hose and hose racks and valves being exposed in the corridors. Waste paper and refuse are disposed of through incinerator tubes connected directly with incinerator located in the basement. The construction of the building is fire resistant,classified Type "B" Eight stairways are located on each floor with exit doors swinging with the line of exit travel.

Fire alarm boxes are placed in sufficient numbers throughout the building so that a person cannot be more than approximately 50 feet from an alarm box at anytime. Lockers are provided in such number that each people has one locker.

To describe only a moderate number of the modern conveniences and advantages of this school would require too much space. It is well worth inspection with its grounds affording ample room for pageantry, outdoor fetes, festivals and athletic programs. The grounds in front of the building are terraced, offering ample opportunity for an artistic planting of shrubbery. At the rear of the building is a parking space for 400 cars. Between the cafeteria and the girls gymnasium are located bicycle racks for the use of the pupils.

The stadium includes a regulation football field,a baseball diamond, a quarter mile running track, with permanent bleacher facilities to accommodate 3,000 spectators and space for bleachers for 3,000 temporary seats.

A practice field, 8 tennis courts, a hockey field and an outside basketball court are adjacent to the football field.

The entrance corridor of this school has a bronze tablet inscribed as follows:- This building is named the Pierre S. duPont High School in honor of one of the most beloved and distinguished citizens of his State who has given liberally of his time, his means, and his ability to the cause of public education in Delaware.

The school is within walking distance of three street car lines, Nos. 4-41 - - 11 and 12.

Source of information:-Descriptive booklet issued by the Board of Public Education as memorial of the dedication of the school.

Survey of social and economic status of Negroes in Seaford.

FOREWORD

We have read with great interest this report of a survey of the negro community made by, and under the direction of, the Reverend John R. Crosby. The facts brought out certainly indicate the necessity for constructive, remedial social work on the part of the white citizens of the State in aid of the colored population. We approve the suggestion that an experimental social center be founded in a suitable colored rural community.

This survey was undertaken by Doctor Crosby under the auspices of the Consumer's League of Delaware and the Social Service Committee of the Protestant Episcopal diocese of Delaware, and is considered to be of sufficient interest to be brought to the notice of similar organizations with a view to united action.

Doctor Crosby was assisted in this work by Miss Helen Hunter, an experienced colored social worker; a graduate of the Massachusetts Institute of Technicology, and formerly lecturer on Sociology at St. Augustine's College, Raleigh, North Carolina.

It professes to be a plain statement of the facts of existence in a typical colored rural community in South Delaware. It makes no comments and, with the exception of suggesting an experimental community house, no suggestions.

The question of migrant labor does not enter into this survey except as a local economic factor. The migrant labor question has already been dealt with, and is being attacked by the Consumer's Leagae, the Federation of Churches, and by Doctor Crosby as representing the Episcopal Church in Delaware. It is a separate and important problem.

REPORT OF SURVEY

General

Seaford, Sussex County, Delaware, is situated on the Nanticoke River and is a center for the oyster, canning, and fruit industries. It is the market town for a large and scattered agricultural district and has a population of some 2,500 of whom some 600 are colored.

The colored population lives in a community to the north of the town, and there is a large number of tenant farmers and agricultural laborers scattered through the adjoining country side. In addition, there is a floating, migrant colored population known as "The Grove" on the West side of the town, on ground belonging to the local canning company.

The colored community is generally law-abiding and more or less industrious. Crime, with the exception of a few weekly cases of drunkenness, is almost unknown. As a matter of fact, so long as they keep quiet and do not upset the peace of the town, nobody worries as to their conduct or morals. The standard of sexual morality is appallingly low. It is impossible to give an accurate figure as to illegitimacy etc., for the simple reason that the registration of colored births is not enforced, and except on the rare occasions when a white doctor is called in to a confinement, is not practiced.

There is not a colored professional man in the community. In fact, with the exception of a colored doctor in Dover, I do not know of a single lawyer, doctor, dentist or member of any profession among the negro population of Southern Delaware with the exception of the teaching staffs of the public schools and members of the clergy of the colored churches. I find that among the colored community only three subscribe for, or read, any form of newspaper. Nobody reads or subscribes

to their racial publications. Except in a very few families, books are of course unknown. There is a school library but it is practically unused.

An interesting feature of the indigenous community is the fact that they are nearly all descendants of freed slaves, and preserve the surnames of their former owners. The names of many old and prominent Delaware families now died out or scattered are only preserved in the names of their slaves now living in the colored community.

In spite of the handicap of environment and lack of opportunity many of the colored people do surprisingly well, and in some cases both the parents and children show a surprising ambition to make something of themselves, and to escape from their surrouhdings, combined with a pathetic lack of knowledge as to what opportunities exist.

HOUSING CONDITIONS, ETC.

One hundred and forty-one houses visited and inspected. Four vacant houses. Fourteen homes in very good condition, well furnished, yards cared for, flowers, etc. These are occupied by the local colored ministers, the school principal, the leading colored storekeeper, and the servants of the leading white families.

I find that only one colored individual has shares in the local building and loan society. She is a domestic servant and has built a house with her savings. There are 51 property owners in the colored quarter. These fifty-one dwellings have generally from 6 to 9 rooms, and are fairly solid. They are generally gifts from white families to old and faithful servants.

The rest of the houses are one and two-roomed cottages. Six are cottages with two rooms and a kitchen below, and one or two bedrooms above. Most bedrooms are unfinished attics and far from weatherproof.

The average rental is from $1.50 to $2.00 a week. In the whole community only twelve houses have town water. Several houses have without pumps, and in at least three cases five to seven families use one well. There is no indoor sanitation in the entire community, except one house. Only one bath and one indoor toilet. Twelve houses are wired for electricity, but it is installed in only four. There is no gas. No house has a central furnace.

The houses generally are infested with bedbugs, fleas, cockroaches and rats. Rheumatic and zymotic diseases abound, and there are a number of cases of polymyletis. I counted twelve adult cripples suffering from the after effects of infantile paralysis. Malaria is common.

The streets are not paved, and are full of sand and dust. There are deep ruts, and in stormy weather the water and mud are from twelve to six inches deep. The streets are very dark as the lighting system in the colored quarter is very poor. "One has need of a flashlight to use and protect oneself after dark!" (Miss Hunter).

THE GROVE (West Seaford)

This is the migrant quarter, and needs the earnest attention of a State Sanitary inspector. There are six houses. One of these is owned by the occupant, the others are occupied by millhands, etc. rent free. The rest of the Grove is shacks for the migrants. The conditions are worse than deplorable. There are a few two-roomed shacks, but they average one room to a family (from 2 to 12 persons). Sanitation, practically nonexistent; plumbing, nil; lighting, nil; cooking and laundry facilities, indescribable. In the fields there are a few two-roomed shacks with room for small gardens. Only fourteen shacks are occupied at date of writing. Two were whitewashed inside and out. One kitchen wall was covered with the pages of a Sears Roebuck catalog, "To hide the

holes". In the summer the occupants buy wood, but in the winter they get it from the mills free.

The canning houses are in this section, and during July, August, and September about three to four hundred migrants arrive and live in the shacks, including swarms of children.

THE ECONOMIC CONDITION

The negro in this section is a very real factor in the economic life of the community. He supplies the greater part of the unskilled labor in the lower end of the State. It must be remembered that there are no foreign born in Kent and Sussex County.

Both men and women work in the canning houses and in the oyster industry, and are engaged in farm work both in harvesting and cultivating crops, both as tenant farmers and laborers. The wages this year are 10 cents an hour, or 75 cents a day flat rate by the week. There is no lack of employment.

A number of families feel that they are still bound by a species of feudalism to the old white families, and that "Miss Evelyn" or "Master George" are bound to supply them with work, if not with necessaries.

Ninety per cent of the women are engaged in whole or part-time domestic service, a large number also doing laundry work at home. Others go to the fields and canning houses until two o'clock and then return home and engage in laundry work, rug weaving, etc. The wages for domestic service average from four to five dollars a week; as a matter of fact they are generally considerably less, a few wealthy white families paying more and making up the difference.

In these communities we have the primitive matriarchate in actual practice. The women are the economic factor, and the man, in many cases, merely an appendage.

It is almost impossible to classify the male element in any term known to social statisticians. We can state that 70% of the men are employed periodically. They work now and again, and receive cash wages; 10% are regularly employed (chauffeurs, gardeners, etc.); 20% are unemployed in the sense that they do not work for wages. How can you describe, in terms of cold social statistics, a man who spends his days catching catfish; produces terrapin in season; occasionally mows my lawn, and has a small corn patch?

Miss Hunter states that, "20% are unemployed. The latter group meet their wives, after they have slaved all day, and help spend the day's hard earnings. They are a healthy looking body of men, who hold up the street corners daily". While giving full credence to the views of a trained social worker who has lived in the community, I am afraid that this view is probably exaggerated. I have no doubt that the money is spent. Thanks to our lack of training him, the negro in Delaware lives in the present, and spends all he gets as he gets it. Both male and female think that this is what money is for, and I do not know that the basic idea is not sound. The fact is, that a colored citizen with twenty dollars is just as well off on Monday morning as the individual with two. It is all spent over the week-end. If Uncle Jim goes short, Aunt Sally has it. This is economically deplorable, but a very pleasant fact. It must be remembered that this survey is to show the community as it is, and not as we think it ought to be. That the negro can be taught thrift has been proved in our migrant work.

As a matter of ethnological curosity, it is interesting to note how closely their theory of life, and economic practice approximates to conditions in the primitive African communities. One must also remember that Seaford was until emancipation a recognised and large center for the slave trade. The great grandfathers of the majority of

these people were living in aboriginal villages in Africa. Four generations is not long. There is a general impression that the African slave trade was extinct by about 1830, but local tradition and history show that the "boot-leg" slave traffic was as well organised an industry as rum-running, and probably from the same cause.

The wages this year are one and a half cents per quart for picking berries and beans. In some cases they carry them half a mile to the farmer for checking. According to the societies for Negro uplift, this is very sad, but the fact remains that all the domestic help in Seaford leave their permanent jobs and make for the berry patch. They like the social life and the community spirit.

During May we were able to employ all the spare negro labor in road and construction work, laying side walks, etc. They received $2.50 a day, and in my opinion were heartily glad when regular work was over.

There are not more than a dozen men regularly employed in the box and fertilizer factories, feed mills, etc. They receive "a dollar a day and some change, about thirty cents". One is employed in a hardware store as electrician, plumber, etc., and is a most respected member of the community. I note that he spent ten years in Philadelphia before returning to Seaford.

EDUCATIONAL

The Frederick Douglass School.

This is one of the colored schools built by Mr. Pierre duPont. It is situated beyond the town limit in an open field in front of a large pond. During rainy weather the building is very damp. The roads leading to the school could not be in a worse condition. There is standing mud and water, deep ruts and heaps of refuse. The street lighting does not extend to the school premises and it is almost impossible

to find it after dark.

The building is in good condition, brick, one-story, six rooms with toilets and running water. Two class rooms are combined to make an assembly room. The office of the principal is also a classroom. The building is badly overcrowded. More rooms and teachers are needed.

The High School has two teachers - the principal and his wife. The principal teaches mathematics and his wife everything else. Out of a total of fifty students, three boys and four girls have finished the course. It is only a three years' course, the fourth year being given at the State College for Colored Youth at Dover. A total of ten have graduated from Dover since the school has been founded. There are two girls graduated this year in whom your committee takes considerable interest and hopes to be able to secure them the benefits of a higher education.

The total enrollment for the year was 240. Busses are provided for the white children but not for the colored. Seventy-nine children received a transportation grant of 5 cents a mile for over two miles, no child receiving more than 40 cents daily.

Miss Hunter states that the attendance is affected by the season of the year. Children are taken out of school during the fishing and oyster season, a period of from two to three months. In many cases the children continue out of school through the berry and sweet potato season. Some go berry picking in the morning and report to school in the afternoon.

On interviewing the school attendance officer for Western Sussex County, I am informed that though there is a substratum of fact in this statement it is somewhat exaggerated. The State regulations allow for these conditions, and a certain number of school attendances during the year are enforced by the education code.

On June 1st, the enrollment was: boys, 104; girls, 99. Total number from Seaford, 193, and from outlying districts, 11. The average attendance was 190 children daily during the month of May.

This school is reported as having the best attendance record for any colored school in Western Sussex County.

One hundred and twelve school children were visited by Miss Hunter. She reports that, according to chronological years in the grades, there were 31 normal and 81 retarded. She gives as reasons that they are late entering school; kept at home with the younger children while the mother works; taken out for seasonal work; out late at night attending socials and juvenile lodges, revivals, etc. She adds that probably a larger per cent are feebleminded than there are statistical figures to prove.

Unsatisfactory conditions in the homes prevent children from preparing home assignments.

There are the usual extra-curricular activities, basketball, baseball, track, dramatics, glee club, etc.

The adult evening school had an enrollment of 30 women and 15 men. The subjects taught included elementary, advanced elementary, home-making and sewing. I understand that it was not at all successful, and will be discontinued this year. This was probably due to inefficient instruction and bad attendance.

The parent teachers' association functions satisfactorily, and the attitude of the School Board towards the school is said to be very good.

HEALTH AND SANITATION

As already stated, sanitation is very poor, although possibly as good or better than in similar communities. It is a damp and low-lying district. Much water remains standing after rain resulting in

swarms of mosquitoes; refuse is thrown everywhere; and waste is not properly disposed of. The supply of drinking water is very unsatisfactory, four or five families often using the same pump.

Owing to the lack of water, some of the homes are decidedly dirty. This is far from being the case always, some homes being immaculate.

Miss Hunter reports many midwives but not one licensed. She gives some interesting examples of their methods of operations which are included as an appendix.

RECREATION

1. Swimming in the pond behind the school. The colored are rightly debarred from using the swimming holes frequented by the whites.

2. Baseball on the school athletic field.

3. Motion Picture House - poorly patronized. Accommodation for colored very poor.

4. Fraternities. Two-thirds of the people are Elks; a few Masons; Knights of Pythias.

5. A dancing hall open every Saturday night. Admission 15 cents.

6. Church Socials. At least one a week in each church. More in member's homes.

7. Musical instruments in homes. 3 player pianos; 20 organs; 20 radios, very few victrolas.

8. Automobiles and trucks. 30 were owned. Many more counted but "aint mine", i.e., unlicensed.

RELIGION

A. Macedonia A.M.E. Church

Membership 84. Average attendance 50.

B. John Wesley M.E. Church

Membership 101. Average attendance 50.

C. Holiness Group

Weak. Worship with whites.

D. A few Baptists and one P.E. family.

The two main Churches have Sunday Schools with about the same average attendance.

The great religious events of the year are the Camp Meetings.

It is impossible to make a report of this kind without entering into the religious question. As a denominational minister I prefer not to deal with this branch of the subject, except very generally.

It is my own impression that the generally accepted idea of the negro being only attracted by the emotional atmosphere of the African branches of the various denominations is a fallacy. I believe that there is a real field for the white Churches among the colored race, and that if the various programs for education and uplift are to have any result, the Churches must realize their responsibility and provide a corresponding intellectual standard of religious worship. I would here refer to the illuminating article "Black America Begins to Doubt" by George S. Schuyler in the American Mercury for April 1932.

The Churches do not cooperate with the school authorities. They systematically preach that education is opposed to religion. "You can get to heaven without education, but you can't get there without Jesus".

There is no doubt that the negro is racially emotional, and that he is easily swayed by the more lurid forms of revivalism, but the opposite attitude has never been tried until lately.

The standard of sexual morality is appaling. There is, according to Miss Hunter, from one to seven illegitimate children in every house in the quarter except seven. This is universally recognized.

I am informed that it is the universal custom for the first child to be illegitimate. There is no loss of social status on the part of either mother or child, and if such an event does not eventuate, the girl and her friends put it down to lack of popularity or female charm. I am also given to understand that after the first child the girls get married and settle down to more or less domesticity.

In this connection it is interesting to note that there appears to be a complete lack of illicit connections between the races in this part of the Peninsula -- even among the poor whites. The high yellow is unknown. Both black and white are proud of this. I have only heard of one attack on a white girl in this county. We have never had a lynching.

CRIME AND DELINQUENCY

Owing to the lack of official statistics and accurate information, it is difficult to speak with authority. The following observations are, I believe, generally correct.

There is little or no crime of a serious nature among the local colored population, and that which exists mostly arises from drink and jealousy. Unless something happens to seriously upset the peace of the community, the matter is ignored and settles itself. Practically the whole of the colored population is more or less engaged in evading the 18th Amendment, if not actually active bootleggers. Every now and again the authorities, acting on "information received", make a raid and a few arrests. This is merely a gesture and has no effect whatever.

The crimes of importance -- murder, rape, etc. are invariably traceable to the migrant population. These migrants, especially from Virginia, have a very deleterious effect on the morals of the local population. They are generally recruited from the lowest class of city negroes, and are definitely a corrupting influence in the State of Delaware. This condition is far worse in the adjoining town of Bridgeville

where the migrant negro literally terrorises the community.

The only definite statistical figures I can give are these. I checked up on a hundred convictions with the following results:

Migrants (Colored)	Total Convictions	84
	Major Crimes	61
	Minor Crimes	23
Local (Colored)	Total Convictions	16
	Major Crimes	1
	Minor Crimes	15

These figures are for the year 1931, and simply came under my notice either in the course of my work or through the press.

The local Justice of the Peace informs me that until two years ago there was little or no crime among the colored local group, but that nearly all offences were committed by the migrants during the summer months, but that now the position is reversed and that most of the arrests are made in our own colored quarter. Serious crime is, however, so rare as to be negligible. Under the new police regime, the Grove is left severely alone, unless a body is discovered or something serious happens.

I would suggest to this Committee that further enquiry be made along this line, and that should my conclusions be borne out as to the effect of the migrant laborer on the morals of the community, the legislature be approached with a view to the checking and control of migrant labor. This would also tend to ease the local labor situation very considerably.

CONCLUSION

It is not suggested or implied by your committee that the conditions among the rural colored population in Seaford or the lower counties of the State are any worse, and they are possibly better, than

in the other States of the Union, nor that the condition of the negro has not improved considerably during the past fifty years. It does, however, suggest that there is no excuse in a civilized country for a condition such as is revealed in this report. Whether the negro ought to be an enfranchised citizen of a civilized State is not the business of this committee. The country has given him that position and settled his status, and we have a clear responsibility towards his uplift and to the upbuilding of a self-supporting, self-respecting, independent colored community.

Your committee has already pointed out that this work is purely experimental and suggests that the agencies concerned combine in the establishment of a colored community house in a selected rural community, having for its object a kindergarten, in conjunction with the necessary psychological and medical clinics; instruction in the elements of hygiene, etc; simple cultural classes and decent recreation.

It is clearly impossible to reform the whole conditions of life among the colored citizens of Delaware until experiment and observation have decided the form that such reformation should take. We can then go to our supporters with a record of success, the necessary experience gained from our mistakes, and, as the way opens, extend the work to the other colored centers of rural Delaware.

The hardest part of the task will be to convert the white population of the State of Delaware in the rural districts from their present state of apathy to any work among the colored population. This can best be achieved by success.

We further recommend that the practical working of a scheme of this nature be entrusted to a subcommittee of the organizations concerned, with instructions to report at the earliest possible date; and that the report and recommendations of this committee be printed

and distributed in order to excite the necessary interest and action among sympathizers with the work among the colored migrants, pickers, cannery workers and general colored population of lower Delaware.

Respectfully submitted,

JOHN R. CROSBY

(Reverend) John R. Crosby, Ph.D; D.D.

Rector, Seaford, Delaware

Member Executive Council, Consumer's League of Delaware.

Extracts from the report of Miss Helen Hunter.

The visitor found many midwives, but not one licensed. A midwife was attending an unmarried girl. "You got twins coming," she told her, and the girl became delirious. After childbirth she was very ill. "Her mother didn't know what to do because her man wasn't home so as she could ask him if they could call a doctor. I told her to get a doctor and let him fuss after, and she did," was the tale told the visitor by a neighbour. After two days the twins were out on condensed milk. First it was too sweet, then too thin, but now they keep it down and everybody is happy. They seem to be losing weight constantly, but the grandmother says, "We ain't go no money for the doctor, and he'll want fresh milk and we can't keep that so good in summer, when we don't get ice."

Another twin story. "How did all those children grow so? They's washed three times a day, that's what they is. I fergit about ages, X about four years; Y about three years, and Z about four years. W has stomach and spine trouble; old enough to go to school but can't walk far."

"Thank you, then X and Z are twins."

"No mam they aint. Twins belong to get here together, and these come a week apart."

In one of the tenements lives a grandmother, her husband and three children. The grandparents cannot walk from rheumatism, and "hitches along on a chair". One day the four year old had a portion of bread and butter tied round her neck with a string. "She keeps crying, 'Grandmom give me a piece of bread, Grandmom give me a piece of bread.' "I gets tired hitching over to the table, so I say, I'll tie it on, then she can bite as much as she wants." The flies seem to be feasting as much as the little girl. The children have a skin disease which the visitor re-

cognizes as "highly communicable". "No, I ain't had no doctor, just making out best I can." A new baby was born in the neighbourhood. A physician was not called in, but this crippled grandmother was brought in an automobile and then carried in. "How can she manage when she cannot walk?" asks the visitor. "Oh, she sits and tells them what to do. Aint no better midwife in Seaford. She is fine." The little grandchildren accompany the grandmother and assist her.

The visitor is now at the house of an elderly asthmatic sufferer, and the conversation is about health in general. "The old people know more about curing people than doctors do today. My mother was a root doctor, and she used to cure cancer with herbs and dogs skulls. We used to go out with a grass sack and bring the dog's heads in. She baked the skulls to a powder and then fotched her some herbs and mixed them together. Once a lady had eighteen, and she put the salve on, and when she lifted the cloth out came the cancers, bout as big as quarters. Then she took a penknife and picked out all the roots. The lady lived to near a hundred. I wish I knew what those herbs was. I would be saving people today and getting rich." The majority of elderly people "Aint right, they've got weak heads." One ex-slave having returned from the berry field one very hot day, "set out to do a wash, when those leg-cramps came" and she suffered for three hours without any relief. First she applied vinegar, then dry salt, then dry sulphur. Then drank some sulphur mixed with water, and paced the floor in agony. When the pains eased a bit, she sat down and talked. "Leg cramps belong in my family; my Uncle died with them. When I was little slaves was set free. My mother hired me out to be raised by white folks. They beat me and treated me so bad. The hired help kicked me. When I was fourteen years old I run away and found my mother. Snow was deep almost to my knees and I had no stockings, shoes or coat. I was out all night. My mother

didn't want me there, and I fared little better there with all her little children. Well the cramps came on that night after I run away. No honey -- no money to call the doctor -- legcramps belong to my family. I have to work since God left me here all alone. I got to take care of the little bit I got, else He'll take that from me. Yes, I farm. Ten cents an hour, just like the men, when I aint pickin berries and washing for white folks."

SAFETY EDUCATION IN THE RURAL SCHOOLS

A Proposed Curriculum and Method of Study.

Since the author is familiar with the conditions in the rural schools of Delaware and associated with the Teacher Training Department of its State University, the information in this article is based on conditions in that State.

Rena Allen

Director of Practice Teaching
Women's College, University of
Delaware.

SAFETY EDUCATION IN RURAL SCHOOLS

A Proposed Curriculum and Methods of Study

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To discover the extent and type of Safety Education in the rural schools of Delaware, a survey of the situation was conducted in the following manner:

I. Conference with Dr. H. V. Holloway, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, and Mr. H. B. King, Assistant in charge of Elementary Schools, concerning possible sources of information.

II. Questionnaires sent to various supervisors of the three counties asking --

A. How many one and two-room schools are there under your jourisdiction?

B. In how many of these schools was an attempt made to introduce Safety Education during the past year?

C. What subject matter was included and what was the usual method of procedure?

III. Visits were made by the author to various typical schools of the three counties in order --

A. To observe location of school and its environment.

B. To see type of building and equipment.

C. To discover type of teacher, her training and experience.

D. To observe illustrative lessons.

IV. Conference with W. D. Smith, Manager of Delaware Safety Council, to secure information as to causes of accidents in rural communities, in order to discover and formulate what might be considered typical rural hazards.

V. Conferences with Miss Etta Wilson, Executive-Secretary State Parent-Teacher Association, to discover what the State Parent-Teacher Association was doing to aid in the work of Safety Education.

The results of this survey seem to show that during the year 1924-25 an attempt was made in most of the one and two-room rural schools of the state to teach some phase of safety education. In the majority of the schools this took the form of health education, fire prevention, and safety on the highways.

A number of these schools went more deeply into the matter and attempted to make all forms of safety education part of the civic consciousness of the children and of the community. The type of teacher, her training and experience determined to a great extent how well this was done.

The work of the State Parent-Teacher Association, under the direction of Miss Etta Wilson, Executive Secretary, took as the topic for one month's program -- "Accident Prevention -- a Challenge to State and Nation". A program leaflet (enclosed) was sent to all Parent-Teacher Associations. This not only gave a suggestive form for the program, but also supplied valuable information for school and home.

Delaware Safety Council, under the direction of W. D. Smith, Manager, in addition to supplying some informational material for the program leaflet, provided material for a pictorial leaflet which was also sent to all Parent-Teacher Associations. This gave pictures of typical rural accidents and showed how to prevent them. The circulation of this material with the outlines and suggestions of the State Department of Education and of the Rural Supervisors resulted in a wide interest in Safety Education.

With the aid of the Service Citizens Association, the old rural schools of Delaware are rapidly being replaced by modern well lighted buildings. However, the old-fashioned one room school, heated by an unprotected stove and lighted by kerosene lamps, is still very common. These schools have an enrollment of from 12 to 40 children, depending upon their location. The equipment is in many cases meager and uninteresting. The teacher frequently immature and untrained.

In order to make a curriculum that will fit the needs of the children for whom it is planned and the community in which they live, real life conditions must be taken into account. In the following suggested course of study, an attempt has been made to consider all of these conditions and to adapt the subject matter to the experiences of the children. As most rural schools have many grades and few children in each, it seemed advisable to divide the work into two sections -- Section I for lower grades, and Section II for the upper grades.

The emphasis in the lower grades being centered around --

"How can I help mother and father keep our home safe and happy by caring for myself?"

In the upper grades the emphasis comes on --

"What can I do in order that I may keep myself well and strong, and also that I may protect others?"

Proposed Course of Study in Safety Education for One and Two-Room Rural Schools.

Objectives:

To make the child familiar with the simple rules of conduct that will keep him safe and well -- at school; at home and on the roads.

To acquaint him with the necessity of obeying signals and caring for himself.

To develop an accident conscience.

To develop in the children a consciousness of the need for safety.

To develop a desire to make the school, home and roads safe for all.

To develop ideals of service in the older children by teaching care and protection of children younger than themselves.

To develop the idea that a good citizen protects himself and others by avoiding accidents and by acting quickly and intelligently in the case of emergency.

Grades I to III

"How can I help mother and father by being careful?"

A. At home:
1. Keep away from the fire.
2. Put my toys away.
3. Keep toys and other things away from the stairs.
4. Be careful when I carry sharp things or points.
   (a) Walk, not run, when I carry sharp things.
   (b) Carry scissors and knives point down.
   (c) Put broken glass, needles and pins in a safe place.
5. Be careful when I climb. If I must stand on a chair, use a straight chair, never a rocker.
6. Leave matches alone.
7. Keep things away from my eyes, ears and mouth.
8. Keep away from pans or tubs of hot water.
9. Walk, not run when I go upstairs or come down.
10. Look where I am going.
11. Put away rakes, shovels, and forks that I see about.
12. Keep away from farm machinery.

B. On the way to school:

1. Learn to walk on left side of the road so I can see autos or teams coming.
2. Watch for sticks or muddy, slippery places so I won't fall.
3. Never throw stones at animals or children.
4. Go directly to school and not to play along the road.
5. Never eat things I see growing along the road unless I know they are not poisonous.
6. Never throw sticks or stones at trees to knock off nuts or fruit; I might hit a child or break the tree.
7. Never run with a stick in hand.
8. Walk, never run through the woods; I may trip over sticks or brambles.

C. In School:

1. Keep away from the stove.
2. Never throw things into the stove.
3. Keep trash from the floors.
4. Keep my feet under my desk so that others will not trip.
5. Carry sharp things carefully.
6. Play on school grounds, not on the roads.

Grades IV to VI

"How can I protect myself and take care of the younger children?"

A. What are the chief causes of accidents in our community?

From various sources try to discover the accidents that occurred during the past year. Try to determine their causes and how they could have been prevented.

B. What are the duties of a good citizen with regard to accident prevention?

1. Would a good citizen leave farm implements where someone could step on them and be injured? Why not? What would he do?

2. Would a good citizen cover an open hole, well, cistern, and the like with decayed boards?

3. Would he leave broken or decayed boards on his porch floor or steps?

4. Would a good citizen throw matches or rubbish carelessly about?

5. Would he drive a car carelessly? Would he drive rapidly through a town or past a school?

6. Would he build fires in dangerous places or go off and leave a fire unguarded?

7. What should be the attitude of a good citizen toward accidents?

C. What are the duties of a good citizen with regard to the protection of others?

1. Is it enough for a person to say, "I know where the dangerous places on my own farm are located, and I shall take care of them." "Why not?"

2. Can he say, "I know the cover on my cistern is decayed. Its up to the others to keep off?"

3. Can a person who thinks just of himself and his own family be a good citizen? Why not?

D. How can I make my home and school safe places for myself and others?

1. Have I looked about my home and school to find sources of danger? When I found them, what did I do?

2. Have I observed the children at their play? Have I found certain rules that would protect them? What are they? Have I found a way to make a real impression on the children so that they will willingly and understandingly obey those rules?

What are the chief rules of safety that I must remember?

1. Put tools, rakes, forks, axes, etc. in a safe place. Never leave them lying about point up.
2. Carry forks, rakes, axes, etc. point down. Walk, never run with them.
3. Carry guns with the muzzle down.
4. Never point a gun at anyone, even if it isn't loaded.
5. Walk on the left side of the road so I can see cars or teams coming.
6. Obey traffic signals in town.
7. Never meddle with the gears of machinery whether the machine is in motion or not.
8. Never build fires where there is danger.

I must at all times do all that I can to keep myself physically and mentally fit, and to protect and care for others.

What must I do in order to be ready in case of an emergency?

<u>Fire</u>

Formulate rules for acting in case of fire at home or in school.

Discuss the best means of extinguishing an oil or grease fire.

Discuss the best means of fighting a field or forest fire.

Formulate simple emergency rules to follow in case clothing catches fire.

Accident

1. Learn to stop bleeding.
2. Learn how to use artificial respiration.
3. Learn how to support a broken limb.
4. Learn how to carry an injured person. Simple coat and stick stretchers.

Method of Procedure

Safety education should be part of the living experience of the child. It should not be a school subject set off by itself and talked about during a twenty minute period once or twice a week.

Activities and habits of the children should be observed and discussed. Safety rules should be written, read and followed. All of this may be done in connection with reading, language, physical education, civics, drawing and industrial arts.

Some suggested activities are:

1. Lower Grades.

Reading

Safety stories from children's books and magazines.

Safety rules and slogans formulated and printed by older children.

Safety rules and slogans children have made themselves.

English - Stories - "How I Helped Mother Keep Us Safe."

Simple safety slogans and rimes.

Dramatization of safety rules suggested by older children.

Handowrk - Simple posters.
Pictures illustrating stories told.

Sand table illustrations - Safe places to play.

Scrapbook containing pictures illustrating "How to keep well" or "How tookeep safe".

2. Upper Grades.

Survey of accidents during year in community, with causes and results.

Suggestions as to how future reoccurrence of these may be prevented.

What is the duty of a citizen with regard to ac-

cident prevention?

Organization of Protective Squad.

Arithmetic:

Problems covering cost of accidents in community, by estimating cost of, time lost, doctor bills, broken tools or machinery.

English - Composition or reports of findings of various committees on investigation.

Suggestions for preventing of accidents in homes and on farms.

Suggestions as to what to do in case of emergency.

Letters to state and county officials asking for information.

Formulation of simple rules of safe conduct for little children.

Rhymes or slogans that will help little children to remember these rules and obey them.

Little dramatizations planned to impress young children with need for safety.

Drawing - Posters and slogans that will appeal to younger children or that will awaken the community to need for safety provisions.

Physiology - Study of first-aid measures.

Illustration of Procedure from a Two Room Rural School

Neal's School near Seaford, Delaware has done some outstanding work along the line of Safety Education.

This is a two room school under the direction of Miss Katie E. Handy assisted by Miss Elsie E. Hudson. The school is located on a county road running from Seaford to Bridgeville, and is built close to the edge of a deep wood. Inspite of its remote location, numbers of passenger cars and trucks loaded with produce pass its doors.

About sixty children from the surrounding farms are enrolled in the school. During the first weeks of the term, these children played carelessly about; sometimes in the woods back of the school and sometimes in the road. Mrs. Handy took pictures of these various activities and the pictures of actual situations formed the basis for their work in Safety Education. (Illustrations 1 and 2).

During civics class in the upper grades the dangers of the situations were discussed; the responsibility of children to their parents in the matter of keeping safe was brought out; the subject of laws and why laws are made was explained. The children formulated simple laws of safety for their own situations; a safety squad was appointed to explain these laws to the younger children and to help them to observe them. Some of these rules are listed below:

1. Never play in the road.
2. Run and romp in the cleared space about the school.
3. Never try to play tag in the woods. You may trip over vines or brambles. If you fall on a sharp stick, you may be badly hurt.
4. Never play around a bon-fire. Your clothes may get on fire.
5. Never build a fire where trees or grass may catch.
6. Walk on the left side of the road going home from school so that you can see cars coming and get out of their way.

The wording of these rules and the planning of the talks to younger children were discussed in English classes.

Posters and other illustrative materials were made during the art period.

During the reading period, safety stories and informational material was read and discussed.

The hygiene and health period took care of "First Aid Measures". The children practiced simple measures for cleaning wounds, stopping bleeding, supporting broken limbs and making stretchers from two coats and available sticks. (Illustration 3).

In arithmetic class the cost of accidents was discussed; problems covering the cost in doctors bills, loss of time, and broken machinery as a result of accidents in the families of the children were formulated and solved.

The children in this school seem to have a very real idea of the meaning of "Safety" and the part it plays in the happiness, health and prosperity of a community.

WATER COLOR RENDERINGS.

1. Hat and umbrella stand, C.A. 1856,
Present owner, Mrs. Granville Hoopes,
Artist Edward Loper.

2. Mahogany Table, C.A.1847
Present Owner, Miss Nina Leonard, Wilmington,Del.
Artist: James Lawson

3. Baby Carriage, C.A. 1756
Zwaanendael Museum, Lewes,
Artists: Vincent Rosel, Gordon Saltar.

4. Doll Carriage, C. A. 1870.
Zwaanendael Museum, Lewes,
Artist: Edward Loper.

5. Baby Carriage, C.A.1820
Present Owner, Samuel Franklin Dadd, Wilmington,Del.
Artist: Edward Loper.

6. Doll Coach, C.A. 1857
Delaware Historical Society
Artist: Ernest Towers, Jr.

7. Table from the Bangor, C.A.1830
The first iron steamship built in America.
Present owner, Mrs. Ethel Ball Staniar, Wilmington,Del.
Artists: Vincent Rosel, - Gordon Saltar.

8. Mahogany Bureau, C.A. 1846
The David Wilson Mansion, Odessa
Artist: Ernest Towers,Jr.

9. Iron Hitching Post - previous 1886
9th & Franklin St. Wilmington, Del.
Artist: Samuel Fineman.

10. Iron Hitching Post - - C.A. previous 1886
Present owner, Elizabeth M. Bullock,Wilmington,Del.
Artist: Samuel Fineman.

11. Foot Warmer, C. A. 1810
Delaware Historical Society,
Artists:- James Lawson, - Gordon Saltar.

12. Iron Sauce Pan with legs, C. A. 1780
New Castle Historical Society.
Artists:- Edward Loper, Gordon Saltar.

13. Crocheted Purse, C. A. 1799
Delaware Historical Society,
Artist:- Walter Pyle, Jr.

14. Tin Bathtub, C. A. 1780
Delaware Historical Society
Artist:- Gordon Saltar.

15. Iron Hitching Post;- Known as Sambo C. A. 1865
Present Owner:- Mrs. Marie A. Stoeckle.
Artists:- Samuel Fineman, Gordon Saltar

16. Iron Hitching Post, - C. A. Previous to 1865
6th and French Sts.
Artist:- Samuel Fineman.

17. Brass Lamp from the Old Constitution, C. A. 1834
Present Owner;- Benjamin S. Albertson, Lewes, Del.
Artists:- James Lawson, Gordon Saltar.

18. Silver Punch Strainer, C. A. 1787
Made from the first dollar Benjamin Franklin earned.
Delaware Historical Society.
Artist: Frazer.

19. Iron Bank :- C. A. 1857
Present Owner, Charles L. Doughten
Artist: Vincent Rosel.

20. Hare Pottery Mug, C. A. 1800
New Castle Historical Society.
Artists:- James Lawson, Gordon Saltar.

21 A Mathews Crips Crock, C. A. 1790.
New Castle Historical Society
Artists:- James Lawson, Gordon Saltar.

22. Sheet Metal Iron Stove, C. A. 1806
Delaware Historical Society
Artist:- Gordon Saltar.

23. A William Hare Crockery Pitcher, C. A. 1840
New Castle Historical Society.
Artist:- Gordon Saltar.

24. Walnut Chair, C. A. 1790
Present Owner;- Mrs. Helen Rogers Bradford,
Artist:- Edward Loper.

25. Mahogany Chair, - Mohair Seat, C. A. 1840
Present Owners:- Miss Mary Spruance, Smyrna, Del.
Artists:- Vincent Rosel, Edward Loper.

26. Foot Warmer, C. A. 1790
Present Owner, Mrs. Edward W. Cooch,
Artist:- James Lawson.

27. Sofa, - C. A. 1740
Present Owner, Mrs. Helen Rogers Bradford,
Artists:- Edward Loper, Gordon Saltar.

28. Naval Lieutenant's Coat, C. A. 1812.
Present Owner;- Stanley Arthurs.
Artist:- Bayard Berndt, - Gordon Saltar.

29. Duncan Phyfe Sofa, - C. A. 1800
Present Owner, George Carson Boyd.
Artist:- Edward Loper.

30. Mahogany Chair, C. A. 1760.
Present Owner, - Frank P. Ewing.
Artists:- Edward Loper, Gordon Saltar.

31. Mahogany Chair, C. A. 1810
Present Owner, Helen Rogers Bradford,
Artist:- James Lawson.

32. Coverlet, C. A. 1834
Finished in 1874, 40 years in the making, contains 4,480 pieces.
Present Owner, Eliza Vandegrift Sutton, Wilmington,Del.
Artist:- Vincent Rosel.

33. Valentine, C. A. early 1800.
Present owner, Amelia Vandergrift Davis, Odessa,Del.
Artist:- Ernest Towers, Jr.

34. Coverlet for Crib,- C. A. 1870.
Present owner, Nina Leonard, Wilmington, Del.
Artist:- Vincent Rosel.

35. Padded Coverlet, C. A. 1832
Present Owner, Mrs. Amelia Vandegrift Davis, Odessa. Del.
Artists:- Edward Loper, Gordon Saltar.

6. (Photographs)

36. Roasting Oven, C. A. 1780
Historical Soceity, New Castle.

37. Sugar and Tea Chest, C. A. 1800
Present Owner, Mrs. George Wittock, Odessa, Del.

38. Ladies Mohair Laced Shoes, C. A. 1790.
Zwaanendael Museum, Lewes, Delaware.

39. Silver Communion Set C. A. 1813.
Zwaanendael Museum, Lewes, Delaware.

40. Silver Communion Set, C. A. 1772
St. Peters Church, Lewes, Del.

41. Candle Mold, C. A. 1833
Zwaanendael Museum, Lewes, Del.

42. Tin sausage stuffer,
Zwaanendael Museum, Lewes, Del.

43. Chippendale Knife, Fork and Spoon, Boxes, C. A. 1785.
George Carson Boyd, Wilmington, Del.

44. Iron Fire Back Plate, C. A. 1760
Mrs. Roman Tammany, Lewes, Del.

45. Sheraton Sofa, - C.A.1765
George Carson Boyd, Wilmington, Del.

46. Iron handcuffs, C. A. 1830
C. M. Welttuck, Lewes, Del.

47. Rodney Coverlet, C. A. 1786
Caesar Rodney's Niece, Lavenia,
Hanna J. Johnson, Wilmington, Delaware.

48. Piano C. A. 1820
New Castle Museum.

49. 8 Leg Table, C. A. 1740
George Carson Boyd, Wilmington, Del.

50. Oxen Yoke, C. A. 1880
Oscar H. Warrington, Lewes, Del.

51. Old Pewter Set, C. A. 1781
Zwaanendael Museum, Lewes, Del.

52. Captain's Cabin Lamp, C. A. 1834.
Taken from the old U.S.S.Constitution.
Present owner, Benjamin Albertson, Lewes, Del.

53. Police Rattle, C. A. 1880
Present Owner, Mr. Edwin W. Cooch, Jr. Cooches' Bridge.

54. Duncan Beard Clock, C. A. 1760.
Present Owner, Mrs. J. C. Stuckert, St. Georges, Del.

55. The Valued Rodney Doll, C. A. 1834.
Present Owner, Mrs. Louise Rodney Holcomb,
New Castle, Del.

56. Copper Kettle, C. A. 1784.
New Castle Historical Society.

57. Samuel Chase Chair, C. A. 1800
David Wilson Mansion, Odessa, Del.

FEDERAL WRITERS' PROJECT OF DELAWARE

EDUCATION AND REHABILITATION OF THE HANDICAPPED

IN

DELAWARE

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VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION OF HANDICAPPED ADULTS

V. E. Shaw
August 17, 1939

EDUCATION OF HANDICAPPED PERSONS IN DELAWARE

~~Delaware is one of the most backward states in the Union in providing its handicapped residents the education they need for personal, and frequently for financial independence.~~

Handicapped children are not a group peculiarly apart from all others. Their educational problems are basically those of any young people; they need direction in learning to use their gifts and offset their shortcomings, to live happily and usefully in their community, and to find employment when school days are past. When a child cannot accomplish these ends by the methods adequate for others, some different way must be provided. This is all that is meant by the term "special education for the physically and mentally handicapped."

Adults who, as a result of illness or accident are forced to change their work, play, and social life, need help in solving their new problems until complete adjustment is made. The process of re-education and readjustment is known as rehabilitation.

If adults and children alike receive proper guidance during the early period of their handicap, many of them become as useful citizens as any others of the same general ability; nearly all can develop a satisfactory personal life. But if they are neglected during the crucial years when their adjustment should be made, most of them remain useless dependents, and those who are not completely disabled by their handicap are often left needlessly inefficient. Careful education to enable handicapped individuals to

use their full ability is the kindest way in which a community can meet their needs; in the final analysis it is also the cheapest.

Delaware in the last twenty years has greatly improved its regular public schools, so that they now rank well above the national average, and has added to its state college program and its opportunities for adult education. But for children and adults who cannot profitably use standard facilities, it had done less than most other states.

Programs of special education for the mentally and physically handicapped in Delaware are still in the pioneer stage. Some are farther advanced than others, but are completely satisfactory for no single group. Many programs exist on paper only; specialists have studied the problems and proposed solutions, but the public either does not know the needs or is indifferent to them; hence no adequate provision is made.

Developments in the early months of 1939 seem to foreshadow an abrupt change in public policy concerning the deaf, the blind, the crippled, the mentally defective, and those with impaired speech, with subnormal vitality, or organic conditions that require special school facilities or rehabilitation. In April a law was passed requiring the State Department of Public Instruction to report and provide suitable education for all retarded and physically handicapped pupils. In the same month federal funds, offered on a matching basis, for the retraining of adult workmen incapacitated for earning a living, were accepted by the legislature. Another federal bill is pending, which, if adopted, will greatly assist Delaware in financing a program for handicapped children of school age.

The new school law is brief enough to be quoted in full. Simple as it is, its sponsors hope it may produce a radical change in the

public education of handicapped children.

> SENATE BILL #192. BE IT ENACTED by the Senate and House of Representatives of the State of Delaware in General Assembly met:
> Section 1. It shall be the duty of the principals, superintendents, teachers, and visiting teachers in every school district in this State, in accordance with the rules of procedure prescribed by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction or the State Board of Education to secure information and report to the State Board of Education or to any Bureau thereof as it may direct, on or before the fifteenth day of October of each year, and thereafter throughout the year as new cases are discovered, every child within any school district between the ages of six and sixteen years, who is seriously retarded in his or her school work, or any child between the ages of six and sixteen who, because of apparent physical or mental handicap, is not being properly educated or trained, and thereafter the State Board of Education or any Bureau thereof as it may direct, with the aid of cooperating agencies, shall examine such child and report whether said child is a fit subject for special education and training. It shall be the duty of the State Board of Education to provide and maintain under appropriate regulations special classes or special facilities wherever possible to meet the needs of all children recommended for special training who come from any geographical area within the State that can be served by such special facilities.

Examination of the provisions the State now makes for the education of the handicapped, and statement of the needs still to be met seems especially appropriate at this time.

Prior to 1930 it was difficult for a layman to secure accurate data as a basis for comparison between the child welfare program in his state and in the nation at large. In November of that year, the first White House Conference on Child Health and Protection met at the call of President Hoover to discuss the general problem of child care. From the conference grew a permanent organization to facilitate the exchange of information among specialists and lay groups, and to focus public attention upon the needs of children.

Groups were formed in each state to carry out locally the objectives of the conference. It is impossible to understand the Delaware situation without a summary of the more important findings of the national and local White House Conference Committees on the Handicapped.

There are in the United States, according to the Conference's estimates, approximately 10,000,000 handicapped children of all types, about one-third of whom need remedial instruction in special classes. A comparatively small proportion, most of them city residents, are at present receiving it. Children whose handicap causes only partial disability are more numerous, and more frequently neglected, than those more seriously affected. The aim of all education of handicapped school children is "to prepare them to live successfully with those who are not handicapped." Placement and follow-up work in connection with special public school classes is rare. Comparatively few handicapped school children receive the advantage of early discovery, treatment, and training.

In Delaware there are between four and five thousand children who need special-class instruction. In 1938-39 there were twenty-five classes in the state for mentally defective and backward pupils, enrolling 688 students. A considerable number of mal-nourished children in the regular grades received milk or lunches. There ~~is~~ were a limited staff of physicians, dentists, oral hygienists, and nurses available to certain of the public schools. Tuition ~~is~~ was provided for all the totally blind not otherwise handicapped, for a considerable proportion of the totally deaf, for the child patients at the tubercular hospitals and the contact cases sent to the preventorium. Public funds

are used to supply these services. Private individuals, in addition, provided tuition for about a dozen crippled children confined to their homes or hospitals. Under a bequest from the late A. I. du Pont, a center for the care and training of crippled children ~~is~~ was being organized, ~~but will not~~ to be put in full operation ~~until~~ some time in 1940.

Borderline cases of every sort are neglected. There is no provision for treatment of several types of severe handicap. Schooling for all those able to study is available only to the blind and patients at tubercular sanatoria.

The more important recommendations of the state and National White House Conferences follow:

The primary obligation for the education of all handicapped children belongs to the public schools.

There is a pressing need for at least twenty-five more special classes in the State for the mentally and educationally retarded. Sight-saving, speech-reading, and speech-correction programs, a larger supply of trained teachers for work with the handicapped, a salary differential for special-class teachers, and facilities for caring for mal-nourished and anemic children, cardiac cases, and delicate convalescents are imperative needs.

Follow-up and placement service is necessary if much of the work of special-education programs is not to be wasted. The schools must see that a handicapped child's adjustment is really complete and permanent before contact is severed. They must be equipped to find work for employable graduates, and must make it part of their duty to convince the public that well-trained individuals of this sort, in suitable occupations, need no special favors.

"There is a decided need," says a Delaware White House Conference report, "to educate the public in their attitude toward the handicapped. Few states throughout the Union have done so little in establishing special classes for the handicapped child as the State of Delaware."

The early history of special education in the State helps to explain why it has been retarded. Since the state was so small, it did not establish special schools of its own to care for the blind, the deaf, and the feebleminded, when the possibility of special education became evident. Instead, the legislature made arrangements with Pennsylvania, and later with other states, to receive its handicapped pupils as boarding students. Delaware was among the ~~earlier~~ first commonwealths to make some provision for the blind, and was not noticeably laggard in including the deaf and the feebleminded under similar laws. Unfortunately, many parents, failing to realize the value of the training, refused to part with their children. Some of them probably never learned of the possibilities. Also, the provision was definitely labelled a charity for the indigent. Poor school provisions in the first district-school laws had nearly caused the regular public school system to die of neglect, and they apparently had the same stultifying effect on special education. Whatever the cause, Delaware came into the modern period without any tradition of proper training for the handicapped.

The accomplishments of the past thirty years must be summarized briefly, to indicate the approximate rate of development of the various programs, and the agencies concerned with them.

The Commission for the Blind, chartered March 31, 1909, is the longest-established. It has carried on a comprehensive program of rehabilitation and of child education best summarized by its own

statement of its superintendent's duties:

> Supervision of the education, training, and welfare of blind persons residing in the State; location of blind babies and their supervision in homes or in nursery schools; supervision of instructors of the blind; placement of blind persons able to work; operation of the store at the Blind Shop; making a yearly survey of the blind; making application for pensions and relief for needy blind; submission of a monthly report to the Delaware Commission for the Blind; submission of reports to the Governor, the State Board of Charities, and other state officers or agencies; management of the Summer Camp.

The Commission is hampered by scarcity of funds, since Delaware appropriates less for work among the blind than most other states and is the only state in the Union which has no blind assistance act. Even the territories, with the exception of Alaska, have such legislation. The Commission's income from other than public sources is not large.

The Delaware School for Deaf Children, partially state-supported, offers day-school facilities for a considerable proportion of the totally deaf; others are sent to residential schools outside the State. The Wilmington school is ten years old; the arrangement with other states dates from 1842. But There are still deaf children in Delaware growing up as untrained mutes, ~~however,~~ because no provision has been made for them under either program.

Delaware State Training School at Stockley has since 1921 supplied care and training for the more pronounced feeble minded cases, but it, too, lacks full facilities for doing the task assigned it.

Three public schools exist for tubercular children, one at each of the institutions for treatment of the disease.

Public school classes for the retarded and mentally defective were first established in 1923, and have been gradually extended, though they do not yet serve the entire State. In 1932, a Division of Special Education and Mental Hygiene was added to the State and the Wilmington schools, with a nationally recognized authority as director. A mental and educational testing service has been developed,

standards set for work with mental defectives, information collected, and skilled supervision of classes supplied. A sound foundation has been laid for a complete program when a more adequate appropriation is made.

The Division of Special Education has made extensive studies of the program needed for physically handicapped groups, has examined about 27,000 elementary school children for hearing defects, has urged formation of speech-reading and speech-correction classes, and formulated a complete program, never put into operation, for fresh-air classes. It has publicized the need for facilities for these groups.

The Nemours Foundation plans eventually to have one of the best-equipped centers in the United States for the treatment, training, and study of crippled children. Only the preliminary program is at present in operation.

Children with impaired sight, hearing, or speech, or with lowered vitality from any cause, must do the best they can in classes arranged for the average student. The same condition exists for most dull adolescents unable to do upper grade work with profit. These borderline cases are far more numerous than those involving almost complete disability; they are more likely to respond to medical care and more easily prepared for complete self-sufficiency. The loss resulting from their neglect is tremendous.

In addition to the educational agencies dealing primarily with handicapped individuals, there are a few organizations, largely social in nature, which contribute to the general program. The YWCA has made its equipment available to limited numbers of ~~the~~ deaf, ~~the~~ blind, ~~and~~ ~~the~~ crippled girls and women, and would gladly extend the service in cooperation with any responsible group. At least two clubs organized among the deaf

and hard of hearing provide them with social contacts and at ~~least~~ one makes an opportunity to study lip-reading available.

In the sections that follow, the stories of efforts on behalf of the various groups are presented. The educational work of the State Hospital and the industrial schools for delinquents is omitted, since their fundamental concern is with another problem.

The gains recorded represent the result of years of devoted, often thankless, effort on the part of persons of broad social vision. The list of needs still unmet records the senseless waste of money, of human ability, and of human happiness.

V. E. Shaw
April 11, 1939

Education
The Handicapped

EDUCATION OF THE HANDICAPPED IN DELAWARE

The Blind

Addenda file
reference to
1934
p.

The history of education of the handicapped in Delaware as a matter of public responsibility apparently dates from Friday, September 12, 1834. On that evening, The Delaware Gazette and Watchman tells us, at City Hall in Wilmington, instructors from the recently established Pennsylvania Institute for the Education of the Blind gave a demonstration of their pupils' work. The object was to prove the blind could be educated, and to demonstrate the methods used and the progress that children had made in acquiring "various branches of knowledge calculated to make them happy in themselves and a blessing instead of a burden to the community."

The program opened with a hymn sung by the children. Then followed demonstrations of the methods used in the teaching of reading, writing, printing, arithmetic, geography, and music. Blocks with the letters embossed on their sides served to show beginners how to recognize the feel of the alphabet. A member of the staff had devised a method of raised type printing used for preparing reading material for more advanced students.

Mental calculation, logically, formed the real basis of instruction in arithmetic; the reporter was amazed at the facility the children had developed. For problems too complicated to be solved mentally, a wooden box furnished with moveable raised figures which the blind could easily identify by touch and rearrange at will filled the place of slate or paper. Special maps readable by touch supplied the needs of a geography class.

In music the children were doing remarkably fine work; since they had been taught to read notes as well as letters, they were prepared for far more advanced technical instruction than they could have received by ear alone.

At the conclusion of the demonstration a little blind boy recited a long poem (quoted in full in the account) describing his complete contentment as he grew up with parents, brothers, sisters, and playmates; then his first realization of being alone and different when all the others had started to school and only he was left at home, completely shut out from the world of books they were entering; and finally of his happiness and restored self-confidence when he too had learned to read.

After the exhibition a meeting was called with E. I. du Pont in the chair, and Benjamin Ferris as secretary, to canvass the possibilities for providing instruction for Delaware's blind children. The following day an interested group met a second time to consider, and later adopt, a set of resolutions that had meanwhile been drawn up. The first of these highly praised the Pennsylvania school's work. The others concluded that Delaware was too small to establish and support such a school of its own, and so petitioned the legislature to make a grant-in-aid to The Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind so that Delawareans might share its benefits. A committee was appointed to solicit funds "for the establishment and support of so noble a charity."

The next newspaper reference to the undertaking appears in the Delaware Gazette for December 19 in the form of a rather rambling letter from Dr. Friendlander of the Pennsylvania Institution to Dr. Thompson of the Wilmington committee, requesting

a report of progress, and acknowledging "the perticular(sic) kindness of your city toward our infant institution."

On December 30 a series of notices was printed. The first announced a "Female Committee" appointed to solicit funds "for the important institution about being erected" (sic) and listed its members. The second stated: "A meeting of the Committee appointed to solicit funds in aid of the Pennsylvania Institution for the instruction (sic) of the Blind, will be held at City Hall on Wednesday next, at 3 o'clock P. M."

The third is the editorial quoted below:

> "We are informed that several hundred dollars have already been subscribed, and that measures are being taken that will secure sufficient donations to enable us to obtain a permanent interest in the Institution for the poor and unfortunate blind of our state."

A second demonstration of the work of the school is reported in the Gazette for January 13, 1835, as follows:

> The Blind
>
> The exhibition of the blind pupils under the charge of Dr. Friendlander, at Hanover St. Church last evening, was interesting in the extreme. At an early hour the house was filled to overflowing and many were obliged to leave, who could not gain admittance. A general interest seems to be felt in our city in behalf of this unfortunate part of our species, and we doubt not contributions will be cheerfully made. Dr. Friendlander is on his way to Dover under expectation of obtaining assistance from our legislature now in session.

On January 14, 1835, a meeting was held in Dover and resolutions identical to those adopted in Wilmington in September were passed.

Dr. Friendlander's hopes were well-founded, for on January 29, 1835, the Delaware legislature passed the first act to assist

in education of the State's blind. Under its provisions the Governor was empowered to draw warrants to be paid out of the school fund for the tuition of indigent blind at the Pennsylvania Institution for the instruction of the Blind, at a rate identical with that charged Pennsylvania residents. No scholar might be taught at the expense of the State longer than five years; the total appropriation for such tuition was limited to $1000 annually. Funds for educating the blind of each county were to be deducted from its school dividend before division among the districts. Not more than two pupils from each county might be admitted at the same time at public expense. The associate judges of the State of Delaware were to act as trustees to receive and act upon all applications, and receive the annual report required of the school.

On November 19, 1835, according to a series of letters, published in the Delaware Gazette & Watchman for Dec. 8, 1835, $837.11 was turned over to the school after all expenses of the blind (apparently on the demonstration tours of the previous year) had been paid. J. Francis Fisher, as secretary of the Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind, wrote in acknowledgement:

> "We hope to receive before long one or two blind children from Delaware and we request you to forward to us the names and addresses of all candidates for admission. We regret that our present establishment is too small to enable us to receive as many as the appropriation by the legislature of your state would support.
>
> "But I am happy to inform you that our new edifice, which is in length 113 feet, by 55 in breadth, and three and one half stories in height is now roofed and will be ready for occupancy before the end of June. We shall then be able to accommodate all the children that are likely to present themselves for admission, and shall considerably enlarge our plan of instruction."

He thanks Delawareans for the courtesy shown officials and students on their visits to Wilmington and Dover "last winter."

Publication of this set of letters apparently marks the close of an eighteen-month period of active public interest in the matter, for no further references to it have yet been found in the periodicals examined.

The 1835 law remained unchanged until 1853, when it, with an almost identical statute passed in 1841 to offer similar advantages to indigent deaf-mutes, was repealed and replaced by a single provision for both groups. Judges of the Superior Court were to be trustees of the deaf, dumb, and blind children of the State. Not more than three indigent students from each county should be in attendance at the same time at each of the two Pennsylvania institutions for handicapped children. The usual period of such instruction was still five years, but, on the written recommendation of the Principal of either school, the Governor might extend not more than three years the term of a child who had not attained his maximum development. The maximum which could be paid each institution was raised to $1,400 annually.

In 1865 the maximum was again raised, this time to $1,800 annually, for each institution.

The following year saw the beginning of a tendency to favor deaf-mutes at the expense of the blind. New Castle county was by an act of Feb. 15, 1866 allowed to send to Philadelphia two more such children -- provided no more than five were in residence at the same time -- and the total tuition allowance for them was raised to $2,300 annually. It has been impossible to

locate the reports the two schools were to make to the State, whereby the number or identity of children instructed outside the state at public expense might be learned.

The following very meager reports culled from the House Journals (except 1876 to 78) for the years indicated, however, show the trend.

1861 - 9 deaf-mutes; 3 blind; 2 feeble-minded (p. 22)

1876 - 9 deaf-mutes; 3 blind; 2 feeble-minded (from Appleton's Annual, p. 223)

1878 - 5 deaf-mutes; 2 blind; 2 feeble-minded or insane (ibid. 235)

1879 - 5 deaf-mutes; 2 blind; 2 feeble-minded (governor's message)

1883 -11 deaf-mutes; 2 blind; 2 feeble-minded or insane (p. 22)

1901 -13 deaf-mutes; - blind; 10 feeble-minded (governor's message)

1903 -12 deaf-mutes; 1 blind; 14 feeble-minded(governor's message)

1904 -14 deaf-mutes; 2 blind; 14 feeble-minded (ibid)

During the entire period between the Civil War and the new century the blind received meager attention at the hands of the legislature. In February 1873, the legislature appropriated $100 annually to the American Printing House for the Blind, for the purchase, at cost, of books to be distributed gratuitously to the blind. A preamble to the act notes that "there are now over seventy blind persons in this State, many of them indigent." Two years later, March 23, 1875, a new act for educating handicapped children was passed repealing inconsistent portions of the old, which permitted the trustees to recommend to the Governor for admission to any school for instruction of the deaf or blind any suitable persons, whose tuition should be charged against his county, provided that no tuition should be paid above the amount paid by Pennsylvania for

its wards in its institutions for the blind or deaf. (This provision apparently makes possible the care of negro defectives at Maryland schools for such children).

In January 1877, a committee appointed to consider the matter reported that no additional legislation was needed to meet the needs of the deaf, the blind, and the insane. In 1893 the President of the Board of Trustees of Farnhurst was directed to visit twice annually the institutions receiving tuition for handicapped Delaware children, and report his findings to the Governor. At the same session, another act particularly favoring deaf-mutes was passed. It permitted the Governor to draw warrants for the payment of bills for private tuition at home of deaf children, if their parents preferred. In such cases, the county superintendent of schools was to have general supervision over the child's instruction. An act in 1898 transferred the cost of special instruction from the school fund to the general fund. In 1899 the optional extra term the Governor might grant students whose work was good was increased to five years instead of the original three. This in effect, permitted a total of ten years education at public expense instead of the previous eight.

It is a rather striking fact that nearly twenty years elapsed between the provision requiring the President of the Board of Trustees of Farnhurst to visit and report upon schools caring for Delaware's deaf or blind wards, and its immediate predecessor, while almost every session thereafter gave at least some attention to the problem of the handicapped. Whether this apparently minor provision was the cause of the changed attitude or merely its first fruits, it clearly marks the beginning of a period of slowly developing public opinion in regard to the

rehabilitation of all handicapped individuals, particularly the blind.

The Governor, in his message in 1901, reported that the law allowed for the care of twenty-nine defective children at a cost to the State of $6,700, but that the proper appropriation had not been made to pay the bills of children already accepted at special schools. Since the five blind or deaf-mute children from each county and the fourteen feeble-minded from the State at large allowed by law were already enrolled, no more warrants for admissions could be issued until vacancies occurred.

In 1903, the Governor in his message asked an appropriation large enough to provide for any blind or deaf children who might apply for schooling; the figure for 1902-1903 was $7,000. At the next session (1905), the Governor reported that the appropriation had been increased $1,000 annually, and had proved sufficient for the education of all applicants. (In view of later surveys, this does not mean all eligibles, but merely all whose families knew about the provision and sought out the assistance).

In 1907, the Governor again urged more adequate provision for the training of handicapped individuals; of the children he stated that they had "never received that degree of care and attention which their misfortune demands."

The 1907 session of the legislature made two changes in the law concerning the blind -- one of them marking a fundamental change in the State's policy. The more routine amendment permitted the Governor to extend to the full twelve years customarily available to other children the term of handicapped students who were making satisfactory progress. The new provision allowed

the Associate Judges to appoint an instructor to offer home training to the adult indigent blind of the state, at a salary of $1,200 annually. Though for seventy-three years the State had recognized in its public policy that blind children can receive an education that will enable them to lead normal, well-adjusted lives, this was the first legislative attempt at rehabilitation of the adult blind.

According to the first Report of the Delaware Commission for the Blind, made in 1910, the legislation of 1907 was the outcome of two years of agitation and privately sponsored activity on the part of several interested groups.

Except for inadequate provision for education of children, the blind in Delaware were neglected prior to 1905, when The Century Club and the Sunshine Society sponsored an investigation into conditions affecting them. (Report for 1916 gives 1906 as the date). Through private contribution they employed Liberio Delfino, a Philadelphian experienced in the work, to visit the blind in their homes in order to make an accurate census and an authoritative survey of the problem. A later Report of the Commission credits Mr. Delfino's success in making a survey far more accurate than that of the U. S. Census partially at least to the fact that, though blind and additionally handicapped by having only one arm, he traveled about the State unassisted, and was able to gain the interest and cooperation of those who would have been unwilling to talk to someone they felt might be a pitying busybody.

He found "some two hundred blind, half of whom were sound of mind and body, and none of whom had any recourse to the many

possibilities still available to make life of interest to them. More than a dozen children were being deprived of their just rights to an education by their misfortune of defective sight."

After publication of the facts there was an active effort to remedy the conditions revealed. Still through private subscription, the organizations were enabled to employ as home teacher for the blind a young woman, herself blind, and a graduate of the Overbrook School and of Vassar. The next session of the legislature authorized the position as a public one, as noted above. The original incumbent had served for over two years at the time the first report was written -- apparently late in 1909 -- and had resigned "some months" before the publication of the next, in 1913.

Her report gives a total of 197 discovered cases, of whom 21 were children of school age. Though all but two were capable of receiving education, only eight were actually at school. Among the adults, 93 were listed as educable, 40 as illiterates, 18 as invalids, and 25 as "failed to interest." Most of the 135 individuals who had come under the instruction of the home teacher were adults, many of whom, by 1909, were "contributing toward their own support." Twenty-six were readers of embossed type and borrowers from the Free Library. The average circulation of books was 33 a month. In 1905 only two children were being educated at Overbrook at State expense; by 1909 nine were enrolled -- two in the kindergarten, and seven in the academic department.

The legal foundation for the present program of the Commission for the Blind was laid between 1907 and 1913. The law of 1907, referred to above, merely made an appropriation for the employment of a home teacher. On March 31, 1909, the Commission was chartered. It was given power to hold funds, employ instructors for blind adults, and supervise such instruction. The duty of visiting and reporting upon the schools caring for defective Delaware children outside the State was transferred to it; it was also to recommend to the Governor future candidates for admission at State expense to special schools. Blindness was no longer recognized as sufficient cause for exempting a child from the compulsory education laws.

Two additional statutes, enrolled February 24, 1913, completed the basic legislation, though there have, of course, been certain additions and amendments. The first of these new provisions removed all restrictions on the right to hold, transfer, and use property, from whatever source acquired, for the education and training of blind persons. The second permitted the Commission to pay blind apprentices, for their maintenance, not over $3.00 weekly for not over two years to any one person; the Commission was given the right to select the persons to receive such support. The number was controlled by the size of the annual appropriation. For 1913-15 it provided for no more than ten workers.

If occasional newspaper clippings are disregarded, the Annual Reports of the Commission for the Blind become the sole documentary source for the story of the affairs of the blind in the State. (Appropriations, of course, are listed biennially in the session law of the State, and the House

and Senate Journals). The Commission's activities fall into several distinct categories: a census; re-education and employment of blind adults; supervision of the education of handicapped children (including, for a number of years, the deaf and feeble-minded); provision of a library for the blind; a general service bureau for the blind; and the inevitable miscellaneous details that defy classification. Since it seems probably that more people might ask "How has the State handled the education of its blind children?" or "What progress has been made in making the adult blind self-supporting since the Commission started its work?" than would care to know the complete program for any one year, the material from the Annual Reports has been arranged topically. Those interested in a chronological treatment are referred to the Reports themselves in the Wilmington Institute Free Library. (The education file of the Federal Writers' Project contains a digest of the Reports by years.)

Table I - A-B below gives a summary of the annual census returns found in the Commission's Reports. The figures for 1912-1924 have been difficult to tabulate because the form of the various reports for these years is anything but uniform; information supplied in one is omitted in the next and may reappear in a third with sufficient change in detail to prevent an exact comparison with earlier entries. No Reports were issued between 1924 and 1929-30. The new series has adopted a standard form for census returns, far more detailed than any of those submitted previously; as a matter of convenience in arranging headings the table has been divided into two sections, one for each period.

Table I-C has been added to make more easily accessible the detailed information available for 1929-35.

Census of the Blind in Delaware I A 1910-1924 Table I - A

Year	Total Blind	Adults: Employed: Shop	Adults: Employed: Elsewhere	Adults: Employed: Total	Total Adults	Infants	Children: School Age: Total	Children: School Age: At school	Children: School Age: Waiting	Children: School Age: Not fit	Total Children	Notes
1910	197				176		21	8		2		a-includes women em-
1912	286	13			239	12	35	11			47	ployed at home.
1914	253	16	45	61*a				14	8			b-Industrially occu-
1915	264	*c		47*b				13	5			pied only
1916	254	17-26	3					8	4			c-includes those em-
1917		15						7	7*d			ployed at home by shop
1918		24						6				d-2 children in this
1919	300							4				no. probably no long-
1920	301	6	6	12 *e		(Rep.)		10	2			er educable.
1921	219			cal0%		1		12			14(known)	e-completely self-
1922	225			cal0%*e				11	4			supporting
1923	250	41				4	12		4			f-mental defectives
1924								12	2*f			

Census of the Blind in Delaware 1 B 1930-35 summary

Year	Total Blind	Adults: Total	Adults: Employed	Adults: Students	Adults: At home	Homes & Almshouses	Farnhurst Stockley	Children: Total	Children: At Special Schools	Children: At Public Schools	Children: Not in School
1929	261	218	23	1	174	16	4	43	18	12	13
1931-32	356	307	32	1	240	24	7	55	14 (4 Stockley)	17	12
1933-34	330	307	32	1	245	25	7	23	12 (3 Stockley)		8
1935	342	321	34	4	247	28	12	21	12 (4 Stockley)		8

Census of the Blind in Delaware 1 C 1930-35 Placement by Age-groups

Year	Age-Group	Placement: Total	Schools for Blind	Schools Public	Schools for Mental Defectives	Homes for Babies	Not in School
1929-30	1-18	43	10	12	6	2	13

		Employed	Student	At Home	Homes & Almshouses	Farnhurst & Stockley
18-35	36	5	1(college)	30		
35-55	45	10		31		4
55-65	38	7		31		
65-75	57	1		53	3	
over 75	42			29	13	
TOTAL	261	23	1	174	16	4

Census of the Blind in Delaware 1 C (continued)

Year	Age-Group	Total	Schools for Blind	Schools(Public)	Under school age	Homes for Babies	Farnhurst & Stockley	Not in (taught at home) School
					Placement			
	1-18	55	10	17	1		4	7 5
1931-32			Employed	Student	At home	Homes & Almhouses		
	18-35	51	9 (3 professionals)		39	2	1	
	35-55	70	12		53	2	3	
	55-65	40	4		33		3	
	65-75	74	6		62	6		
	over 75	66	1		51	14		
	Total	356	32		240	24	11	
			Schools for Blind	Schools(Public)	Under school age	Homes for Babies		Not in (taught at home) School
	1-18	23	9		3		3	8
			Employed	Student	At home	Homes & Almhouses		
	18-35	47	9	1	33		2	
1933-34	35-55-	69	14		54	3	3	
	55-65	39	1		34	2	1	
	65-75	83	8		68	6	1	
	over 75	70			56	13	1	
	Total	330	32	1	245	25	10	
			Schools for Blind	Schools(Public)	Under school age	Homes for Babies		Not in School
	1-18	21	8		1		4	8
			Employed	Student	At home	Homes & Almhouses		
	18-35	46	10	4	30	1	1	
1935	35-55-	60	14		59	3	4	
	55-65	41	2		35	2	2	
	65-75	74	8		57	8	1	
	over 75	80			66	14		
	Total	342	34-1	4	247	28	12	8

* Note 1 - Total employed listed as 117 - includes those partially or occasionally employed at odd jobs, etc. Other list includes only those fully employed and self-supporting.

Table II

Year	White	Colored	Men	Women	Children	Total
1935	237	105	155	166	21	342

Year	Total	Children (under 21)	Adults Gainfully Employed		In Institutions		
					Welfare Home	Delaware Colony	State Hospital
1938	331	22	309	59	23	10	11

Though the figures compiled above are far from satisfactory as a statistical study, they do give an idea of the number of individuals we have in mind, and at least a suggestion of their age and whereabouts, when we speak so impersonally of "the blind in Delaware."

The generalizations one may reasonably draw from the Tables are few. The Commission's clients have numbered between the 197 located by the first State-paid worker in 1909, and the 356 reported in 1932. The percentage of children among them, if the one complete early report (1912) is accurate, has fallen. Although more attention has been paid the education of blind children than was given the subject thirty years ago, apparently in no single year has every case been adequately cared for. The proportion of mentally subnormal among the blind is low; comparatively few of them are inmates of Homes or almshouses. Fully half of them are elderly people, and the group listed as "over 75" accounts for nearly a quarter of the blind, despite their small percentage in the general population. The Commission's statement that in Delaware, after its work became once firmly established, approximately ten percent of the blind have in normal times been self-supporting appears well-founded.

Certain inconsistencies in the totals for various years arouse curiosity. There seems, for example, no valid reason why there should have been 301 blind in the State in 1920, and, one year later, only 219; 47 children are reported in 1912 -- in 1919, 4. Obviously, so many people would not likely have recovered, died, or left the State in such short periods of time. These differences in the returns for years in the same

general period can only be explained on two premises: either the Commission's work in its earlier years was not uniformly effective or it was not reported consistently. In the bodies of various reports there is considerable evidence to suggest the second alternative. It is clear that in some years individuals not totally blind are included in the summaries of the Commission's work; reports of employment sometimes are limited strictly to those nearly or completely self-supporting at some full-time industrial occupation, and again, include all able to contribute in any way to their own support. (It is possible from the wording of the 1914 entry to wonder if women able to do their own housework do not contribute to the surprising total of 61 employed among 253 blind). Frequent omissions of totals and other bases of valid comparison in many of the reports issued prior to 1929 show their authors were more concerned with the human than the statistical side of their work. None of the foregoing criticism applies to the reporting since 1929.

Table II shows two trends worth mention. Though blindness is more common among negroes in Delaware of all ages than among whites, among children and young adults they account for only one case in five; while in the groups over thirty-five years of age one blind person in three is colored. (According to the U. S. Census for 1930, their proportion in the population was 13.7%). Sex apparently has little or no determining influence in blindness. There are ten more women than men among the 342 cases reported. Oddly, however, there is a striking predominence of women

among the young adult and the aged blind; among other age-groups, there is either an equal distribution of men and women, or slightly more men. Though these comments are based upon the 1935 totals, the proportions do not materially vary for other recent years.

Re-education and employment of blind adults has of course been one of the chief concerns of the Delaware Commission for the Blind from its inception; the program, in fact, was started in 1907, two years before the Commission's formal incorporation. The first report of the home teacher employed in that year (as it appears in the Commission's 1910 Report), says: "Most of the one hundred thirty-five who have come under the instruction of the home teacher are adults, many of whom are now (1909) contributing toward their own support." Twenty-six had mastered reading in Braille or Moon type, and had become borrowers from the Free Library.

During the period 1910-1913, covered in the Report for 1913, the Commission worked successfully for a State appropriation to provide a handicap (i.e., an apprentice allowance) for not more than ten blind apprentices to trades. No one individual might benefit for more than two years or receive more than $3.00 weekly. In the first year under the new plan, the Blind Shop was employing six chair-caners, two rug weavers (about half-time each), three broom-makers and four basketmakers; i.e., it had 15 blind employes. It had already begun to develop a fair-sized business.

By 1914 the Shop reported itself prosperous. In addition to its local business, it had received orders from several large Philadelphia stores. There were sixteen men working

at the Shop at rug weaving, broommaking, chair-seating, and basketry, besides six outside salesmen and "numerous" others employed at home. Some of these were women who prepared rags for rug-weaving. There are for this year 156 men listed as capable of learning a trade, 40 listed as employed, and 21 women listed as "employed at home."

For 1915, 38 men and 9 women are listed as "industrially occupied." The Blind Shop employed 25 of the men in its production unit; the average income was $4.56 per week on piece work, and "the average maximum wage, $10.06." Just what this last expression means is not clear. Some others of the 47 employed blind received their work through the Shop.

In summarizing for the 1916 Report the accomplishment of the work on behalf of the blind during the ten years since it was first undertaken, the Commission says: "--; 25 blind men have been encouraged to make an effort to rise above their handicap, taught trades, and found work." There have been working at the Shop from twelve to fifteen men, with three others working at home, and five women sewing carpet rags. Three men were employed independently, and three women "at home" -- whether or not by the Blind Shop is not clear. The total for the year was 29.

The following year the Blind Shop reported that its industries had received commendation from out-of-state experts in the field. It employed 15 completely self-supporting blind men, at a total wage of $3,625.69. The products and services advertised included rugs and carpets,

brooms, chaircaning, baskets, knitting and crocheting, and piano tuning.

The tenth anniversary of industrial work for the blind in the State occurred in 1918. The birthday was celebrated by the completion of a new plant, giving workroom in its factory for 40 men, ample storage space for supplies, and living accommodations for twenty resident men. The building cost $25,000, all of it privately subscribed.

That report gives interesting sidelights on a few of the 24 blind employes of the Commission that help to make them more than simply numbers in a statistical summary. Two of the five new workers were recent graduates of schools for the blind. One was a colored farmhand who had been blinded in the spring of 1917 while spreading lime on a field, had spent the summer in a hospital, and, in December, applied for admission to the Shop. He was accepted in January 1918, and, during the part of the year covered by the Report, had been doing excellent work, frequently earning in a week more than his maintenance costs -- rather unusual for so recent an apprentice. A fourth was a blind paralytic boy found locked alone in a room while his widower father was at work. He was removed to the residence quarters of the Blind Shop, had been fitted with braces and crutches, and was able to get about alone for the first time in seven years. At the time the report was made, he was learning to cane chairs and perform other light tasks within his physical capacity.

How many blind men or women were employed independently in 1918 is not indicated. The only one mentioned is a youth who had just graduated from Overbrook qualified as a typist and dictaphone operator.

The Report for 1919 is concerned mainly with pleas for a more adequate appropriation. The work of the Commission had been seriously interfered with by the rapidly rising costs in the constant budget, such as food for boarders, raw materials, and the like. The State funds were increased, as a result of these appeals, from $3,000 to $10,000 annually. The only definite statement concerning employment is a reprint from the Delmarva Star for September 22, 1918, describing the success of the young typist, referred to briefly above, in securing and filling an office position with the Du Pont Company.

In 1920 the Blind Shop was again able to make every department pay the costs of materials and labor. The number of employes seems to have fallen drastically, however. Only six are listed as "employed regularly in the Shop"; five as "given individual instruction" (not clear whether or not this is a variant method of referring to recently admitted apprentices not yet able to earn their way); six have "secured positions in competition with the seeing."

During 1920 the Commission also undertook a project that might be classified either as adult education or the training of children; it obligated itself to provide professional education for two of its most promising younger wards -- both recent graduates of Overbrook. A young woman was to be sent to Peabody Institute as a graduate student of

music, and a youth to Delaware College to specialize in foreign languages.

During the following year the young music student opened a studio in the Blind Shop to instruct sighted pupils. No other employment data is included for 1921.

For 1922 the material is not very explicit about numbers. It does state that ten years earlier there had not been a single self-supporting blind person in the State, while now about ten percent of all the cases in Delaware were able to earn sufficient to cover their own needs. Of those employed at or by the Blind Shop "many earned $10.00 - $20.00 per week; a few, much more." The Commission employed two field workers, one at least of whom, the rural worker for the lower counties, was himself blind. His rehabilitation work was meeting with great success. Among his cases was a blind paralytic, member of an extremely poor family, who was able to learn a handicraft, and through the business solicited by his friends, earn enough to help materially with his own support, and in addition buy himself the phonograph he had long coveted. After he had been forced to move, with the consequent loss of his business, the Commission found him again, and succeeded in reestablishing him in the new locality. A little later he became interested in Braille reading.

The Commission Report for 1923 returns to the practice of giving an exact report of the number of blind employes of record. At the Blind Shop, there were 29 employed wither in residence or at home; in the lower counties there were three professional men and eight manual workers -- a total for the State of 40. The young pianist had during the

year seven students at her Studio in the Blind Shop.

During 1924, there was a complete change of supervisory personnel, apparently causing some dissatisfaction on the part of some of the resident workers. No exact details concerning employment are included in this last of the early series of Reports.

At least three of them were graduates. See [illegible] for the details

The reports covering the years 1929-35 offer considerable detail concerning employment. For 1929-30 there were twenty-three at work, fifteen of them employed by the Blind Shop. Eleven were residents.

By 1931-32 the general business slump had seriously affected the market of the Shop; it suffered as well from the results of mechanized competition. Though the number listed as employed, thirty-two, is greater than that of the year before, the total number of cases reported was also larger. In this report the Commission calls attention to its considerable number of highly successful clients. They included, besides tradesmen and artisans, a Ph.D. teaching at Overbrook, a girl college graduate employed as a tutor, a skilled pianist employed by the Commission as teacher and field worker, and others. During the biennium the Shop added repair of furniture and renovation of antiques to its industrial activity.

In 1933-34 there are thirty-two listed as employed, and for 1935 the number is thirty.

All of the figures for this period apparently refer only to those who had full-time work at which they earned enough to completely or nearly support themselves, for the same Report (1935) which mentions in its census section only

thirty employed gives a list headed "Occupations of Delaware blind" with the number engaged in each pursuit; the total is 117, indicating that many not completely self-supporting were earning amounts that must have ranged from mere pocket money to a sizable contribution toward their own expense.[3]*

(*Suggestive of the sort of situation which probably explains the wide discrepancy in the figures given, is a comment made in a recent broadcast over WDEL. A fifteen-year old blind boy, in an interview, reported that he had earned over $100, by the sale of handicraft specialties. In the census of course, he would be entered as "student," though in a complete survey of the gainfully employed, he would deserve mention.)

The occupations follow; the number of individuals engaged in each was under five, unless otherwise listed: basketmaker, 5; broommaker; caner, 12; cannery; coal business; factory; fancy articles, 17; farm or garden, 19; housework by day; instructors and teachers; preacher; intelligence office; janitor; junk dealer; lawyer; maid; companion; child's nurse; odd jobs, 12; orchestra; peddler; piano tuner; rug weaver; salesman, 5; stand operator; storekeeper; speculator; subscriptions (magazine); textile business (owner); typist; upholsterer; woodchopper.

From March 31, 1909, the Delaware Commission for the Blind has had general supervision over the education of blind children. Until after 1924, it also examined institutions training deaf-mutes and idiots.

Originally, the associate judges of the State of Delaware were to act as a board of trustees to receive and pass upon

applications for admission to the Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind, and to receive an annual report from the Principal of the school. When, in 1853, the provisions for deaf-mute and blind children were combined into a single statute, the Judges of the Superior Court became trustees for both, with the same administrative duties the first board had had. Amendments between 1853 and 1893 made changes in the maximum term, the total tuition the State might pay for handicapped wards, the number of blind and deaf-mutes who might be placed, and the schools to which such children might be sent, but the Judges remained the administrators. In 1893, instead of having the Institutions which received Delaware children make a report, presumably in writing, to the Judges, the President of the Board of Trustees of Farnhurst was instructed personally to visit the schools at least twice a year and make a report to the Governor. (The reason for selecting an official of Farnhurst, the State Insane Asylum, to supervise the education of ~~the~~ mentally ~~normal~~ blind ~~and~~ deaf-~~people~~ pupils is not entirely clear. It probably stemmed from the fact that the care of feeble-minded and idiotic children had been entrusted to the same Judges, and, that they were logically being transferred to the general agency set up to provide for all mental cases.) Though a connection would be difficult to prove, it may very easily be that reports of the number of blind, deaf, and feebleminded children the State was training, appearing in each of the Governor's messages to the legislature, helped call public attention to their existence and to their needs.

In 1909, the Delaware Commission for the Blind inherited the duty of supervising the education of defectives. It was expected to send a representive twice a year to visit each of the schools to which Delaware was paying tuition for its wards; to receive and investigate applications for new admissions, and recommend eligible blind to the Governor for appointment. The Commission apparently felt a far more definite responsibility than any of the earlier administrators had in calling attention to the desperate need for more satisfactory care for all defective children. Its recommendations and census reports concerning feeble-minded and deaf-~~mute~~ cases are quoted elsewhere.

For the blind it immediately began a strenuous campaign. The report sponsored by the Sunshine Society and the Century Club in 1906 declared "more than a dozen children were being deprived of their just rights of an education by their misfortune of defective sight." According to the first Annual Report of the Commission for the Blind, made in 1910 (figures refer to 1909 or earlier) the first home visitor found twenty-one blind children of school age in the State, nineteen of them otherwise normal; only eight were receiving formal instruction. This, however, was a great improvement over 1905, when only two children were at Overbrook at State expense. By 1909, there were seven students in the academic department and two in the kindergarten.

In 1913, a combined report for the three previous years was published; it indicates that in 1911 education was made compulsory for blind children not otherwise incapacitated, between the ages of seven and eighteen, under

penalty of fine. There is a census under the date of 1912, showing thirty-five children of school age, besides twelve infants. Eleven of the school-age children were actually enrolled in schools for the blind. In 1913 the Commission first began emphasizing the fact to which it returns again and again through the years -- that for blind or deaf-~~mute~~ children of normal intelligence, proper education is likely to mean the difference between a lifetime of helpless dependency, with few resources for personal development, and self-supporting, happy adulthood.

The next Report shows fourteen blind children in the State, eight of them at school. In the following year -- 1915 -- there were thirteen children at school, with five on the waiting list. 1916 marked the tenth anniversary of activity on behalf of the blind; in summarizing the work the Commission and its informal predecessors had accomplished, it states that twenty-five children have been "sought out and given their just right of an education at public expense." In that last sentence lies the key to the difference between the Commission's work among blind children and all that had preceded it since the first enthusiasm that resulted in the original law had spent itself: the children were now sought out and their parents painstakingly convinced of the need for allowing them to go to school; previously a few of those whose guardians happened to know of the State provision and apply for its aid were cared for. Unfortunately, no records have thus far been found to indicate just how many individuals were sent to school at public expense, between 1835 and 1910, and whether any were sent privately.

The census for 1916 shows eight children at school, with four eligibles still unprovided for; it does not state whether or not twelve was the ~~told~~ total number of blind children in the State.

For 1917 the Commission reports only seven blind children at school, and adds: "There have been few appointments by Delaware to the special schools for defective children for a number of years." The Commission, it continues, had petitioned repeatedly for blind children to be sent to school, "all of which petitions are now no longer available." Two of the children had moved from the State, two were otherwise provided for, and two had been out of school so long it was no longer considered of any use to try to re-enter them. There were three new cases on file which were in urgent need of being entered at the next school session. The Commission complains of working for a long time to get the consent of parents who were reluctant to part with small children, only to have the warrants needlessly delayed in the Governor's office when the consent had finally been won.

The 1918 Report is the first to give case-histories of child clients of the Commission, and information concerning any of those who for one reason or another were not considered good prospects for schooling. It mentions a blind paralytic boy (age not given) who had been habitually locked alone in the room he occupied with his father, while the father was away at work. Since this youth was accepted as a resident at the Blind Shop and given industrial training, the details of the case are entered more fully under employment

of adults. The census shows a further drop in the number of children at school; there were now only six, since one had graduated.

For 1919 the number at school fell still lower -- this time to four.

Early in 1920, the Commission undertook to send a promising blind boy to the University of Delaware and a young woman to Peabody Institute for graduate study in music. The boy had been a client of the Commission since the fall of 1916; the girl since early childhood.

Apparently the apathy concerning the young blind which had been gradually increasing had come to a sudden end during the year. Twelve blind children capable of attending school were reported; ten of them had been entered, and the other two were waiting only because their parents had not yet consented to their leaving home. A blind crippled child was making satisfactory progress under home instruction.

For 1921, fourteen known blind children are reported; twelve of them were at school. The blind cripple was still being tutored at home; a blind baby that had not been receiving adequate training at home had been entered at the Commission's expense at a nursery home in New Jersey, and was making satisfactory progress. There is an apparently contradictory statement in two parts of this report: in one place the number of students is given as twelve; in another as ten. It seems most probable that there were ten who had not completed high school enrolled at state expense, and two pursuing college work as the Commission's responsibility. Whether these two advanced students were

still under eighteen we are not told, though a letter referring to Francis Cummings' entry at Delaware does mention that he was rather young to matriculate.

During this year, the Commission first mentions welfare and sight-saving work among clients only threatened with blindness. It states that "many children have been examined by the Commission's specialists." The Blind Shop provided a home for a ~~blind~~ twelve-year old orphan during his school vacation.

In 1922, there were eleven of the Commission's proteges at school, and four new cases which required prompt admission. The first case-history of assistance to a partially blind child comes from the rural worker for the lower counties. A little girl who had become a serious discipline and instructional problem in public school proved, on examination, to see too poorly to read without cruel strain; after the Commission's worker instructed her in Braille, she was able to continue in her regular classes happily and successfully. A destitute seven-year-old for whom the State was unable to provide immediately had been entered at Overbrook at the Commission's expense.

Francis Cummings had completed his first year at the University with a brilliant record. He had found foreign language texts the most serious problem; the books for his French course were not available, and the Commission was having the two basic texts for the second-year program embossed for his convenience and that of any who might need them later. He had been popular, and had adjusted himself very satisfactorily to conditions at college. His reasonably

brief report to the members of the Commission is sufficiently interesting to warrant reproduction in full:

> Before I entered the University of Delaware, I could not determine what difficulties a blind person might encounter in acquiring higher education. I had resolved that whatever obstacles presented themselves, I should obviate. Of course, I was concerned as to how this was to be done. The first and most important of these difficulties was the securing of a reader, that is, someone who could read to me all the textbooks that I could not procure in raised characters. Upon my arrival at the University of Delaware, I mentioned to some students that I should need a reader. On the following day, one of these students came to my room and offered to accept the responsibility of reading to me. I fully realized, however, that in order to do ample justice to the study of foreign languages, it would be necessary to have in Braille the required textbooks. I immediately wrote to the Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind, and giving the names of textbooks I should need, asked if it was possible to obtain them in Braille. I learned that the Latin and Greek textbooks were available, but that the French had not been embossed in Braille. The cost of having this done was prohibitive, and the only alternative was to have it read to me. Of course, if I had had the text under my fingers, I could have studied it more satisfactorily, as I would have been able to give it greater concentration. I sincerely hope that some day a society may be formed for the purpose of embossing the books required for blind students taking higher education.
>
> The next problem to be solved was how I should manage in the classrooms. Before coming to the University, I had secured a small portable typewriter, with which I had intended to do all written work. The professors agreed to accept typewritten work, and I was relieved of any worry in that respect. As far as recitations were concerned, of course, I did exactly the same as the sighted students.
>
> For the four years preceding my entrance into the University of Delaware, I had been a student at the Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind, in which school I was, of course, associated only with blind or partially blind students. I was greatly concerned, therefore, as to how I should get along with students with perfect sight. After I had stayed at the

University a short time, this matter adjusted itself. The students were all very pleasant and willing to offer assistance. Since I have very little athletic ability, I have never taken any active part in sports; but with the assistance of a sighted companion, I have derived great pleasure from the basketball and football games. Of course, I have had to combat the obvious conviction of many students that a blind person must be handled carefully. At first, they could not seem to realize that I was not deprived of all my humanity simultaneously with my sight, and that I still enjoyed the same things in which they took pleasure. Time has, however, greatly modified the opinion of the students, and they do not now seem to consider me different from themselves. As I become better acquainted with them, this relation will be strengthened, and I shall feel more and more as one of them.

It had occurred to me that I might find it difficult to be punctual in my class attendance, and also to be at the Commons on time for my meals; but the students were considerate of me until I became thoroughly familiar with the campus and the buildings. The University authorities were particular that I get a room on the first floor of Harter Hall, which also facilitated matters.

I believe that a higher education for the blind should be encouraged, as it adds to their happiness and should place them in the front ranks of citizenship.

Francis J. Cummings.

There is no report in 1924 of the total number of blind children in the State, or the proportion of these at school. There are, however, interesting sidelights on the Commission's continuing work among the young blind. They planned to send a second child to Overbrook at their own expense, in addition to the one they were already maintaining. In the lower counties, the home teacher was assisting three partially blind children to continue satisfactorily in public schools. The blind children from the Baltimore school (apparently colored) were spending their vacation at the Blind Shop in

Wilmington and receiving supplementary instruction in handicrafts. Blind babies again enter the picture. This time there were four of them. Two of those the Commission was studying were otherwise normal; a third had been brought from Kent County for examination, but had proved unteachable; the fourth, an obvious imbecile, had recently died. There were two little girls of superior intelligence for whom immediate provision at Overbrook should be made, and two other children who would probably be ready for admission some time during the year. Francis Cummings, in view of his excellent progress in foreign languages, had been enrolled with the first foreign study group sponsored by the University of Delaware.

The final report of the early series, dated 1924, lists twelve children as students (one at the Commission's expense), states that the two cases declared urgent the year before had been admitted; a third had been entered on the Commission's responsibility until the Governor's warrant could be obtained. Two other children, prospective candidates for Stockley for whom the Commission had been unable to make other temporary provision, had been committed to the custody of the Children's Bureau.

one of these was a colored boy

Francis Cummings' progress at The Sorbonne and the University of Nancy had matched his previous record in brilliance; the Commission felt fully justified in the extra expense it had incurred to make his attendance possible. Of the 284 candidates of twenty-four nationalities for the Diploma of French Civilization awarded by the University of Paris to foreign students, Cummings

ranked fourth among the 71 successful aspirants. He received no special favors or consideration and many of his classmates ~~never~~ did not realized he was blind.

A five-year blank period follows the report for 1924. When the Commission resumed publication of its proceedings, it had adopted a far more scientific and less personal style of report.

In 1929-30, there were forty-three blind individuals in the group between one and eighteen years of age. Ten of these were at Overbrook, twelve in public schools, six in institutions for mental defectives, two in Nursery Homes, and thirteen not at schools of any sort. Among the young adults there was one college student.

The Commission ~~is~~ was emphatic in urging that the education of blind children should be placed in the hands of the Department of Public Instruction, and the children guaranteed an education. Some more satisfactory method of caring for them ~~is~~ was imperative. Because of overcrowding, there ~~is~~ was frequently a waiting list at Overbrook; it ~~is~~ was also difficult to persuade parents to send young children to a boarding school. There were in Wilmington alone six children of school age receiving no formal instruction whatever.

Again in 1931-32 the Commission's Annual Report gives extended consideration to the problems of blind and partially blind children. According to the census, the group numbered fifty-five; only six of them were receiving special training at State expense, though four others were at special schools under private sponsorship. Seventeen were at public school, four at Stockley, Del., five "at home," seven listed as "not attending school," and one under school age.

This report contains the first detailed survey of the needs of partially sighted children in the State. Few of them are eligible for admission to schools for the blind; the Commission considers it unwise to enter even those few if any other provision can be made for them. Yet they cannot see well enough to do satisfactory work in regular classes -- they either flounder along, damaging their vision, and their health, and learning to accept failure and maladjustment as their natural fate, or are taken from school and allowed to grow up with no formal education at all. They constitute, in many ways, a more serious problem than the totally blind, for their number is many times as great; there were approximately four hundred such cases among the 40,000 school children in the State.

The Commission had tried during the year, unsuccessfully, to inaugurate sight-saving classes in city and rural public schools. Funds, however, were insufficient even to care for all the totally blind.

Responsibility for the education of all handicapped children should, the Commission felt, rest with the public school authorities. For the visually handicapped, there should either be Braille groups in the public day schools, or an appropriation large enough to care for all in residential schools with no delay. The Commission inclined toward the Braille classes, since they would meet the needs of those who see poorly, as well as the totally blind; would avoid the delay caused by insufficient State appropriations and by overcrowding at the special schools; would make it

unnecessary to send small children to boarding schools; and would keep visually handicapped children in a more normal environment.

The Report insistently repeats that an education to the limit of his capacity to profit by it is the right of every child, normal or not. For the handicapped, however, it becomes a matter of serious public importance, entirely aside from all personal considerations. In pleading their cause, the Commission repeats a chief argument of a century ago in defense of the regular public schools: Judge Willard Hall and his associates argued that sound community life on the American pattern is possible only if each citizen is sufficiently trained to make his full contribution to the public welfare -- that an educated man has more resources for personal satisfaction is fortunate, but so far as the State is concerned, not of the first importance. The friends of the blind point out that a mentally alert blind person, if he receives a sound education, can support himself as an adult and enrich the community with whatever gifts he may have; untrained, he remains an dependent all his life. Ordinary business prudence demands that he receive the education to which he is entitled; that ~~he~~ it will probably make him a happier person is an extra dividend on the investment.

The Report for 1931-32 is the last to offer any material about blind children other than that in the census.

In 1933-34 there were twenty-three blind children between one and eighteen years of age. Nine of them were at schools for the blind; three at Stockley, eight not

attending any school, and three under school age.

For 1935 the total is twenty-one; eight were at schools for the blind, eight at home not attending school, four in institutions for mental defectives, and one under school age.

One of the important activities of the Commission for the Blind from the very beginning has been supplying ~~read-ing material~~ books and magazines for those unable to read ordinary print. In fact, an effort which the Wilmington Institute Free Library made, without arousing much interest, to serve the blind was at least one of the factors leading to the Commission's organization.

~~It~~ The Commission maintains a collection of embossed books at the headquarters in Wilmington, available to readers in its reading room, by messenger, and by mail. It has, during the entire period of its existence, assumed responsibility for supplying readers for its books as well as books for its readers. Instruction in tactile reading has been a part of the regular program from the beginning.

To most people, the term embossed type means Braille, the system in which the letters are represented by tangible dots and points, somewhat in the manner of a telegraphic code. Few realize, however, that until 1932 English and American practice differed sufficiently to cause confusion and wasteful duplication, or that there is a completely different blind type, Moon, still in wide circulation. Moon is based on the ordinary characters, and is said to be somewhat easier for elderly people, or those with insensitive touch, to learn.

Though the work started in 1906 was the first to bear important fruit, it was not the first ever attempted. The sole mention of the adult blind in the years between 1835 and 1907 concerns a program for making books available to the blind. On February 13, 1873, the legislature granted $100 annually to the American Printing House for the Blind for the purchase, at cost, of books to be distributed free to the indigent blind. Whether the grant was ever actually paid, or if it was, for how long, and what became of the books so purchased, has not been discovered.

The Annual Report of the Wilmington Institute Free Library for 1906-1907 gives a detailed account of the beginning of modern work for the blind in Wilmington.

> "Early in 1906 circular letters were sent to the blind of the city offering to supply them with books in raised type. So few responses were made to these circular letters that the outlook for work with the blind was rather discouraging until Mr. Reginald Van Trump, himself blind, undertook to arouse interest in this work ..... in the spring of 1906 funds were provided for it. The home teacher ... has since June visited the homes of about 70 blind persons teaching them to read and to do some kinds of light manual labor. She has been very successful in teaching the blind to read, and the library has undertaken to supply books. Up to this time, the library has depended almost wholly on the Free Library of Philadelphia and the Pennsylvania Institution for the Blind for literature. From the first we have had books in Moon type and from the latter in American Braille. The main difficulty in the arrangement, however, is that books most needed here are the ones most needed elsewhere. It will soon be necessary to have our own books.
>
> "Through the kindness of the Bible Society of Wilmington, the library received as a gift 12 volumes of books of the New Testament in Moon type.
>
> "The circulation for the nine months since June was 151. Since November 1, it has averaged about 22 volumes per month. Miss Maull was in charge of the work."

During the early summer of 1907 Arthur L. Bailey, librarian of the Wilmington Institute Free Library, reported to the Ninth General Convention of the American Association of Workers for the Blind on the work that had been done in Wilmington. Much of his material is repeated in the Annual Reports of the library for 1906 and for 1907. The data on book circulation and the number of readers, however, is not available elsewhere.

> "In June 1906, the circulation was three volumes; in June 1907, the circulation was thirty. There are, at present, about thirty blind persons in Wilmington who read. Of these thirty only seven or eight read American Braille. --- I have learned since I left Wilmington that the city council has appropriated $250 a year to be expended by the free library in the interests of the blind. We shall use this money for the purchase of such books as we cannot borrow or beg from other libraries and institutions..."

The Annual Report of the Institute Free Library for 1907-1908 reports the $250 mentioned by Mr. Bailey, and continues:

> "This extra appropriation has enabled us to make several changes in the shelving so that we could give up one room for the use of the blind during the afternoon. Up to this time the room has been used very little by the blind, but it is hoped that with the coming of warmer weather and the return of the children from schools, the use of the room will be much greater."

For several months Miss Ward took the books from the library to blind readers; when her appointment as home teacher for the entire State called her out of town the greater part of the time the circulation of books dropped abruptly. The library felt it wise to employ a nearly blind man who was able to get about the city easily to restore the delivery service. With his assistance the circulation increased rapidly. For February 1908 it was

43 volumes, nearly double that of the preceding year. For the year, the circulation among the blind increased 198 volumes to a total of 349. The report concludes: "The appropriation from the city enabled us to buy a number of books in Braille and Moon and we are no longer dependent on other libraries for books."

In 1908-1909 the library reports a steady increase in the use of its raised type collection. With the cooperation of the home teacher, the circulation for the year had been raised from 349 to 492 volumes. Moon was by far the favorite type at this period, especially in Wilmington. The figures show 78 Braille books read in Wilmington, 27 in the State; 338 Moon books in town, 39 in the State; and miscellaneous types, 7 in town, 3 elsewhere. Books were still delivered to Wilmingtonians by messenger, and mailed to others throughout the State.

The appropriation had made it possible for the library to buy all books asked for by blind readers. The report continues:

> "It could buy many more were it not for the fact that so few interesting books in the type used are printed each year. Judging from other reports, this library, in proportion to its size, is doing more for the blind than most libraries in the country."

When the Blind Shop was established, the embossed books were transferred there. The Annual Report of the library for 1909-1910 states:

> "A slight increase in use of books for the blind can be reported. There were 183 volumes of American Braille and 337 volumes of Moon circulated, a total of 520 as compared with 492 last year. Early in the year the books were removed from the library and placed in the room established by the Delaware Commission for the Blind at 307 Delaware Ave. In this room they are well shelved

and there is ample room for readers to examine books before borrowing. As heretofore, books have been carried directly to the homes of blind readers unable to go for them. Although the books are in charge of the Commission for the Blind they remain the property of the library."

From 1909, the reports of the Commission for the Blind become the source for information about the growth and management of the library for the blind. In the first, we read that "most of the 135 who have come under the instruction of the home teacher are adults. -- Twenty-six now (1909) read embossed type, and are borrowers from the Free Library." The average circulation of books was thirty-three per month.

One of the earlier reports gives an additional sidelight on the need there was for a clearinghouse of information for and concerning the blind. The Mr. Van Trump referred to in Mr. Bailey's reports mentions that he had been blind for over two years before he quite accidentally learned that libraries for the blind existed. And he had not been an ignorant person out of contact with everything of an intellectual nature; he describes himself as having been "an active man of affairs."

The second report of the Commission -- dated 1913, and covering the activities since 1910 -- gives only the circulation of books for 1913, 567 volumes. Just how many <u>titles</u> this would represent is difficult to estimate; many novels of reasonable length are published in five to eight volumes in the embossed types.

For the next year the data is more complete. There were 105 titles in Moon type, besides several books of the Bible (each bound separately); in Braille, the collection numbered 220 titles. Both types offered a considerable variety of subject-matter -- classical prose and poetry, religion,

essays, history, a few then recent short stories, etc. There were not, of course, many titles of any one sort of literature, and the material to appeal to any given taste must have been severely limited. Nineteen readers provided a circulation of 648 volumes. In Wilmington, books were delivered by messenger; in the rural section they were mailed, under the franking privilege extended material intended for the blind.

In 1915 there were twenty-six readers. Twenty-seven new titles, nine Moon and eighteen Braille, were secured for the collection.

The 1916 Report is unusually complete. The Library, it states, was operated in connection with the Blind Shop, under the auspices of the Wilmington Institute Free Library. Books, as mentioned above, were delivered by mail outside the city, and by messenger after consultation with the reader, for those Wilmington residents who were unable to come to the library themselves. There were 415 titles in 772 volumes; distribution among the various styles was: Moon, 156 titles; American Braille, 206; English Braille, 23. For the six months just previous to the report, the circulation had been 280 volumes to approximately twenty-five readers throughout the State. Some of them, adds the report, had read every book in the collection several times.

This last somewhat pathetic note is clearly reflected in the circulation figures for the next year. In 1917, only 295 volumes circulated among a mere dozen readers. Apparently the blind people in the State who had sufficient interest to learn the embossed type were getting a bit bored

with reading the same collection of books till they were all but committed to memory. The library was in the process of being inventoried and catalogued when the report went to press. A printed catalogue for the use of those living at a distance was in preparation.

For 1918 the book circulation was 341 volumes to fourteen readers. By 1919, the number of readers had fallen to six, though the number of volumes read rose slightly to a total of 376. The figures suggest that there may have been one or two omnivorous and rapid new readers using the collection. The report for 1920 says of books only that the new catalogue was ready.

By 1921 the number of readers had risen again to twelve; the circulation was 376 volumes.

Again in 1922 the report concerning the library is very incomplete. It does mention, however, that the Commission hoped the Braille collection might be housed in the new public library building when that was completed. Such an arrangement, it felt, would give the blind an added normal contact, and call public attention to the need for liberal support of their library. The library staff, under the plan, would have to include a blind attendant to care for the Braille collection. It has not been learned why the idea was ~~not carried out~~ abandoned.

In 1923, twelve readers are reported in Wilmington, and six in the lower counties. The sketchy and poorly written 1924 report ignores the library completely. Throughout the records for all the early years are scattered reports of instruction given in the reading of embossed type, sometimes to groups, but more frequently to individuals in their homes.

When the Annual Reports were resumed in 1929 the library was still woefully inadequate. It contained only 1352 volumes about equally divided between the two styles of printing. This means, of course, ~~about~~ less than a third that many titles, and only half of them available to most individual readers. In other words, there were only about four hundred titles and these published in two distinct alphabets -- for the use of some two hundred and fifty people of all ages, conditions, and degress of intelligence and education. There were, in addition, twelve raised-type magazines. The city of Wilmington made an annual appropriation to this library through the Wilmington Institute Free Library. Braille classes form a regular part of the Commission's reported work from 1929-1935.

The report for 1931-32 shows a slight increase in the size of the collection; there were now 802 Braille volumes, 785 Moon, and 18 magazines. 192 volumes in Braille and 92 in Moon were recent acquisitions; among the magazines, 15 were in Braille and 3 in Moon.

In 1931 Congress provided for an annual appropriation of $100,000 to be spent to supply books, through the Librarian of Congress, for adult blind readers. Books might be obtained by mail from the large collections. The Government Printing Office, after considerable experiment, had perfected one-side printing in Braille, though satisfactory results with interpoint, i.e., printing on both sides, had not yet been achieved. Such printing has been done in some parts of the world; it is only a matter of time until the process can be adapted to the needs of the American blind.

Books in Braille will then be much less bulky and less expensive. All Moon type material is imported, since no machines for embossing it have been developed in this country.

In July 1932, the Braille system of writing was finally standardized. The previous lack of uniformity between English and American practice had caused tremendous confusion and waste.

In 1933-34 the library numbered 742 Braille volumes and 687 Moon. Twenty-six individuals had Talking Book reproducing machines. The report for 1935 shows no new accessions to the embossed type collections. There were then thirty owners of Talking Book reproducing machines; 59 Talking Book titles were available. (Talking Books are phonographic recordings of books with some claim to permanent interest. Some of them are recorded, in part, by their authors.) By 1939 the collection included 812 Braille and 788 Moon volumes.

The story of the library facilities for Delaware's blind readers is not complete without an account of the Red Cross Braille project. Nationally, the organization has for some time supplied instruction, quarters, and material for volunteers who agree to give a definite amount of time to copying current literature. The finished books form a collection similar to the one in the Library of Congress, and used on much the same terms. The Delaware chapter, however, has tried a different plan.

Here a WPA project, co-sponsored by the Red Cross and the Commission for the Blind, was set up. Instead of using part-time volunteers for transcription they employed qualified

blind workers on a full-time basis, with such readers and other sighted assistants as were needed. The Red Cross gave the use of a large room on the ground floor of its headquarters at 911 Delaware Avenue, Wilmington, and supplied the equipment and materials. Because the workers are paid, the National Red Cross library cannot accept the finished books on the usual basis. The Blind Commission receives part; the Red Cross, local and national, the remainder.

The group, when it was organized July 26, 1937, numbered twenty-one, thirteen blind transcribers and eight sighted employes, mostly readers. By mid-April of 1939 thirty-six people were with the project, two of them colored. Sixteen blind transcribers with a reader for each; a supervisor, a proofreader, someone to prepare copy for binding, and a janitor. Supervisors representing the three cooperating agencies are Ivan Culbertson, chairman of the Red Cross Braille committee; Mrs. Anne Rowe Stevens, superintendent of the Commission for the Blind; and Mrs. Rebecca Barclay, director of Women's and Professional Projects for WPA. In actual charge of the work are Miss McKenney, project supervisor, and Theodore Hall, at one time rural visitor for the Commission for the Blind in the lower counties, teacher and, when need arises, proofreader. These last two are included with the thirty-six employes. ~~The salary scale is $63.60 for transcribers and readers, $79.20 for proofreaders, and $86.40 for teachers.~~

In every interview they have given on the subject, Mrs. Stevens and Mr. Culbertson have emphasized the tremendous human value of the project to those engaged in it. ~~Several~~

~~present or former sighted members of the group have volunteered information for the preparation of this paper; almost without exception they have made some such comment as "You never saw such a change as having a job has made in some of these blind people. Those that came to the project miserable and hopeless have recovered their independence and their interest in life in a way you would scarcely believe was possible."~~ They all agree that for blind workers, regular employment at the wage paid anyone of the same professional rating has been a great factor in building morale. Many of the mature men and women (before the depression) had had work enough to support themselves, or at the very least supply them with money of their own for incidentals; since 1930 none of them had been employed at all. Others were young people who had come from school into a world that offered no market for their skill. Most WPA groups are recruited from these two classes; the only difference in the situation of the blind is that for them old opportunities disappeared sooner and new ones opened even more slowly than for ~~the rest of us.~~ the general population. The Commission for the Blind, struggling against both mechanical competition and the slump in the specialty trades in which many of its clients are engaged could not begin to find employment for all those able and anxious to work.

A page of Braille with ink-print equivalent arouses such universal curiosity even among well-informed readers that it seems safe to assume most of us know too little about raised-type writing to understand the project's work without some description of the process.

Though Braille can be printed from a master sheet that will make about 500 copies, the local transcription is hand work. Printing, of course, is faster, but the equipment is too expensive to make it practicable in serving so small a group of readers. (Only about one-fourth of Delaware's approximately three hundred blind read any raised type). The supervisors are continuing research in methods of printing, however, in the hope that eventually they will be able to introduce it.

Braille is a code, not simply a raised reproduction of ordinary letters. It is based upon the possible arrangements of a maximum of six dots in two rows of three each. Each symbol, ~~in the style used in the Wilmington work~~, is approximately 1/8 inch wide and 1/4 inch high -- it seems to fit the finger-tip remarkably well, and each ~~symbol~~, even to untrained fingers, stands out clearly. Letters and words are spaced as in ink-print, and about as far apart as in double-space typing. Thus, a is a single dot in the upper left-hand corner; e a slanted symbol formed by dots in the upper left and middle right-hand spaces; p dots in all left-hand spaces and one in the upper right, to give a few random examples. There are no special capitals; a single dot in the lower left space preceding a word indicates that its first letter is a capital, a double symbol that the entire word is in upper case. Numerals are indicated by the letters a to i preceeded by a numeral sign. Punctuation, a few common letter combinations, and, in foreign languages, accents, have characteristic symbols.

Because Braille, based on the arrangement of dots in small and somewhat intricate designs, demands greater precision

in spacing than is possible in free-hand work, it is written with the aid of a guide. This a perforated metal sheet whose openings are the exact size of the largest symbol, and are spaced properly for letters and lines, serving the same purpose as the spacing mechanism on a typewriter. Perforations can be made only in the standard positions. ~~The size required by the Wilmington work has three lines of thirty-seven "cells," or spaces, each.~~

When the transcriber is ready to start work, he places a sheet of very heavy, smooth-finish paper (similar to that used for manilla folders, but slightly lighter) face down against a wooden slate known as a stencil and clamps the guide over it. Because he is working on the reverse side of the sheet, he writes from right to left. "Write" is scarcely an accurate word to use in this connection; the symbols are made by pressing a stylus (a blunt metal tool resembling a pencil or a dull-pointed shoemaker's awl) through the cells of the guide against the paper. An easily tangible raised dot appears on the right side of the sheet. The completed copy is read, of course, from left to right like standard print.

Transcribers must have a command of Braille so perfect as to be automatic, for, as the reader dictates, he must copy absolutely without error. Since erasures are difficult and frequently ~~impossible~~, a flawed sheet ~~sheet with any flaw~~ is likely to be ruined. When a page is finished, it is read by the transcriber and then by a proofreader ~~the transcriber reads it back, the reader checking against the original. If they find it accurate, it is passed on to the proofreaders, who recheck, and discard imperfect copy. The full-time reader on the project is a sighted employe; the~~ Both blind and sighted proofreaders have at one time or another been employed.

~~teacher, Mr. Hall, who is blind, spends a portion of his time on proof.~~

Sheets which have been accepted are numbered, then coated, on the portion of the reverse side that contains the dots, with a mixture of shellac and alcohol. When they are dry, the dots have been filled, and made sufficiently firm to withstand extensive handling. A completed Braille book is at least as durable as an ink-print volume, though the sheets must be handled carefully to prevent tearing along the edge of the shellac. Finished sheets are laid away in boxes until the book is completed, when they are handed over to the binders.

Volunteers working directly under the Red Cross, in a room in their building, do the binding. There are more offers of assistance than the organization, with its limited space, can accept. The pages are punched for sewing as they are transcribed; when they reach the bindery, they are placed on a rack resembling an old-fashioned hand-loom, and sewed in five places with a very heavy waxed thread. Each individual sheet is apparently sewed to the next, for the book, at that stage, looks as if it were held together by five woven bands. Next a strip of cloth is pasted across the back, and the whole placed in a vise for approximately two days to insure a firm binding. Then a stiff cover is glued on and the book returned to its vise for another day. When it has been shellacked, it is ready for transfer to the library.

Braille books ~~have a title on the back in ordinary print; a typed title-page in the front so that friends unacquainted with the alphabet may examine and select books for blind readers unable to go to the library. For the convenience of~~ are made with both raised and ink-print titles on the binding, and with duplicate title-pages, so selections may be made by either sight or touch readers. The Braille title appears on a tape close to the binding instead of in the usual position, so that the bulky volume may be examined without removal from the shelf.

~~those who select their own reading matter, the title and volume of the book is written in Braille on a tape pasted on the front cover close to the binding. By this arrangement, a reader can simply pull the book~~ forward ~~an inch, run his finger down its length, and read the title without removing the book from the shelf.~~

Tangible type requires far more space than ordinary print, since the words and letters are spaced about as far apart as in double-space typing, and only one side of the sheet is used. For Braille, five to seven volumes are the approximate equivalent of one in ink-print. ~~The Delaware project uses~~ PK paper 11 by 11½ inches, making finished volumes about the height and width of an unabridged dictionary, and approximately half its thickness.

Size of Braille & Reader's dig.

Between August 1, 1937 and March 20, 1939, the project transcribed 53 short stories, most of them chosen from periodicals from popular periodicals ~~like Collier's, Saturday Evening Post, Red Book, and the widely circulated women's and children's Magazines~~, and 53 books, most of them current novels. Some well-known titles are: The Hurricane, Homing, The Citadel, Of Mice and Men, Life with Father, So Red the Rose, Coronet, The Fountain, Little Man, What Now, and The Delaware Guide. Dectective stories, other light fiction, and children's books are included in the list. Before the National Red Cross ruled that it could not accept transcription done by paid employes, 16 short stories had been shipped to the general collection.

The group, in other words, has transcribed some sixty volumes of ink-print during the first twenty months of its life. This means, of course, approximately three hundred

volumes of Braille. Anyone inclined to criticize this speed should glance back to the description of the process of making such books. An exceptionally rapid transcriber can copy a standard-length novel -- say The Hurricane, in three months. The slowest workers who can be certified for employment will take close to four and a half months for the same book. Most of the group, naturally, fall between these two extremes in speed. Braille transcription, by hand is, slightly slower than copying ordinary longhand. Actually making the characters takes about the same time; need for frequent, and absolutely accurate, readjustment of the guide slows Braille work to the point where a very rapid transcriber can complete a page in about the time an average longhand copyist would take, while the merely competent Braille worker requires as long as an unusually slow writer. with ink.

A good comparison of the normal difference between Braille and newsprint costs is afforded by Readers Digest, which is published in both types. The magazine has as close to a mass circulation as is possible for a Braille periodical, so it can do the work by methods that, given a large volume, are cheaper than hand transcription. It enjoys the franking privilege for its Braille issues, and distributes them at cost. The standard edition, (including postage and the publisher's and distributors profit) sells for $3.00 yearly, the Braille for $10.00.

The catalogue of Braille books in Wilmington, summarized previously in this paper, affords another index of the value of the work this project is doing. In the thirty years between 1905 and 1935, the Wilmington Institute Free Library coopera-

ting with the Commission for the Blind was slowly building a collection of raised-type books. During most of this time, City Council appropriated either $500 or $1,000 annually. By 1935, the last year for which figures are available, they had acquired only about 1,500 volumes, i.e., the equivalent of 300 standard volumes. ~~The Braille transcription project has added in eighteen months almost exactly one-sixth as many titles as had been accumulated over the preceding thirty years, i.e., about five times' normal accession.~~

The project, besides offering needed employment, has become the nucleus for a social organization among its blind members. A club meets in the Red Cross auditorium every two weeks for music, dancing, and refreshments. Though the blind workers initiated it, and hold all offices, sighted employes are invited to attend the meetings, and most of them do. A swimming class for women employees on the project, arranged by the Red Cross and Y.W.C.A., revealed that the blind ~~made faster progress~~ learned this skill faster than the average sighted group. They have the use of a bowling alley ~~on Wednesdays~~ weekly. ~~Last~~ During ~~year~~ one season the Red Cross invited the women to take its home hygiene course; all accepted, and earned ~~their~~ certificates. The organization has also obtained from all local motion picture theatres passes for the blind ~~people engaged on~~ members of the project. ~~They find the movies intelligible from dialogue alone, and a delightful source of diversion.~~

~~During the spring months of 1939,~~ From time to time Mr. Hall has spoken on the work of the project before many school groups in Wilmington, and to other organizations in the State interested in the problems of the blind.

~~In its two years of existence~~ The Braille group has provided a sizable collection of new books for the blind of the State. It has given work, and new hope and independence to from twelve to sixteen blind people, as well as work for an equal or slightly greater number of sighted employes. In its Annual Report for 1936-37, the Delaware Chapter of the American Red Cross says of the work: "A Federal Braille project sponsored by Red Cross and Blind Commission, housed and supervised by American Red Cross, including furnishing of materials, is one of the longest strides forward that has been made in the work for Delaware blind." In view of the value of the work both to those who rely on the limited Braille library for their reading, and to those, blind and sighted alike, who do the copying, the claim does not seem extravagant.

In addition to its more easily classified activities, the Commission for the Blind has been a welfare agency for the blind and partially blind of the State. In the early years, the home teacher made periodic visits to all known cases, even when nothing more than occasional diversion for a shut-in could be offered. The 1921 report, however, indicates that this plan had been abandoned as too expensive for the rehabilitation it accomplished. Instead, a blind man was employed as canvasser in the lower counties to make a census, and revisit only those cases where the Commission could render real service. The same work was done in New Castle through the Blind Shop, much of it with the help of resident blind people.

Some of the incidental activities undertaken at various times have been: provision of medical care and drugs for the blind or those threatened with blindness; payment of tuition for children for whom the State was unable to provide immediately; care of a blind baby until State appropriations were available, and supervision of training of

others; provision of a home for various orphan children during vacations; obtaining proper braces for a crippled blind boy; preventive work with partially blind people, particularly children. These are only a few of the more striking items included in the reports.

The Delaware Commission for the Blind avoids public solicitation of funds. Its work is carried on through State appropriations, proceeds from sale of products, a small income from an estate willed it, and voluntary donations. Only one exception is made to this policy; at Christmas contributions are asked for a special fund. Originally this supplied gifts and entertainment for resident workmen at the Blind Shop; since none of the employes now live at this center, the fund is spent for food, clothing, coal, or other necessities as gifts for some seventy blind clients of the Commission.

Of the management of the Blind Shop residential quarters, the Commission wrote in 1921, and repeated verbatim in 1930: "Particular care is taken to avoid institutionalism. No set rules are laid down, but the men are required to act as gentlemen and conduct themselves in a respectable and industrious manner, as would be expected of them in any respectable residential club. There is no class or race distinction. A democratic organization is maintained at all times and it is the studied rule of the management to give full hearing and impartial decision on complaints from all the men." Though none of the men now live at the Shop, the passage above has been quoted as indicative of the Commission's attitude toward those who use its facilities.

Among the services the Commission performed for partially blind public school children were payment of hospital expenses, transportation to clinics, and provision of glasses for those whose families were unable to do so. Funds for work of this type have been depleted, and

the service diminished.

Since 1935, the Commission has not published any Annual Reports because it feels the money can be used to so much greater advantage elsewhere. Delaware is the only state which (with Alaska) has no Blind Assistance Act; consequently the Commission has gradually been forced to assume for its clients the sort of responsibilities the Family Society, Children's Aid, and similar organizations handle for other special groups. It has supplemented the inadequate old age pension allowances the State makes--some of them as little as $5.00 a month. It has helped elderly people who were destitute while they waited to become eligible for pension or until payments began after application. It has kept families or individuals from distress while relief applications were pending. Services of this type, not part of the Commission's original function, have taxed its resources.

The Blind Shop serves as something of a social center for all blind in and near the city. Music and cards are provided in the social rooms, and smoking is permitted. Radio and phonograph furnish additional means of diversion. Many of the Commission's clients have musical ability. Frequent parties and entertainments are held there at which all blind people are welcome. Of recent years, there have parties with dancing about once a month, except in the summer. All such entertainment is paid for by private funds of the commission.

Efforts to provide occasional trips and out-of-town vacations for blind residents of Delaware has been a rather recent development. In 1920, the Commission planned a picnic to a beach on Chesapeake Bay, and followed it with another the next year. There is no reference to other outings in the earlier series of reports. In 1930, Mr. and Mrs. Irenee du Pont set aside a piece of land on a farm they owned as a

camp and placed it at the disposal of the Commission for the Blind. The experiment proved very successful, and has become a regular part of the Commission's service to its clients. The tract, known as Camp Landis, is on Center Meeting Road, off Kennett Pike; it is accessible, but well away from the main traffic arteries. It is now provided with sleeping quarters, dining room, accommodations for the staff, and with walks marked with guide ropes so the guests can safely wander about at will. Every year since 1930, every eligible blind person in the State has been offered a sixteen-day vacation there as the Commission's guest. The group employed at the Red Cross Braille project goes to Camp as a body so that they may enjoy a country vacation and at the same time continue their work.

Guests are invited in groups that are likely to be congenial, and care is taken to provide entertainment.

Annually between 1914 and 1922 the Commission sponsored concerts by blind musicians; the proceeds were in some instances assigned to the building fund. Until 1919 the concerts were held at the New Century Club; the last three took place in the Playhouse.

During the first months of 1939 the Delaware Commission for the Blind sponsored a series of broadcasts over WDEL, the local station. One concerned the literature available in raised types; another, in which Dr. Francis Cummings of the Overbrook faculty and a Delaware student of the school took part, described something of the curriculum for blind students, and their outside activities. Others have reported upon various phases of the Commission's ~~activities~~ work.

A brief summary of the accomplishment of the Commission for the Blind during its thirty years of official life shows an impressive record, achieved with smaller per capita appropriations than most similar organizations receive, and without public solicitation of funds.

Its problem has been complicated in recent years by the simultaneous shrinkage in its independent income and in opportunities for employment of the people it serves, and by increased need among them. Absence of an assistance act has in addition thrown upon the Commission the entire burden of clients who need financial help and are not immediately eligible for relief or old-age pensions sufficient for their needs. In order to meet these urgent demands, other desirable activities have had to be curtailed.

The Commission for the Blind has been constantly active in preventing blindness among children, and in securing proper education for those who have lost their sight. It makes special effort to have blind babies carefully trained from infancy. It has only recently succeeded in obtaining tuition for all children of school age who do not have some additional handicap.

It has supervised the instruction and training of adults, and sought employment for its able-bodied clients. When the Commission first introduced industrial training among the blind some three decades ago, there was not a single self-supporting blind person in the State. Since the rehabilitation program has been in full operation, approximately ten percent of the blind have, in normal times, been employed at some full-time occupation. A much greater proportion contribute to their own support. The figures are especially impressive when one recalls that about a quarter of the blind are aged people, and that even the employable age groups include those with other handicaps.

The Commission secures work for its clients in a variety of ways. Some it employs directly; others it teaches suitable occupations which they can follow independently. It constantly emphasizes that a well-educated blind person is frequently a competent workman, employable

in private business. Jointly with the American Red Cross it has for two years sponsored a Braille project which has given work to from twelve to sixteen blind transcribers in addition to the sighted personnel.

The Commission's library provides a diversified collection of reading material in the two major raised types in use. About a quarter of the State's blind read.

The Commission has from the beginning included a yearly census of the blind as part of its necessary activity.

It has functioned as a welfare agency, considering itself responsible for protecting its clients' interests in every situation where it could possibly help.

The headquarters of the Commission has long served as a social center for the blind residents of Wilmington and vicinity. Since 1930 it has directed a summer camp at which, through the gift of Mr. and Mrs. Irenee du Pont, it has been able to offer every eligible blind person in the State a two weeks vacation as its guest.

It has undertaken to supply the public with accurate information about the needs, the problems, and the activities of the blind through its own reports, newspaper releases, and, more recently, through a series of radio broadcasts.

It has constantly repeated that the blind resent being objects of pity or charity. Invalids and the aged among them require assistance just as do sighted individuals in a similar situation. The rest ask only an opportunity to learn and follow some satisfactory occupation. The Commission has tried to meet the needs of both groups.

It has pleaded the cause of its clients before the legislature whenever occasion has arisen, and is responsible for making all necessary reports concerning their affairs to other governmental agencies.

Before 1921, when the Delaware Training School was opened at Stockley, the Commission was the only agency in the State charged with supervision of handicapped children. It is still legally responsible for the supervision of deaf and feeble-minded pupils at institutions outside the State, though other organizations have in practice assumed the obligation. During its earlier years it was instrumental in obtaining better care for all types of handicapped young people. More recently its present superintendent, Mrs. Anne Rowe Stevens, served as chairman of the Committee on the Handicapped of the Delaware White House Conference on Child Health and Protection. Since 1930 it has urged that all handicapped children be provided for in the regular public schools, and was one of the vigorous backers of the act passed in 1939.

At the present time, the most conspicuous needs for Delaware's blind residents are a blind assistance act and a slight-saving program for partially sighted children in the public schools.

The Deaf

Provision of some sort for education of deaf ~~mute~~ children at public expense dates back nearly a century; at some periods it was more nearly adequate for them than for the blind and other handicapped groups. They have never, however, received the care that the simplest business prudence demands.

An early report of the Commission for the Blind, discussing the general problem of rehabilitation, remarks that children ~~deaf~~ deprived of hearing from infancy are harder to educate than the blind, but that their handicap as adults is less, once they have learned the secret of language. Neglected, they are far more completely isolated, for they do not understand what language is, and can communicate only the most elementary ideas. An untrained deaf child appears little above an imbecile, ~~Many, when they have learned to understand speech, to speak and to read, are entirely normal or even brilliant; previously they had appeared little above imbeciles.~~ though the majority of children so handicapped prove mentally normal when the problem of communication is solved, and occasional gifted individuals are found among them.

Delaware until recently never educated more than half of its ~~totally~~ deaf children, and still does not make provision for all. Every ~~one of these~~ such person ~~untrained~~ ~~persons~~ who grows up without schooling represents a financial liability, either to his family or community, as long as he lives, and there is the added possibility that he may possess a fine mind that might have made a real contribution to the life of his time. ~~Besides,~~ There is also the chance that he may grow into a bewildered, bitter, and thwarted adult who will be an actual menace to those with whom he comes in contact.

Like the partially blind, the hard of hearing have until very recent years received no public consideration whatever.

Fortunately, the work done in the State since 1929 by the Delaware School for Deaf Children, Inc., activities of the State and the Wilmington divisions of special education, and legislation passed in 1939 charging the Department of Public Instruction with the education of seriously handicapped children promises a better future for both the ~~totally~~ deaf and the hard of hearing.

No contemporary accounts of early activity in behalf of Delaware's deaf children have been found. On February 20, 1841, a law identical to the one that had been passed six years earlier for the blind was entered on the statutes.

It provided that deaf-mutes of the State whose families were unable to pay their tuition might attend at State expense the Pennsylvania School for the education of the Deaf and Dumb. No more than two pupils from each county might attend at one time, the maximum term was five years, and the total tuition which the State might pay for all deaf children was $1000 annually.

Four years after the act became law, a committee of the State House of Representatives reported that three deaf-mutes were being supported by the State at the Pennsylvania school at $160 per year each. It asked that the training period be lengthened to six years, since the five that had proved sufficient for the blind was not quite enough for the deaf. Apparently no action resulted from the report. In 1853 the statutes for both groups of defectives were combined into a single law, and the Governor was authorized to extend the terms to eight years if the principal of the special school recommended it. ~~for~~ any particular child. Three from each county might be cared for at a maximum total tuition to each school of $1,400.

In 1865 the maximum appropriation to each school was raised to $1,800. The following year a special law for deaf-mutes alone provided that New Castle county might have an additional quota of two deaf children above its normal allotment of three defective students. Total tuition for deaf children in the State was set at $2,300.

No further change occurred until 1875, when the Governor was permitted to enter any suitable Delaware students at any school for

the deaf or blind. This was probably to enable colored children to receive training at special schools for them which were being opened.

~~The~~ Early American schools for the deaf taught ~~the children~~ their pupils through signs, with no attempt at lip reading and speech training.

For eighteen years the legal basis of care for the deaf remained unchanged, but in 1893 two new provisions concerning them became law. The president of the board of trustees of Farnhurst was directed to visit the schools which enrolled Delaware's deaf children and report to the Governor on the school's management and the progress students were making. On April 5 of the same year, the law was amended to allow deaf children to be tutored at home by the oral method if the parents preferred and if the cost was no more than that of sending them away to school. The county superintendent of schools was to have general supervision over the education of any children so trained. This is the only instance before 1925 in which the regular school authorities were given any responsibility for handicapped pupils. Not until the spring of 1939 were they given full charge of all such young people.

In 1899, the optional term which might be granted students who were doing good work was increased to five years, i.e., deaf children might receive ten years' schooling at public expense. In 1907 they were at last given the right to a full twelve-year course at public expense. After that date, no ~~further~~ legislation, ~~except~~ other than appropriations for tuition, appears on the statute books concerning the deaf, until 1939.

A very incomplete census of the deaf children educated at public expense may be drawn up from legislative journals prior to 1909, and from the Reports of the Commission for the Blind after that date.

1845 - 3 deaf-mutes at Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf. One of them, Mary E. Messick, had been admitted in 1842.

1861 - 9 deaf-mutes at school, 7 at Pennsylvania Institution, 2 at Columbia Institute in Washington, D. C.

1876 - 9 deaf-mutes at school.

1878 - 5 deaf-mutes at school.

1879 - 5 deaf-mutes at school.

1883 - 11 deaf-mutes at school.

1901 - 13 deaf-mutes at school.

1903 - 12 deaf-mutes at school.

1904 - 14 deaf-mutes at school.

Such figures mean little unless one knows how many residents of school age there were who should have received ~~such~~ special training. No evidence has been found to indicate that anyone had the slightest idea how many people there were in the State with sensory handicaps until the Commission for the Blind made a census in 1912. They found 157 deaf; of these, 16 were infants, 62 children of school age, 55 adults of working age, and 24 aged. Of the 78 deaf children, only 15 were enrolled in special schools. There is nothing to indicate whether any additional children were being tutored at home at public expense. The Commission's Report comments indignantly on the neglect that was the lot of most blind or deaf young people. (Results of later surveys indicated that these figures must have included both ~~totally~~ deaf and seriously hard-of-hearing children.)

Though it was part of the Commission's business to search year by year for new blind cases, to persuade the parents to let the child go away to school, and to hound the legislature, for money to meet

tuition bills, and the Governor's office, to issue warrants for school admission, no one performed a similar service for the deaf. As a result, while the proportion of blind children receiving proper instruction increased rapidly, the number of deaf at school remained almost constant over the years covered by the Commission for the Blind censuses--about one in four of the known cases. If parents, through pride (the law contained, until April 1939, the word "indigent" in its provision for handicapped students), unwise affection, or sheer ignorance of the possibilities, kept a deaf child at home untaught - that, apparently, was considered their own affair. The fact that, because of his inability to communicate normally with others, he was likely to have little more resources for personal development or self-support than an imbecile, though he might be perfectly normal or even brilliant mentally, did not seem to make the matter of any great public concern.

The number of deaf children at school or otherwise instructed for the year 1914-1922 ranges from twelve to fifteen annually. For 1923 no figures are available. By 1924, the number had, for some unexplained reason, fallen to nine. From 1924 to 1929-30, the Commission for the Blind made no formal reports. When they resumed publication in the latter year, they included no data concerning the deaf or feebleminded. Dr. Wallin's summaries of his division's activities in the Annual Reports of the Department of Public Instruction for 1933-1938 supply indicative, but not complete, figures for the deaf for some of the last six years.

In 1933, basing his assumption upon their proportion in the general population of the country as reported to the 1932 White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, he estimated that there were in the State 32 ~~totally~~ deaf children and 540 hard of hearing. Samplings

made in visits to 123 schools of all sizes in 1933-34 confirmed the previous estimates based upon statistical probability, though they gave no complete census.

"Indigent deaf-mutes," as noted above, might since 1841 be trained in schools outside the State--provided, of course, their parents knew about the provision, were willing to declare themselves paupers, realized the difference an education would make to the youngsters, and would send them to boarding school young enough to be easily teachable; and provided again that they were not unlucky enough to be just a little younger than several other deaf-mutes from the same county who had already been admitted to fill the quota. From 1893, they might be tutored at home, merely substituting for the objection to residential schools for small children the pious hope that a teacher could be found. Assuming that the estimate of thirty-two ~~totally~~ deaf children as the normal number for Delaware is correct, never more than half the cases in the State were being cared for in the years between 1900 and 1924. No figures are available for later dates. A clipping from the Wilmington Evening Journal for November 3, 1937, tells of a deaf-~~mute~~ girl in Wilmington who had reached the age of fifteen without instruction. Her name had been for two years on a waiting list for school admission. The problem, obviously, has not been solved.

The ~~totally~~ deaf were completely outside the jurisdiction of the State division of special education until April 1939. There was little Dr. Wallin's department could do even for the hard of hearing enrolled in the regular classes, once it had determined that they were numerous and widely scattered through the districts, until funds were available for an audiometer and for traveling teachers of lip-reading.

In 1936, it obtained the audiometer as a gift from the Junior

League of Wilmington. Use of this instrument, a device for measuring hearing upon a carefully constructed scale, offers several advantages over other methods. It is quick, since as many as forty may be tested simultaneously; it is accurate and standardized; anyone familiar with the technique knows at a glance the exact condition of a person from whom he has a report. Because it measures changes in hearing ability impossible to detect otherwise, it frequently reveals serious infections while they are still curable. This is particularly true when a series of tests indicates gradually decreasing sensitivity. ~~Likewise it shows physicians, without any dangerous delays, how cases under treatment are responding.~~

During the two school years 1936-1938, 17,780 children were tested. (This is slightly more than one-third the total registration.) Among them were 117 who needed instruction in lip-reading immediately if their school progress and their economic efficiency as adults were not to be endangered. In addition, there were 217 other less urgent cases whom such training would benefit.

No teachers of lip-reading had been employed when the Report for 1937-38 was published, since no funds were available. Reports on all children with subnormal hearing had, however, been made both to teachers and to parents. Teachers, knowing a disability, could take special care to seat a child to the best advantage and see that he really understood what was happening in the classroom. Parents were advised to give him immediate medical care.

Though certain of the schools failed to make use of the survey, and some parents, because of indifference or poverty, ignored the recommendations, the department felt that the accomplishment of these first two years was most encouraging. Many teachers found

that seating changes and a little special attention to their needs worked amazing changes in seemingly stupid and indifferent children whose real trouble was partial deafness. Reports of medical examination were not complete, although they indicated that more than a third of the cases for which data was available had been taken to a physician, and that more than half the treated cases showed noticeable improvement in hearing.

Audiometer tests were continued during 1938-39 in Wilmington and State schools. The table below shows the number and results of such tests:

Location	Number Tested	Short 9 Sensation-Units or More		Recommended for Lip-Reading	
		No.	Percentage	Urgent	Desirable
Wilmington	3073	223	7.3	46	64
State Schools	6191	261	4.2	47	76
Totals	9264	484	11.5	93	140

Follow-up of cases showing nine units or more of deficiency on 1937-38 reports show that definite use is being made of results in all the sections of the school system. The results follow:

Results of Follow-up with Auditorially Handicapped Children

Location	Cases Reported 1937-38	Still attending 1938-39	Given Favorable Seating	Given Ear Examination	Given Ear Nose & Throat Treatment	Show Improvement after Treatment
Wilmington	116	89	84	30	32	22
Special districts	153	126	84	47	26	10
State Board	194	145	139	20	17	11
Totals	463	360	307	97	75	43

The public schools, in other words, had by the spring of 1939 obtained a reasonably complete survey of the problem of hard-of-hearing children enrolled. They knew that there were over 200 boys and girls seriously in need of speech reading instruction and about 500 who would profit by such training. They had succeeded in starting a comprehensive testing program, which had resulted in a significant fraction of the total registration of partially deaf children receiving a physician's care. They still needed a 6A audiometer for further examination of those with serious hearing handicaps, in order to correctly assign them either to speech-reading classes or to a special school for the deaf. The Division of Special Education had repeatedly, though futilely, urged the formation of speech-reading classes. In Wilmington, this would require only the appointment of a teacher.

The term "speech-reading" is used throughout this section in place of the more familiar " lip-reading" because of its greater accuracy. A good reader watches the entire upper portion of a speaker's body, particularly his entire face, and can often understand what he says even though his lips are completely hidden. One observer saw a group of small children, none of them over eight, understand conversation under such conditions, when they had some idea of its trend. Older and more experienced readers can frequently decipher remarks unwary companions are deliberately trying to conceal from them. Lip-reading is obviously a misnomer.

Education of totally deaf children remained under the trusteship of the Judges of the Superior Court, to be paid for from the special fund in the Governor's hands, until April 1939. Until 1929, all such

children were sent out of the State to school, usually to Philadelphia or Washington, since there was no school, public or private, for them in Delaware. Tuition and board amounted to approximately $700 annually for each child so educated; the available fund was small--ranging from $11,250 to $20,666 yearly between 1924 and 1937 for the deaf and the blind together - and the waiting lists were long. Two or three years was a normal interval between application and placement. Meanwhile the deaf child grew up without any knowledge of language. Many of the Delaware children finally enrolled in special schools were from ten to thirteen years old before they began their education, far past the age when language is easily learned; forced to begin their training at the nursery school level when they should have been in the upper elementary grades or junior high school. They remained gravely retarded. As has been mentioned, the majority never entered at all, some because they could not be placed until they were already too old to learn, others because their parents would not part with them or did not know that schooling could be obtained. So they grew up unable to read or to understand speech.

From time to time prior to 1928, Miss Margaret S. Sterck, a teacher in a Pennsylvania state school for training deaf children, had come in contact with neglected deaf young people from Delaware. She was already considering trying to establish a school for them in Wilmington, when, late in 1928, the parents of a deaf three-year old appealed to her for assistance in educating him. Investigation had already shown them that he certainly would not be placed in school before he was six or seven, and possibly not before he was ten. They realized, however, that he needed training at once, and left no stone unturned to get it for him.

In connection with this case, conferences were held with Governor Buck and Superior Court Judge Herbert L. Rice, both of whom became interested in the possibility of opening a day-school for the deaf in Wilmington. In February 1929, the Governor notified Miss Sterck that if she could assemble a group of seven eligible students, the State could appoint her their tutor. The seven pupils were easily located. Though the financial arrangements did not work out as the sponsors had expected, it was possible to secure four State tuitions. This was done by transferring two boarding pupils, one from Mt. Airy, one from another school in Philadelphia, to the new school. Their parents were delighted to have them at home, and their board paid the day-school rates for two more children who would otherwise have remained on the waiting list a few years longer.

By September, 1929, organization had been completed. Miss Sterck opened her school in a room in the parish house of Grace Church with seven children in attendance. The difference between the actual expenses of the venture and the four tuitions granted by the State she met from her own funds and what private assistance she was able to obtain.

The first year of operation proved that the institution could be maintained. Before the second season opened, Miss Sterck bought a house at 1414 Van Buren St., and equipped it as a permanent school, eventually incorporated under the name of the Delaware School for Deaf Children.

From the beginning the intention was to establish a training center for the type of pupils who under normal circumstances would attend public schools. The school was organized upon the premise that it was properly a unit of the general educational system. Though it was, and still is, a private institution, every effort has been made

to build it on a permanent foundation, and make it as independent as possible of any one person or group. From the beginning, it has received the major part of its income from public funds. In only two instances, have parents paid tuition. Within the limitation of available space, children have been accepted and arrangements for payment of expenses worked out afterwards.

Chief among the school's private sponsors has been the Junior League of Wilmington, which became interested in the project in 1930. It has paid some of the tuitions not provided by public funds, has furnished hot lunches for all children, and automobile transportation to and from school for about half of them. Church groups have from time to time been interested, and have paid one or two tuitions, as well as offering other assistance. The institution, however, has not received extensive private support.

Enrollment has steadily increased. In 1930-31 there were eight students; in 1932-33, ten; 1933-34, thirteen; 1934-35, fifteen; 1935-36, fifteen; 1936-37, seventeen; 1937-38, eighteen; 1938-39, eighteen. Fourteen of the eighteen enrolled during the past two years have been state-tuition pupils. In addition to the regular enrollment of pupils whose hearing defect causes failure to acquire speech normally, there have been a few special students who needed assistance only in comprehension. Two such came to the attention of the Federal Writers' during the preparation of this paper. One was a hard-of-hearing child, attending school in her own community, who was brought in by her parents one day a week for instruction in speech reading so that she would not become retarded. The other was a child who lost her hearing after she had entered the upper grades, and who, after a years' attendance at the school for the deaf, was restored to ~~her normal grade~~ class in a public school. It is for children of this sort that the Division

of Special Education of the public schools has been making every effort to provide. The age-range, during 1938-39, was from two-and-a-half to sixteen years, with most of the students under twelve. The feebleminded deaf cannot learn in classes for those of normal ability, and must be excluded; otherwise the enrollment, in home background and ability, represents a complete cross-section of the ordinary public school population.

The main objectives of the school are to teach these boys and girls to communicate satisfactorily with others through spoken and written language, to help them fit into the normal social pattern as they mature, and to open every possible channel for natural contacts and for self-expression. Unless the student has some other defect in addition to deafness, he can usually join a class for hearing children in the junior high grades and continue with them to any level his intelligence warrants.

Of the twenty-one individuals who have been enrolled, five have been so transferred. Two of them return to the Delaware School for Deaf Children for additional help during the afternoon session. All five have been able to adjust themselves to an ordinary school environment, and are readily accepted by their hearing companions. Two more pupils are registered in regular classes for September, 1939.

It has not yet proved feasible to provide for all the deaf children of the State at the school in Wilmington, but the sponsors hope eventually to do so. The out-of-town students who have attended to date have been boarded in carefully selected foster homes so that they will not be deprived of the advantages of family life in their formative years. The school makes every effort to keep its students free of any taint of institutionalism, and feels that normal home life and constant association with hearing people are a vitally important

factor in their education.

The Delaware School for Deaf Children occupies an ordinary dwelling in a residential section of Wilmington. Its atmosphere is that of a simple, tasteful home planned to give its occupants both beauty and service.

On the ground floor there are, besides an entrance hall that serves as an office, three rooms used for school purposes. The largest, bare except for a piano, one or two chairs, shelves and a large music-rack, does duty as a gymnasium and a practice-room for the rhythm band. Behind it is a class-room equipped for the tiny children. Anyone acquainted with the usual furnishings for pre-school and first-grade work knows what it looks like: desks and tables designed for three-to-six-year-old children, plenty of attractive pictures to illustrate the topic under discussion, lots of space and light. Since the children remain at school for lunch, there is an attractive dining-room, with furnishings of the right size for each age-group. As in most nursery schools, each child has his own facecloth, towel, tooth brush and drinking cup which he is taught to use and care for without assistance.

Upstairs there are three more classrooms, furnished to meet the needs of children in the various elementary grades. In all of them, good lighting, a wealth of visual instruction materials, and an atmosphere of informality are the factors that impress a visiting teacher. A large room on the second floor is reserved for the little children's afternoon naps.

The only unfamiliar articles of classroom equipment are the hearing aids connected with each desk. There are two types in use at the school, one based on bone conduction, the other on air amplification.

The receiver of the first type resembles a telegrapher's headphone, the other a miniature radio amplifier of the old-fashioned detached sort.

The children admitted to this school as regular students are all classified as totally deaf, either congenitally or as a result of illness in infancy. Very few individuals so classified, however, are totally insensible to sound at every possible pitch and frequency. Small areas of sensation remain which can be stimulated.

Children with the very least evidence of hearing can, through drills with the hearing aids, achieve a better sense of rhythm, and some idea of the changing pitch and intensity of the tones in music and speech. During the first year the aids were in use, 1935, at a time when there were fifteen children enrolled in the school, Miss Sterck stated that she had not found one who did not have some remnant of hearing somewhere in the scale of audible tone.

Some of the children become sound conscious, that is, they actually hear music and speech to a certain extent when it is properly amplified, and can know, from their own experience, the sensations connected with some, at least, of the sound phenomena. Children with deafness of this degree cannot hear ordinary sound, or use the portable hearing aids available for the hard of hearing. They can, however, learn to use their own voices far more normally than can those who must rely on vibration and sight alone as guides in speech. Though they cannot hear under ordinary conditions, they understand what others are talking about when they refer to subjects connected with sound, and so increase the range of normal contacts. The hearing they do attain adds to their store of pleasant recollections and gives richer meaning to the experiences of everyday life.

Occasionally a child apparently totally deaf actually has sufficient

hearing to permit him, as he approaches maturity, to pass into the class of the extremely hard of hearing able to use ordinary mechanical aids if he has received careful training during his childhood. Cases of this sort represent in no sense a cure of deafness. They mean simply that the child has learned to interpret every faint auditory sensation that does reach him, and that, having learned to attach meaning to sound, he notices more and more impulses that are barely perceptible to him. Without the most intensive training in speech reading, and ~~the~~ field in association of sound with ideas he is already familiar with through sight, touch, and vibration, he could never derive any benefit from the genuinely useful degree of hearing he retains.

Constant effort is made to reach the children through sound and all receive instruction involving use of the hearing aids. The teachers use the aids as occasion arises during ordinary lessons, and definite periods are set aside in each day's schedule for listening to music or speech. No effort is made to force activity of this sort, and the least sign of fatigue or boredom is the signal to stop, since the concentration required is considerable, and for the best results every response connected with hearing should be a pleasurable one. Those who never become conscious of sound as such receive definite benefit from exercises designed to emphasize the rhythm, and the variations of frequency and volume that characterize music and speech.

The air amplification equipment used in this work resembles a combination electric phonograph and radio. Each child can tune his individual receiver for volume and frequency according to his own needs. The instrument provides tremendous amplification, and must be used in quiet surroundings, since it picks up and amplifies the slightest vibration from any source.

In a demonstration of the results achieved by hearing aids, an easy song is played on the phonograph. The children listen with every evidence of interest, while the verse is played, and then join eagerly in the chorus. Their timing, inflection, and articulation show that they have heard the song as well as seen and felt it. One child had mastered ~~not only the words, but~~ the rudiments of the tune as well the words.

This represents, of course, the result of months and years of training. When work of this sort is introduced, the words of a nursery rime or simple song are placed before the children on a large chart which they can read as they listen. As the record is played, the teacher repeats the words, the children intently watching her lips, and reading in unision with her and the instrument. Gradually, word by word, they come to connect the sound they hear with the word they recognize when they see it spoken or written. Anyone who knows the difference between learning to pronounce a new foreign word by phonetics alone, and from hearing it correctly and frequently spoken, will realize how much more clearly and confidently these deaf children speak words they have habitually heard in their drills than those they learn only by sight.

As a test to determine whether a child actually does hear, or whether he is merely responding to vibration, coupled with very accurate speech reading, the teacher, with her face hidden from view, speaks a series of easily distinguishable vowel sounds into the microphone. If the child can repeat them accurately, in any order they are given, he must hear them. Once the fact of hearing acute enough to permit the repetition of sounds is established, the children start working with greetings and similar brief, frequently used phrases.

With the exception of a very few words used for practice in articulation, this sort of exercise is so arranged that the child gives a response to the question he hears, rather than repeat the phrase in order to discourage the habit many deaf people form of repeating anything said to them. These children are trained to be sure they are right, or take the chance of being wrong, rather than develop the mannerism.

Various games have been arranged to offer practice in listening and giving accurate responses. Cards with pictures of various objects are distributed. As an object is named the child reciting points to it. On some of the more advanced sets, objects whose names contain similar vowel or consonant combinations appear, and the child must learn to distinguish between them. Another game is to place the names of familiar animals on the blackboard, numbered. The teacher names the animal and the children respond with its number. A variation of the same procedure is to have the characteristic cry of familiar animals imitated, until someone recognizes it and responds with its name. A child with good articulation may act as broadcaster for this exercise. It is considered very desirable for the young people to hear each others' voices as well as those of adults.

Some of the children have learned to understand sentences and questions from sound alone, and reply easily to a routine of the usual queries one might make of any child who was reciting before a stranger.

It must be clearly remembered that the demonstration described was offered by the group with the greatest amount of residual hearing. In actual classroom practice the exercises are, of course, adapted to the needs of the various groups of children; all, however, profit enough

to warrant the investment of time and effort the program required. Naturally, the amazing performance a visitor sees at the end of a school year represents the result of hours of patient work on the part of instructors and students alike.

The babies participate in all the "listening" drills given the elementary group, until they are old enough to be tested accurately to determine their degree of residual hearing. Older children are gradually excused from exercises which prove beyond their hearing range, though the effort to locate and stimulate every vestige of hearing continues to the end of the pupil's training.

Deaf children are unusually sensitive to vibration, and use it as a definite means of orienting themselves. Dancing to musical accompaniment is quite possible for them. They receive many of the attention-attracting impulses that we know only as sound. The children can tell, from the rear rooms of the school, when a truck passes on the street. One visitor tells of seeing half the members of a studying class respond to a slight tap of the instructor's foot. A hearing group would not have noticed the sound under similar conditions. This abnormal sensitivity of the deaf to vibration frequently delays discovery of deafness till the child is well past a year old. ~~even so old as two years~~.

The Delaware School for the Deaf has sound reason for wishing to enroll its students at the earliest possible age. Children ~~Persons totally~~ deaf from infancy do not realize there is such a thing as language, except that they feel that others enjoy some activity from which they are excluded. The fundamental problems in their education are to teach them its existence and nature, and mastery of their own voices. In addition, their senses of sight and touch must be so stimulated and directed that they supply much of the information the ears fail to

relay. These skills are far more serviceable if learned in early childhood, the normal age for such development. A deaf child without nursery school training is so far behind the children ready for school at six that he can never hope to even approximately overtake them. Four years is the normal retardation for intelligent deaf children who start to school for the first time at the same age as those who hear.

Some retardation is unavoidable. Since they must learn English by the artificial methods of the foreign-language classroom, the deaf are in the situation of a student who might have to rely, for his entire education, upon his high school Latin. Any language they acquire must be learned word by word, by sight and touch. Though the more language-minded children do pick up words from their hearing companions out of school, the process is too slow to be of practical importance; the easy vocabulary building of casual contacts is closed to them. The extra effort they must make to master their own language requires time that hearing children can devote to the routine subjects.

The children at the Delaware School meet in three groups for instruction. Those under seven or eight years old form the primary unit; those who are doing the school work corresponding roughly to the second to fourth grades make the second; and those taking their last few years training, either on whole or part time, make up the advanced class. In addition to the director, who also teaches, there are three other instructors, and a part time assistant who supervises the small children at play in the afternoons. Two of the regular teachers are specialists in the education of the deaf; the third is primarily an upper grade teacher with experience in hearing classes.

The work of the first two groups is difficult to classify closely according to public school grading. The main objective is to give

the child the tools of normal life by making him as competent a speech reader as his intelligence permits, building his vocabulary both in speech and print reading, training his voice to the point where he can talk intelligibly, and making him socially adaptable. The subjects of formal instruction are used simply as means to this end, and are introduced with little organization. Children are allowed to progress as rapidly as their ability and natural inclination lead them to. They are freely allowed to pursue work that attracts their interest, if it will help solve the problem of supplying them with things they will want to think about, talk about, learn more about, and above all, want words to discuss.

Instruction must be purely individual, though the children are handled in groups. Since deafness bears no relation whatever either to intelligence or to personality traits, a class of such children will vary as widely in these respects as any other unselected group. Achievement of the various members of a class vary widely. Some, for instance, are advanced in reading or number work far beyond their grade level in other types of activity.

Most deaf children read at an earlier age than others of the same intelligence. All the four-year-olds now enrolled at the Wilmington school read all the action words they understand. Such work is never forced; it is the natural result of the visual-mindedness forced upon the deaf by the nature of their handicap.

None of them speak or understand speech as well as hearing children of the same mental development.

No teacher of foreign languages will be surprised to hear that ability to articulate clearly bears no relation to intelligence. Some students slow in their general studies can be understood readily; others

who are keenly intelligent are among the poorest talkers.

When the children have built up a good working vocabulary, learned to read easily, and show satisfactory social adjustment, they are placed in the advanced section to be groomed for entrance into an ordinary junior high school class. The teacher in charge of this work accustoms them to the pace and the methods of hearing classes, and repairs the gaps that a functional approach has left in their fund of general information. The emphasis, which heretofore had been upon general personality development; ~~here it is~~ shifted to content.

In addition to their academic studies, speech training and speech reading, all the children have a rich extra-curricular program. Even the nursery groups stay at school all day, since it is not possible to arrange two schedules of transportation for older and younger children. After a nap following lunch, they enjoy a supervised play period that has definite educational advantages. Besides keeping them in an environment where they are encouraged to talk, it gives them muscular coordination, and trains them in the technique of team play, values many of them could not get from casual out-of-school contacts.

One interesting activity in which all age groups join is a rhythm band, which does excellent work. Parts for the various percussion instruments, indicated on a large chart, are followed, under the leader's direction, with the precision of an orchestra reading a musical score. The piano accompaniment, which they receive as vibration, marks the rhythm for them. Participants enjoy these performances and have frequently appeared in public in Wilmington, and once in Philadelphia before the National Federation of Music Clubs.

Dancing, tap and folk styles, is guided by the rhythm of the piano felt through the floor. On numerous occasions deaf children

appeared in special entertainments on the same program with hearing children. The activity not only gives them one more normal contact, but supplies an entertaining method of drill in the nature of rhythm, gives them an added incentive for muscular coordination, and increases their poise and self-confidence.

Besides taking part in the Annual Music Week and Art Week programs with students from other public and private schools in Wilmington, the children in the school for the deaf have from time to time given public performances alone for audiences interested in their work. Groups of them have appeared as guests at assembly programs in other schools, before clubs, at Y demonstrations, and in similar gatherings.

Their annual entertainment for parents and friends, given in 1939 at the YWCA Auditorium, featured a spring pageant of the May festival type. The children, attractively costumed, offered interpretive, tap, and acrobatic dances, telling in elaborate pantomime how the elves and fairies welcomed their queen. The interpretation, co-ordination, rhythm, teamwork, and stage presence displayed would have merited praise for any group.

Besides trips to other points of interest, each spring the children are taken to the Zoo in Philadelphia. Such excursions serve a double purpose; they have the same general educational significance they would for any child of elementary school age, and they open up new fields of information that can be explored in print and in pictures once a living contact has been made to stimulate interest and motivate acquisition of the basic vocabulary.

Some of the more adept speech readers have become able to follow moving pictures with pleasure. They particularly like news-reels and the short subjects dealing with science, crime-detection, historical

personages and events, and the like. They enjoy talking about the things they have seen on the screen, and frequently contribute to the discussion in history or geography classes bits of information picked up from that source. Some of the older pupils go to the theaters especially to see the news pictures, even when the feature is something that has no appeal to a child or depends too much on complete comprehension of the dialogue for them to enjoy it. This, of course, is not properly an extra-curricular activity of the school, but it does indicate one field of diversion and information open to the more capable among the well-educated deaf.

One of the noticeable things about these children is their attractive physical appearance. They all look well-cared-for, well-groomed, and have exceptional poise. Much of this must be the result of the careful training they receive to encourage motor coordination from their earliest school days.

Each Friday morning all except the infants go, under the supervision of a teacher, to the YWCA gymnasium for a physical training period in which posture and balance, frequently poor in the deaf, are stressed. Afterwards comes the swimming lesson. Both classes are taught by Y instructors, in cooperation with instructors from the Delaware School for the Deaf. Friday afternoons, Miss Gnann, chief instructor at the Y, conducts a dancing class at the school. Three years ago, the first year in which the arrangement was in existence, only tap dancing was attempted; the second year some folk dancing was added. In spite of the fact that it is difficult to explain exactly what is wanted to children with limited vocabularies, who are not yet mature lip readers, this work was so satisfactory that in 1938-39 only enough tap dancing to keep the children's interest was continued, and most of the time was

devoted to folk dancing and rhythm work. Even the nursery group participated to a limited extent. The excellent results obtained have encouraged the instructor to plan the introduction of modified ballet routines (involving only the upper part of the body, in order to avoid certain bad hip and foot positions not advisable for such use), in order to give the students a more graceful carriage.

Older children whose physical and social development warrant, have their own Y memberships and go alone at the times designated for their age group. One of the students who completed his training in June, 1939, is a member of the Boy Scouts, goes regularly to the summer camp, and participates freely in the activities of his troop.

The greatest care is taken to protect the health of all students. Interested physicians have provided both general and specialized medical and dental services for those whose families cannot do so.

The regular academic year parallels that of the public schools. For the past seven seasons, there has been a month's session at the seashore, with definite objectives, and under close supervision. It keeps children from losing their hard-won skill through too ~~prevents a~~ long a break in the period of formal instruction; by offering ~~them~~ them an entirely new type of experience; it helps increase vocabulary and understanding of different situations; it multiplies the normal contacts upen to them. Swimming, beach games, and nature study are features of the program. Though most of the cost is carried by the parents, working through an active parent-teachers' association, no child is left behind because his family cannot afford the extra expense.

The parent-teacher group is particularly important for a school dealing with handicapped children. Through it parents are shown the need for insisting on normal conversation with the deaf child at home, have an opportunity to learn just what the school is trying to do, and

can better understand the sort of cooperation expected of them. The members of the local group have been most anxious to do everything in their power to make their children's training more effective.

One of the outstanding accomplishments of the school is the poise its students, even the tiniest, exhibit before a visitor. They are perfectly at ease, show a courteous interest and are natural in continuing their class or extra-curricular activities for his benefit. When the instructor is occupied they go quietly about their own work in a manner to make a public school teacher envious. When they are dismissed, and gather informally around the caller, they are far more self-assured yet less aggressive than the usual group. They are, in short, charmingly well-bred children who display normal interest in other people without a trace of ostentation.

It is hard to overestimate the importance of such an attitude for children who must struggle against a permanent handicap. If their own bearing is easy and natural, they are more readily accepted outside their own family and school circle on their merits, being neither patronized or ignored. Poise acts as a shield against the sort of condescending pity that is galling to its object and makes others uncomfortable in his presence. And, in later social and business relations, the handicapped person who can so protect himself is more likely to be offered gladly the small considerations that are often all he needs to become an independent member of his community.

The Delaware School for Deaf Children is just completing its tenth year of operation. In that time it has started twenty-one children on the road to normal adjustment to community living. Seven of them have reached the stage where they can profit by instruction planned for anyone of their age and mentality. Under the conditions existing in Delaware before the school was started, only about half

these children would have received any education at all. Those who are now about ready to take their places, with reasonable chance of success, beside those who can hear would be struggling with the first faint conception of language. The six-and seven-year-olds whose mental development is now proceeding normally would still have been untrained little animals. Since few residential schools for the deaf accept nursery-school pupils, no deaf children in the State could ten years ago have received early instruction, even if his parents could afford tuition.

The existence in Wilmington of a school for deaf children has other advantages in addition to providing care for deaf babies at the age when training is most effective. It has placed a day-school within reach of more than half the residents of the State, so that parents no longer face the cruel alternative of having to part with a small child or deny him all hope of happy, useful, adulthood. The children can enjoy the advantages of normal home life and constant association with hearing people. These two considerations have removed completely the opposition that once existed to early school entrance. Twice the number of children can be educated at the same public expense as formerly, since the State is asked to provide only tuition, which it owes to any child, and leaves his support to his family.

A report of an interview with Miss Sterck, quoted in the Delmarva Star for November 17, 1937, summarizes the aim of the school as satisfactorily as any of the statements examined in the preparation of this paper:

> "As we study the individual child and teach him to take advantage of his opportunities, we realize more and more the importance of thinking of his possibilities always--never of his limitations. It is not in the child to fail if we can teach him to meet life's situations in a satisfactory manner."

The work this school has accomplished during its ten years should not, however, suggest to the reader that the entire problem of the deaf in Delaware has been solved. Only half the children whose tuition is paid by the State are students there; the rest are still sent to residential schools in other cities. There is no local provision for colored deaf pupils. There are still children growing up in the State as helpless mutes because schooling is not available for them.

The provisions that exist are, likewise, for the comparatively rare totally deaf child. The far more numerous hard of hearing are receiving no special training whatever, though the Division of Special Education has over a period of years made a careful study to discover the cases among the public school population who need care to insure their future efficiency. The badly needed teacher of speech reading for Wilmington and State public schools has never been appointed, in spite of repeated urging on the part of the Division of Special Education.

The only program for the rehabilitation of deaf adults is the privately sponsored, and limited opportunity offered ~~by~~ the Wilmington Society for the Deaf ~~to~~ for learn speech reading, ~~and to partake of recreation.~~

The two acts previously discussed which were passed in the 1939 legislature but not yet put into full operation offer hope that the needs of the deaf may soon be filled.

EDUCATION OF THE MENTALLY DEFECTIVE IN DELAWARE

Mental defectives constitute the most serious social problem posed by a handicapped group. Those whose disabilities are physical are rarely dangerous to their fellows, and only a few are likely to transmit their handicap to their descendants. If their education is neglected, the results will be measured in terms of needless financial loss and personal unhappiness; they will not involve actual threat to the entire community.

The mentally defective are an entirely different matter, and constitute the most serious social problem posed by a handicapped group.

Their handicap is, essentially, inability to understand the ordinary concepts that are the tools of normal life. Since they lack judgment, control, and comprehension, to varying degrees, they frequently become delinquent. Without careful training they are unable to support themselves. Theirs is a highly transmissible defect; many who are physically sound reproduce with the casualness of animals, multiplying rapidly when neglected.

Education of such people, however, involves more than mere negative protection against damage they may do to themselves and others, and can sometimes stimulate them to surprising accomplishment. Dr. J. E. W. Wallin, reporting on a study of relative I.Q. variations in two individuals over a long period of years, before a conference in Detroit, as quoted in the Journal-Every Evening for February 24, 1939, commented:

"Education is a constructive force for the moron no less than for the genius.

"The impression must not be allowed to gain currency that a

superior environment will transform mediocre children into geniuses, or reduce such children to aments. Nevertheless we must recognize that the limits set by heredity are not as rigidly fixed as was once believed."

Delaware had recognized in theory its responsibility for properly educating the blind and the deaf a full generation before it made any public provision for care of the feeble-minded. The first law concerning them, passed February 22, 1861, followed closely the pattern used for other special groups. It benefitted children only, and was a charity measure for the indigent.

According to this law the Judges of the Superior Court were made trustees for the "indigent imbecile children" of the State, and were designated to receive applications for the admission of any such children to the Pennsylvania Training School for feeble-minded children, near Media, Pennsylvania. A statement of each applicant's "condition and circumstances," were forwarded to the Superintendent of the school, who certified the child as one likely to benefit by admission. Upon certification, the judges recommended the applicant to the Governor, who issued all warrants for such education. Not more than two from each county could attend at the same time, and the total tuition paid for all the feeble-minded in the State could not exceed $1200 annually. At this time, all such payments were deducted from the school fund dividend of counties having residents enrolled in special schools, before the funds were apportioned among the districts.

In 1865, the law was amended to increase the total tuition payable to $1600 a year. In the period between 1895 and 1899, the number of children was raised to fourteen, without restriction as to county residence, and the total tuition to $2800; more than $200.00 might be paid in behalf of any one child. This provision still stands in the

1935 Code, though the last beneficiary was withdrawn from the institution several years ago.

Other provisions for the supervision of special instruction of feeble-minded children parallel exactly the legislation for the deaf and blind detailed elsewhere.

Census material for this group, as for the others, is very fragmentary. In 1863, there were two Delaware children at Media; in 1879, two; in 1883, four; in 1901, ten; in 1903, fourteen; and the same number in 1904. These figures are all taken from the House Journals of the appropriate years.

In 1912, the Delaware Commission for the Blind made a careful survey of the number, age, and condition of defectives of all types in the State. They located 369 whom they classed as feeble-minded or idiotic. Eighteen of these were infants, 207 children of school age; 109 adults of working age; and 35, aged people. Of all these, just fourteen were kept at school until they were fourteen years old. The rest were left completely in the charge of their relatives or charitable organizations; most of them were allowed at large without guidance or restraint. The Commission estimated that at least a hundred of them were fit subjects for institutional care. Since people of this type remain children, mentally, all their life, the fourteen year age limit upon their instruction was little short of criminal folly. Though the Commission's chief concern was with the blind, it took very seriously its duty to report fully upon the care given other handicapped children in the State and remarked the dangerous public indifference regarding the feeble-minded.

The Commission's next Report, in 1914, listed the feeble-minded as "still neglected." In 1915, it reported only 13 feeble-minded Delawareans in institutions; most of these were hopeless imbeciles.

By this time it had doubled its first estimate of the number who should be under close supervision. In 1916, there were the same number (probably the same individuals) at Media. Six of them were improving under instruction, the rest remained stationary. There was no change in the number until 1919, when only twelve were enrolled. For 1920 there is no report; in 1921, there were ten, and in 1922, nine. The figures suggest that new committments were discontinued after the Delaware State Training School at Stockley was planned.

The Delaware Commission for the Feebleminded was established March 21, 1917, and charged with the construction and maintenance of a home for the care and training of feeble-minded residents of the State. It was to consist of nine members, two from each county and three at large, chosen by the Governor on a bi-partisan basis. Three of the members might be women. Members were to serve for four-year terms with no salary except reimbursement for necessary expenses. It was given full authority to select a site for the home, provide for the erection of buildings, and employ a Superintendent experienced in the supervision of the feeble-minded. The Superintendent was given full authority, under the general supervision of the Commission, to make rules for the management of the home. The Commission might make rules, not in conflict with specific provisions in the law, for admissions.

The projected home was to be State property, and $10,000 appropriated for its acquisition, construction, and maintenance.

The original provisions governing admission to the colony remain unchanged.

Anyone arrested in the State may on application of a relative, or any other reputable citizen, be examined for feeble-mindedness.

The Court of General Sessions in the counties, and Juvenile Court in Wilmington, have jurisdiction over such cases. After application has been made to the court for a hearing, the Judge must give due notice, not more than fifteen days, to those concerned. One witness in favor of committment must be a psychologist or other expert in feeble-mindedness; any opposition witnesses must be heard. If the person is adjudged feebleminded, and in need of being confined, he is committed to the custody of the Delaware Commission for the Feeble-minded until further order of the judge or the court.

When a relative, or some other reputable individual, fears that it is unsafe for a feeble-minded person to remain at large, application may be made for a committment hearing. The procedure is identical to that prescribed for feeble-minded people already delinquent.

The Commission may enter into an agreement with the relatives or custodian of any feeble-minded person to commit him to its care. In such cases, parents or guardians who are financially able may be required to pay some or all of the expense of the patient's care and education, though the charge must not exceed the actual cost.

The school was completed in April, 1921, and the first patient was received May 11, of the same year. In 1923 the legislature appropriated $52,000 for the erection and equipment of additional buildings, since the original $10,000 had proved insufficient to provide a satisfactory plant. The funds were earmarked for: a building for boys, a laundry, a cottage for the superintendent, an infirmary, a silo, and a corncrib. Just how much of the program could be completed from this particular appropriation is uncertain; the infirmary, at least, was not entirely provided for and was finished later from other funds.

The legislature of 1923, also passed another important law, still in effect, in regard to mental defectives. Under its provisions the governing body of any institution in control of feeble-minded, insane, or epileptic individuals may petition the State Board of Charities for permission to sterilize a patient when his best interests or the public good require it. A special board is picked for consideration of each case, and its decision must be unanimous. The members must be a physician and an alienist of recognized standing, and the superintendent of the institution which has custody of the defective. The Board of Charities must give the closest known relative, or the last person with whom the defective lived while he was at large if no relatives can be located, thirty days notice in writing of intention to perform such an operation.

In 1929, the provision was extended to give the Mental Hygiene Clinic of the Delaware State Hospital the right to petition for the sterilization of persons at large, or in any institution supported wholly or in part from public funds. The same examination by a qualified board, and notice to relatives, is required in this statute as in the earlier one. If the defective is at large, two physicians must concur in the recommendation.

Under this same statute, a habitual or confined criminal who has been convicted three or more times may be examined by the Mental Hygiene Clinic. If its examiners agree that his criminality is the result of mental defect or disease they may recommend his sterilization, under the procedure followed in other cases.

The Delaware Commission for the Feeble-Minded, appointed under the legislation of 1917, proceeded to the establishment of a home for those mental defectives who could not safely be left at large. The site they selected was an 850 acre tract, later increased to 1050 acres,

of farmland near Stockley, in the southeastern corner of the State. The cottage plan of construction was adopted, since it allows the greatest flexibility for advantageous grouping, and for expansion as needs change.

Semi-annual reports show that even though facilities have been added at regular intervals since the school's establishment, the building program has never been able to keep pace with the growth and changing needs of the colony (see Table III, below). For a number of years colored boys could not be considered for admission because no cottage for them was available. At the present time, it is impossible because of lack of space to properly segregate and restrain the delinquent and criminally inclined cases committed by the courts, who constitute a serious problem. An adequate infirmary was needed for years before it was finally constructed. Waiting lists have existed for years, and from time to time it has been necessary to suspend admissions for certain classes completely. This sometimes involves leaving even urgent cases uncared for over long periods.

The institution is variously referred to as a school, a colony, Stockley, Delaware Colony, and the Delaware State Training School. All these terms are found in the school's own reports, and in those of other public and semi-public agencies.

One of the best brief summaries of its activities appears in the Report for April 15, 1939.

"Always," says the Superintendent, "it should be kept in mind that the Colony is a Training School primarily and that from all sections of Delaware, all types, grades, races, ages, male and female are sent here, and live here .... They are fed and clothed, they work and play, they receive training and treatment for body and mind, and

after a time many of them return to their homes or to the homes of others that have been selected and approved as satisfactory for "Home Placement." Even then they receive the continued helpful interest and guidance of this School through the Social Service Workers."

Enrollment has grown from 29 reported in May 1922, the end of the first year of operation, to 493 in April, 1939. Several factors contribute to the semi-annual increases in the population, (See Table I, below I, below). Releases are comparatively few in proportion to new committments; the institution's growing reputation has produced a number of committments asked for by the guardians of defective children; Court committments are becoming more frequent.

Analysis of tables in the recent semi-annual reports showing age at the time of admission indicate that most new cases are children of school age, though patients may be admitted up to forty-five years. Special permits may be given in unusual instances for those older persons. The administration's attitude, however, is that people who are really dangerous or helpless because of feeble-mindedness would have proven themselves so before middle age; dull-witted individuals who become dependent in later years should be cared for by the same agencies that would help them if they were completely normal persons in similar circumstances.

The first group of colored pupils, 14 girls, was admitted in 1926. Facilities for colored boys were not provided until May, 1932.

Every case committed is given careful training to develop each individual to the highest level possible for him. A few of the very lowest grade remain utterly helpless. For some the limit is ability to perform a few of the simpler tasks in the care of their own persons;

others eventually become able to adjust themselves to normal life and earn their own living at large. Though feeble-minded people can learn to use the ability they do possess, they are never "cured," in the sense of becoming normal; they remain severely limited as long as they live, but they can be made happy, and many of them can contribute to their own support.

Most of the residents of the colony, according to Superintendent Ennis, are tractable, eager to please and anxious to use every bit of their limited ability. The small group of vicious or criminal defectives, at the present time, are a serious problem only because of lack of facilities for proper care of such cases.

Each member of the colony who is mentally and physically able learns to take part in the upkeep of the establishment. Tasks include cleaning, preparation and serving of meals, operation of the three hundred acres of land under cultivation, and care of helpless patients and little children. The farm, though it has never given large financial returns, pays for itself, helps supply the table, and is an important aid in the education of some patients. The school plant includes three shops, where brush making, woodwork, weaving, knitting, sewing, simple embroidery, crafts, chair caning, broom making and shoe repairing are carried on. Over a thousand articles were produced and used in the Colony during 1938-39. They included brushes, rugs, sweaters, curtains, scarfs, small pieces of furniture, toys, bird-houses, flower boxes and similar objects.

Formal instruction in academic work and in crafts has had an interesting development. From the beginning each resident received as much training as his condition warranted in care of his person, social adjustment, and the performance of house or farm work. Regular academic instruction, however, was not attempted until April 1, 1928, when one teacher

assembled a group of thirty students who seemed able to learn to read and write. Handcrafts were an informal but increasingly important part of the program from that time until March 5, 1932, when occupational therapy was inaugurated under a trained instructor.

During the first year, most of the children in the academic section were in the kindergarten and first grade groups, though a few who had attended public school before they came to Stockley were able to attempt all or parts of the regular school curriculum through the fourth grade. During the second school year, 1929, there was little change in either enrollment or program, though more handiwork was added.

In 1930, thirty-eight were attending academic classes, and industrial work for all capable of learning was being pushed; this still involved, for the most part, care of the cottages, grounds, and farm. By the fall of 1931, the administration felt it was definitely training the higher grade cases for parole.

A definite change in training methods occurred in 1932. The occupational therapist who came in the spring of that year introduced systematic instruction in crafts suited to the individual skill and temperament of the patients. Weaving, embroidery, basketry, chair caning, brush making, and knitting were popular; woodwork was included shortly after. Though it was not a great while before the residents were able to produce genuinely useful articles, such an output was not the main motive of the instruction.

Under a competent instructor, shop work teaches obedience and ability to follow instructions, physical coordination, problem-solving, training of reason and foresight, cooperation and respect for the rights of others, and shouldering of responsibility. With many of the children

these values can be instilled in no other way. A handicraft program making with their own hands things which they later see used stimulates and holds interest sufficiently to permit the endless repetition the mentally handicapped need for habit-formation.

In 1932, the school also began its first organized physical education program. Activities included marching drills, calisthenics, and games adapted to mental and physical development of various groups. Correct posture and health habits were the chief objectives at first. Correctional treatment for crippled patients or those with poor coordination was a later development.

By the fall of 1932, sixty children had joined the academic classes. Music appreciation had become an important item in the training regimen.

In April 1933, approximately a hundred pupils were enrolled in one or another of the occupational therapy groups, and by fall, thirty more had been entered. Many of the maturer residents had, through the semi-industrial activities organized for them, become wholly or partially self-supporting. The work had in addition proved its educational and social value.

The following year, 1934, the school director reported that more than a hundred individuals had participated in academic classes since they opened in 1928. Many of them had made more progress in the fundamental subjects than anyone had believed possible. No child who showed any interest whatever had been excluded from the department until months of effort had proven him incapable of learning any school subjects.

Besides the Three R's of the standard elementary curriculum the training school's program laid stress on developing artistic or musical talent. Though a genuinely feeble-minded person cannot do creative work in either field, some have a high degree of mechanical skill and considerable emotional sensitivity. It is important in

training a sub-normal to find something he can do with a feeling of real accomplishment; artistic work offers this opportunity to some of the pupils. To many others whose performance can never give much pleasure to any but themselves, it affords a satisfying emotional outlet.

Among the artistic activities are the presentation of semi-annual operettas, the cover design for the programs drawn by one of the pupils. The titles of these operettas suggest an increasing aptitude for musical and dramatic performance. The most ambitious undertakings are adaptations of the works of Gilbert and Sullivan. Music instruction consists of piano lessons, group singing, and a rhythm band.

By the fall of 1934, an industrial shop program was well under way. The project included instruction in cooking, sewing, shoe repair, rug weaving and broom making. Some of the classes had already been organized, the rest were planned for the near future. The general academic work and the shops, established earlier, were still continuing satisfactorily, though a larger staff of trained teachers and more space were becoming increasingly necessary. The class in cooking, for example, was taught by the dietician, who lacking training, could not hope to obtain the results of a specialist in teaching the feeble-minded.

The academic department had grown to a registration of 104 to April, 1935. Elementary science had been added to the curriculum since the last report, and was proving very popular. By careful adaptation and planning of projects, the teachers were offering all the subjects of the first four regular grades. In music, the level of performance and appreciation was steadily rising. The October report for the same year shows 175 individuals enrolled in one or more school activities. Of these, 106 were in the academic classes, 148 in the shops, and 101 in music.

By 1936, the school was well-established. It offered some two hundred individuals work from the nursery school level through the fourth grade, and opportunity to practice the crafts discussed earlier. History and nature study were for the first time part of the curriculum. Citizenship was the chief objective of academic instruction. Socialized projects were proving the most satisfactory method of approach, since by their concreteness, need for co-operation, and contact with the child's life experience, they provided motivation for the incessant repetition dull children must have in order to learn. For the first time, instrumental music is reported. Five teachers, with the assistance of other members of the staff, carried on the work. The number was insufficient for the best results.

The reports for April and October 1937 still show only five instructors, three teachers, an occupational therapist, and a director for the industrial shop. The program, considering the limited personnel, showed improvement. Pupils in the academic department were attempting more difficult projects; musical standards, both in taste and performance, were rising; the varied shop activities were producing more and better products, with corresponding advance in students' skill, interest, and morale.

Physical training, with drills, calisthenics, and games, had been part of the program for several years. In 1937, this was extended to include physical therapy, with directed training for cripples and those with very poor coordination, in some cases with exceptionally good results. Proper mental and physical education for all residents, however, demanded a larger staff. The colony urgently needed a physical therapist, a psychologist, a full-time dental hygienist, and two more teachers.

On the tenth anniversary of the school, the director could report significant progress. In 1928, some thirty children attended classes,

most of them at the kindergarten and first-grade level. In 1938, about half the residents of the colony attended classes of some sort; approximately fifty of them in the nursery-school and kindergarten department, one hundred fifty in grades up to and including the fifth, and possibly a half-dozen capable of sixth or seventh grade attainment in some subjects. Shop work of various kinds had been developed to give many of the residents greater opportunities for developing their special skills, forming new interests, and making themselves self-supporting either in the colony or at large. Quality of work done in classes of all types showed advance over that of even a year or two earlier.

The practical value of giving mentally handicapped people every possible opportunity for self-development is more important than may be apparent. Many who come to the colony at school age or older have already accepted as a basic fact in their lives that they can do nothing well. The idea often warps potentially pleasant personalities; the sense of frustration it arouses likewise blocks any effort to use ability such a person may have. An adequate training program gives him the opportunity to try his hand at all manner of activities. When, after a period of trial and error, the youngster has found something he can do satisfactorily, his whole world changes. Often, success in one field in which he has normal ability encourages him to almost incredible efforts to master others that may be very difficult for him. For those eligible for parole, every resource for self-support, for diversion, and for normal contacts, increases the chance of satisfactory adjustment to the world outside. For those who will spend their lives in the colony, opportunity to be happy and to pay at least

part of their own way is equally important, both to them and to the taxpayers.

The report issued in April 1929 shows continued growth in the program. The glee club had added two-part numbers to its repertoire; the shop and academic divisions of the school continued to prosper.

Methods of teaching the feeble-minded have been discussed at some length in the section devoted to public school activities in that field. The instructors at Delaware Training School have found that extremely practical projects, rooted in the child's own experience, are the only satisfactory method of rousing and holding interest enough to hold him to work that is, for him, desperately hard. Repetition, drill, illustrations, and handiwork play an important role in securing results.

Teachers must be familiar with all possible methods of approach to the elementary subjects. With normal children, one standard method of teaching reading or writing, for example, will be the only one needed. With the feeble-minded, one must experiment with all the sensory stimuli to discover which produces the most nearly normal associations. One child may finally comprehend the idea behind reading when he learns to take the words apart, while another may have to build the syllables. One may recognize a word most easily by sight; another may have to say it. Some children can write by copying what they see. Some need to have special training to enable them to get the feel of the correct movement. Once a vital contact is made, some of these children make surprising progress.

The account of the project now under way is worth quoting from the report for April 1929, as an illustration of the method followed:

> "A project called 'Roads' has been instituted. This is a flexible topic and is being considered in all classrooms. The original point of interest is our own new road to be constructed on the Colony grounds.

> For the past six months State Highway grading machines have been working intermittently on our roads and our children are very interested in what they are doing. This interest has expanded to a study of the map of Delaware. Reading, writing, and arithmetic have become involved. The boys' shop is framing pictures of maps and pictorial roads. The boys are also making toy trains, automobiles, and other vehicles. The girls' shop will embroider pictorial maps, make and plan a puppet show to tell an appropriate story they have invented. The Boy Scouts have measured all Colony thoroughfares and executed a very good diagram showing each building and its entrance as well as all the rooms."

Music, during the entire course of the school program, has been a very important element in the training schedule. The children now enjoy classical and folk compositions, and are able to perform them. Part of the semi-annual Visitors' Day entertainment has always been an operetta given by the children, or a play embodying choral singing. This program for the entertainment of parents and guests is a high light in the children's school year, and as such, has great educational significance. It provides a focal point for training in cooperation, social values, and incidental information that would have meaning for them in no other context.

Though the colony has always been somewhat restricted in its recreational facilities, every effort has been made to keep the residents happily occupied. Outdoor games, especially baseball and more recently tennis, are favorites with those able to play. Long walks in groups, with an attendant, are taken. Each year, every resident able to travel joins in the all-day picnic at a beach. Occasional rides in the colony buses and trucks are another special treat. Indoors, the possibilities are more limited. Ping-pong and Chinese checkers help occupy those of higher ability. Recently the NYA has completed a set of indoor apparatus that has relieved the situation to a considerable degree. Cottages are now equipped with radios, phonographs and pianos; the residents' ability to make their own music

stands them in good stead, too, when they are confined by inclement weather. Attendants make it part of their regular assignment to find as many opportunities as possible for wholesome amusement with simple equipment.

The health record has been good during all the years of the of the Colony's establishment. The only epidemics have been minor outbreaks of grippe or influenza. Since the construction of the infirmary, all new residents have been quarantined long enough to prevent them bringing in infection. Tests for venereal diseases and for susceptibility to diphtheria and scarlet fever have been part of the routine examination. Inoculation against the more common infections is standard practice; serum treatment against colds proved very effective during the several years it was in use. Every slight illness or injury receives dispensary treatment, all patients running temperatures are excluded from the regular cottages until they recover. Since the infirmary is the home of blind, crippled, or otherwise helpless residents, the number of beds available for temporary cases is not adequate; additional facilities are necessary.

Dental care is supplied all members of the colony. Surgical cases, and those requiring an optical specialist are treated at Beebe Hospital.

Sterilizations completed at the request of the Trustees of the Training School are handled at the same hospital. The first of these, so far as the records show, were performed in 1931. Table II shows the cumulative record of the cases treated to April, 1939. A total of 221 such operations have been performed; this represents about one-third the total number of people who are present or past residents of the colony. Officials estimate that this program has already prevented the birth of several hundred mental defective or borderline

children in the State. ~~In spite of the reduction of the sum total of human misery and public expense,~~ The problem of controlling increase in the sub-normal population, however, remains a critical one. For several years, the Commission has been attempting to have the process of gaining custody of defective children of sub-normal or delinquent parents made simpler. Under present regulations it is very difficult for the Commission to get involuntary committments unless a child is an active and demonstrable public menace.

Over the past half-dozen years, the Commission has made recommendations and brief reports bearing on the general problems of custody, admission policy, and release.

Beginning in 1933, they stated that the aged and the delinquent were being admitted in ever increasing numbers, without the addition of facilities for their proper care. Influx of old people whose real problem is something other than feeble-mindedness has been checked to a degree by the administrative rule setting an age limit of forty-five years in ordinary cases. The delinquent remain a grave problem. The Commission believes that many individuals are sent to Stockley who belong in the industrial schools or in prisons. They recommend that some definite formula be established to govern all such committments. Criminals or delinquents with mental ages of ten or below are its responsibility; others should be cared for elsewhere.

The whole problem of admissions, releases, selection of candidates, and expansion is an exceedingly complicated one. The colony now has residential quarters for a little under five hundred people. Statistical estimates place the number of potential members in the neighborhood of a thousand. In 1934, there was an actual waiting list of over 150 cases; since then the capacity has been somewhat increased, but not sufficiently to care for all who need admission.

Though elimination of those who belong in a home for the aged or in a penal institution relieves the situation somewhat, the question of new building remains imperative; space for five hundred will not automatically stretch to accommodate a thousand. Quarters designed primarily to house and instruct feeble-minded children are not adequate for a heterogenous population including criminal defectives, dull-witted old people, and non-feeble-minded epileptics.

A single institution for all types of feeble-minded persons is probably the most economical solution for a state no larger than Delaware, but provisions must be made for special cases, both for their good and that of the other residents.

The question of release is another complication in the problem of deciding just how much increase in capacity the colony shall plan for. It was not originally intended that all individuals once committed should stay for life; a considerable proportion, after training, would, the founders expected, be able to return to their homes. In the early 1930's, as demand for the Commission's facilities increased, pressure for a greater number of discharges came with it. Many of the higher grade cases have reached the point where, in a favorable environment, they can adjust themselves to the demands of ordinary life. The Commission has wisely insisted on making sure of the environment, to avoid an unreasonable number of recommittments. In cases where the patient's own home is likely to prove unsatisfactory, he is placed in a carefully selected foster home, with all the consideration that would be given the case of a young child in a similar situation. The Commission has been gratified by the fact that placement of one of their wards in a community is very likely to produce several applications for others. It has more offers of homes on file than it has

candidates for release.

To date approximately one hundred individuals have returned to their families or been put on home placement. A follow-up service has been organized to give them the help they need in adjusting to their new environment; this department, however, is too small to obtain the results desired.

The new law requiring public schools to provide educational facilities for mentally and physically defective children will inevitably affect the expansion program at Stockley. Dr. Wallin, director of the division of special education in the public schools, is firmly convinced that the public schools are the proper place for feeble-minded children who are not also problems for some other reason. If local communities provide their own classes for most of the trainable mental defectives, it will obviously decrease the number of committments to Stockley. However, far fewer of those once committed will later be released. Obviously, any such shift in the type of defectives that form the bulk of the population will require major adjustments in the colony's program.

Among the immediate needs of the colony, even with its present enrollment, are a physical director, a dental hygienist, an additional nurse, a records clerk, a psychologist, additional teachers, additional cottages to permit grouping of similar types of individuals, and the closing of all entrances to the property except the one by the main highway.

The institution, founded primarily to care for those feeble-minded cases who could not safely be allowed at large, has expanded its functions as conditions have changed. It now considers itself

responsible for the training of all educable individuals in its custody, their discharge under favorable conditions, and their supervision when at large. It has an increasing number of criminal defectives in its keeping, and needs facilities for them. It has a small enrollment of feeble-minded invalids of various types, and of non-feebleminded epileptics. It has for some years past recommended sterilization of patients who should not be allowed to procreate; approximately one-third of those it has had in charge during its history have been so treated. It has been forced for lack of space to refuse admission to many who should have had its services. A definite statement of public policy in regard to the care of the feeble-minded in the State is at the present time in order; the part of the public schools, the penal institutions, and the residential training school in the program for mental defectives need to be carefully defined.

During the early months of 1939 four different groups of examiners from as many agencies visited the Training School. Their serious criticisms of management and policies dealt with the failure to completely segregate the vicious group, a matter the Commission had been petitioning the legislature for years to remedy; and the failure to carry on research activities, which again was due to lack of funds to employ sufficient personnel.

TABLE I

ENROLLMENT IN DELAWARE COLONY BY YEARS

YEAR	April	October
1922	29	
1923	51	
1924	60	
1925	81	
1926	95 (first colored girls admitted)	
1928		136
1929	148	162
1930	167	170
1931	184	193
1932	229	246
1933	284	333
1934	361	372
1935	382	384
1936	390	395
1937	396 (44 on home placement)	425 (28 on home placement)
1938	462 (30 on home placement)	479 (39 on home placement)
1939	493 (44 on home placement	

TABLE II

STERILIZATIONS (Cumulative report)

Year	April		October	
	Complete	Authorized	Complete	Authorized
1931	43	60		
1932			80	17
1933			93	46
1934	127	58		
1935	155	18	171	17
1936	173	14	179	10
1937	180	9		
1938	180	47	218	
1939	221			

BUILDING PROGRAM AT DELAWARE COLONY, STOCKLEY

YEAR	CONSTRUCTED	RECOMMENDED
1928		New dormitory for white girls; crowding means no play space in bad weather. Infirmary; sick cases must remain in the dormitories. School building; work so far has been carried on in basements of dormitory and on lawns. Barn.
1929	Girls' Cottage (not complete); provides space for sick patients and a dental chair.	New dormitory for colored boys. New dormitory for white boys. Road. All items above but girls' cottage.
1930	No report	
1931	Dormitories for white and for colored boys authorized; also infirmary and barn, finished during year. Will permit admission of urgent and desirable colored cases; helpless individuals; quarantine; nurse; classification of white cases.	Road, sewage disposal plant, facilities for non-feebleminded epileptics.
1932	Finished: white boys, dormitory, colored boys, dormitory, administration bldg., highway under construction; grounds being landscaped. Plant: 2 cottages each for white boys and white girls; one each for colored; infirmary, administration, and farm buildings.	Sewage disposal plant. Cottage for white girls. 90 acres of land to provide water boundaries to property.
1933		Sewage disposal. Cottages for white boys and white girls. 90 acres (above). 2 cottages for epileptics. 2 wards for psychopathic and delinquent cases. Central heating plant.
1934		Same as above. Water system adequate for fire fighting. Surfaced road through premises.
1935	Sewer plant authorized	Same, except for sewer.
1936		More infirmary space. Provision for delinquent defectives.
1937	New cottages for trainable cases, making capacity 500.	Provision for detention, epileptic, elderly, and nursery cases. Hard road in colony.
1938	Highway construction under way; play equipment for indoor work finished by N.Y.A.; Dam may be reconstructed by WPA to make pond.	2 cottages for delinquents urgent; others continued.

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THE SUB-NORMAL IN WILMINGTON PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Many of the earlier elementary teachers were both wise and kind in their treatment of the handicapped boys and girls who drifted through their classes. Organized provision in public schools, however, for the training of sub-normal Delaware children is a very recent development. Special classes for retarded students date from 1923, and professionally supervised work in the field from May 1932.

One of the happier stories of the early period concerns Bill, a feeble-minded boy of seven or eight, who had been refused admission to a private school on the ground that "they had no time to waste on an idiot." His mother had then brought him to the elementary principal in his district, asking only that someone try to teach him to read. That accomplishment, she felt, would give him some small degree of self-sufficiency. The first-grade teacher agreed to accept him in her class, saying, "If we might help him, let's take him." Much to everyone's delight, Bill did learn to read, and even to express himself simply in writing, though numbers always remained an unfathomed mystery to him. He was socially a likeable, adaptable child, in whom the rest of the school felt a protective interest. His adjustment represents the best type of individual work accomplished by those teachers who voluntarily accepted responsibility for defectives.

Teachers long associated with the system tell of other similar cases where special abilities were carefully fostered, social adjustments made, and the best possibilities of limited intellects realized.

Another interesting history illustrates successful handling of a mental hygiene problem involving a child of normal intelligence.

He was a spastic paralysis case who had been teased and laughed at by children on the street until he "hated boys." When the time came for him to enter school, he was terrified, and his parents gravely concerned, for they were anxious for him to receive what education he could and realized his mental attitude would be as serious a handicap as his physical disability. His mother gave the school authorities full details of the situation. An understanding principal and classroom teacher solved the problem by placing it frankly before the children with whom he would come in contact: Here was a beginner who thought he "hated boys" because he did not really know them; it was their responsibility as a group to see to it that he learned they were worth liking. He very soon became an interested and happy member of his class, blossoming into a socially adjusted child in a way even his mother had never believed possible. When the family moved, making a school transfer necessary, he was heartbroken. His adjustment, however, proved permanent. This boy, one should repeat, was not feeble-minded; he continued through high school and later attended college.

But every record of successful care of mentally or nervously defective children in the regular classes by teachers with no special training in their problems, can be matched by many failures. Even when the happy combination of cooperative parents and wise, considerate teachers and principals occurred, there was little that could be done for most of the very dull. The schools had almost none of the equipment needed and the teachers had no training in the methods required to help sub-normals attain maximum development. Most of the time and thought was given to the normal group. Even with the

most tactful treatment, many of the feeble-minded felt they were laughed at and patronized by their classmates, and developed serious emotional disturbances. In most cases, the best result that could be hoped for was to make the child passively contented in the classroom. The worst type of situation meant classes demoralized by sullen, vicious, over-age rebels, a few of whom might be physically dangerous to their fellows because of emotional or sexual abnormalities.

Superintendents Twitmeyer and Ward began to direct early in the present century teachers' attention to the general problems of child psychology, and to a lesser extent to the problems of the very dull student. Lectures and occasional extension courses by authorities in the field were offered in the city for those teachers and administrators who realized how important for community welfare and safety is the proper education of mentally sub-normal children. During the nineteen-twenties, a few special classes were established in various sections of Wilmington, though the work had no central organization or city-wide standards either for admission of pupils or preparation of teachers. In May, 1932, the schools secured the services of Dr. J. E. Wallin, nationally known authority in the field of special education, who had previously directed such work in St. Louis and in Baltimore; he headed the newly established department of special education and mental hygiene. The following September, he became the head of a similar division for the State schools.

Systematic activity on behalf of defective children in the public schools dates from his appointment. Though there has not been as much accomplished as is ~~truly~~ desirable, what has been done represents a sound foundation for a system based upon progressive modern practice.

Dr. Wallin's reports published in the Annual Reports of the State Department of Public Instruction, during the years of his tenure, and unpublished reports made to the Wilmington Public Schools, which he has very kindly made available to the members of the Federal Writers' Project, are the sole source of information on the work done in the training of mentally sub-normal young people in Delaware since 1932.

Excerpts from the Report of Dr. Wallin: 1933-34

"So far as it has been possible to secure the information by interrogating principals and teachers, the first special class of any kind supported by the Wilmington public schools was the "steamer class" started by Helen E. Ewing in the Peoples Settlement building in September, 1923, where it remained until June, 1925. In September, 1925, it was located on the fifth floor of the Wilmington Savings Fund building. Here it remained until June, 1926. The Board of Education paid the salary of the teacher and the rental of the room for this pioneer class. The registration included foreign-born children, handicapped and maladjusted native-born children, and mentally backward, malnourished, and disciplinary cases. The I. Q. range was from 28 to 150. This class was removed to Bancroft School when the new building was opened in September, 1926, and was continued under the same teacher until June, 1929, with pretty much the same types of pupils. In September, 1929, Mrs. Ewing opened a special class for mentally deficient, backward, and disciplinary children in School No. 2 where she continued until June, 1932, when the special classes in School No. 2 were closed. In September, 1932, she took charge of the special class for individual instruction in the Williams school which was opened at that time.

The second special class was started in the Palmer school (then School No. 14) in February, 1926, Ella N. Crossan, teacher. It was known as a "special class" and contained mentally deficient, borderline, backward, non-English speaking, and restoration cases. Some of the children were admitted on part time. This class was closed in June, 1930. The following September, Mrs. Crossan was assigned a special class in School No. 2, where she remained until June, 1932. In September, 1932, she opened the special class for individual instruction in the Lore School.

The third class was established as a restoration class in the Gray School in May, 1926, Gracia A. DeCormier, teacher. From September, 1926 to June, 1930 it was conducted as a special class for deficient children. The following year (1930-1931) Miss DeCormier was assigned a class in School No. 2, and the class in the Gray school was abandoned. In September, 1931, the class was reestablished in the Gray school under Miss DeCormier as a "restoration class" (although practically all of the children were non-restoration cases). In September, 1932, it was re-classified as a special class for individual instruction and has continued as such although some merely backward children have been assigned to sustain the attendance quota.

The fourth class was established in a small room in School No. 29 in February, 1927, Clara Ford Simpson, teacher. This class, referred to as a "special class" the first year and thereafter as an "opportunity class," contained "all kinds of handicapped children." It was closed in June, 1932, because of the overcrowding in the building.

The following February, in 1928, a so-called "opportunity class" for "subnormals" was established in the Bancroft school with Josephine Clothier as teacher. Miss Clothier continued until February, 1931. In September, 1931, the class was reestablished with Sara Platensky

Caney as teacher, and in September, 1932, it was given the status of a special class for individual instruction although merely backward children have been admitted in order to obtain the required registration.

A so-called "restoration class" was organized in a portable building connected with School No. 11 in September 1928, Jennie R. Frazier, teacher, and continued until the closing of the school in June, 1932. Children were assigned on full time to this class, but only a limited number were restored to grade at the end of the year.

Another "restoration" class was established in the Lore school in September, 1929, Estella R. Steelmen, teacher, to which children were transferred on full time except that some of the older children went to some of the regular classes for a part of their work. At the time of my inspection of this group of children in June, 1932, few of the children were of the restoration type. This class was abolished in June, 1932, and was succeeded in September, 1933, by the present opportunity class.

A different type of restoration class was established in the Bayard School in September, 1929, Jennie I. Church, teacher, and closed in June, 1932, upon the transfer of the elementary pupils to the Williams school. Pupils from the different grades subject to scholastic handicaps reported to this room in small groups one or two periods a day.

In September, 1931, a class was established in the Elbert school, at that time referred to as an opportunity class, in charge of Annie J. Murdah. This class, the second established in a colored school, was re-classified as a special class for individual instruction in September, 1932, although it contains some merely backward children.

"The third class to be established in a school for colored children was started in No. 21 school in September, 1933, Clara F. Simpson, teacher. It contains both mentally deficient and backward children on full-time assignment, and also children on part-time assignment, and has not yet been given a definite classification.

"It may be remarked, parenthetically, that the Howard school since September, 1932, has attempted to provide better instructional opportunities for a group of retarded seventh and eighth grade pupils, but the pupils have not been segregated during this whole period.

"None of the special, opportunity, or restoration classes possessed any significant amount of special teaching equipment prior to the school year 1932-33, with the exception of the special classes in Number 2 school which were fairly well equipped for certain limited kinds of hand work. Of the nine special and opportunity classes now in operation the following are measurably well equipped for accomplishing the program of service for which they were established: the special classes in the Williams, Lore, Bancroft, Gray, and Elbert schools, and the opportunity class in the Harlan school. The three remaining classes are gradually being equipped."

Many of the classes above, it will be noted, were highly unselected groups of problem children in need of special treatment from causes as far apart as imbecility and poor comprehension of English.

During his first year as director of the division in Wilmington, Dr. Wallin established his basic procedure and organized his work along the lines it has since followed. He set up "standards of admission and procedures for the assignment of children to special classes for individual instruction, Opportunity classes, C-Sections for backward and borderline cases, and fresh-air classes." A bulletin was issued outlining the procedure to be followed in reporting for examination children displaying behavior difficulties, personality maladjustments, or incipient nervous or mental disorders. Eligibility requirements for teachers of such groups were submitted to the superintendent for approval. Lists of equipment and supplies for special classes for mental defectives were made available.

A scientific system of examination of candidates" for special and Opportunity classes was organized and examination forms prepared. Actual psychological and psychiatric examinations of referred children were made by the Mental Hygiene Clinic, of Delaware State Hospital, since the schools had not yet been able to provide such a service for themselves. Without such cooperation, no classes could have been started on a sound basis.

Some idea of the thoroughness of the examinations may be gained from the fact that no more than five children could possibly be tested in one day. The minimum case study, exclusive of the educational history the teacher was expected to provide, requires about three hours. About twice that time is necessary if circumstances require a personal interview with the child. This does not include any allowance for medical examination, rarely given in the early years, or for stenographic work.

So far as possible, children were assigned to special classes,

in accordance with the recommendations after personal conference with the principals concerned. Nothing, unfortunately, could be done to aid those recommended for opportunity or pre-vocational classes, since none had been established.

Organization of the department involved numerous conferences between the director and principals and teachers, interested organizations, and individuals concerned in the work. Some conferences were administrative, and some merely to inform other agencies of the work comtemplated and to solicit cooperation. Dr. Wallin reports that those approached had almost without exception been interested in the schools' efforts, and had given what assistance they could.

An important activity of the department was to reorganize, as soon as test data became available, the classes already in existence. Children whose difficulty was not mental deficiency were returned to regular sections to make room for feebleminded cases. Since there were no opportunity classes, a few borderline individuals were retained in special classes that were not overcrowded. Except for cases where transportation to a distant center could not be arranged, these transfers were largely completed during 1932-33. Classification of the various retarded groups continued, of course, into later years.

The second important step in reorganization was the provision of more adequate equipment for work with the handicapped. In the fall of 1932, two of the classes had almost no equipment; none had all they needed. During the year, significant improvement was made, though none of the classes had appointments comparable to those in the more progressive cities of the country. Careful buying made it possible to obtain a considerable amount of equipment within a limited budget.

Classroom procedure must be adapted to meet the needs of mentally handicapped children. Since they cannot understand abstractions, and have no interest in general discussion, their instruction must center around familiar topics of home and community, and must deal with materials they can see and touch and handle, as well as with topics that seem to them real and important. Habit-formation and habit-correction form a large part of the training of such people. Their interest must be aroused, and sustained through incessant repetition, for their learning processes function slowly. In a special class, interests vary nearly as widely as do those of a group of normal children, and therefore work designed for them must offer a broad range of activities. Carefully adapted projects, supplemented with motivated drill and orderly, systematic instructions as occasion warrants, have proved the most satisfactory method of meeting all requirements. So far as possible, the teachers have based this work on the standard elementary curriculum, although they are free to make such modifications as they think advisable. In addition, new equipment supplied during the year made it possible for teachers to use such methods far more freely than before.

A list of titles of units used in various classes throughout the city and state between 1931 and 1937 indicates the types of activity followed in these groups at the several schools.

1931

Delmar: Mrs. Ellis	The World in which we Live (a group of units including Delaware, the Eastern Shore, and the Atlantic Seacoast)

1932

Bancroft: Mrs. Caney	The Community; The Home; Grocery Store
Elbert: Mrs. Murdah	Store Unit; Paper Unit
Gray: Miss DeCormier	Holland; Switzerland; Eskimo; Circus
Williams: Mrs. Ewing	Transportation; a-Indian Drag; b-Chinese Junk Ship; c-Pioneer Days
Delmar: Miss Ellis	Cotton; Spring in Our Community (dwelling on the interdependence between rural and urban communities)
Millsboro: Mrs. Lingo	Our Store

1933

Bancroft: Mrs. Caney	Farm Unit
Elbert: Mrs. Murdah	Home Unit
Gray: Miss DeCormier	The United States
No. 21: Mrs. Simpson	Post Office Unit
Delmar: Miss Ellis	How Our Country Works and Lives Together
Millsboro: Mrs. Lingo	Safety in the Home; Safety Out of Doors: Western Movement
Lore: Mrs. Crossan	Food

1934

Bancroft: Mrs. Caney	Transportation
Elbert: Mrs. Murdah	Home Units
Gray: Miss DeCormier	Foreign Countries
Harlan: Miss Hudson	Transportation--Our Own City
Lore: Mrs. Steelman	Our Farm
Williams: Mrs. Ewing	Transportation; Animals

1934 (continued)

Williams: Mrs. Church	Indians; A Trip to Eskimo Land
No. 21: Mrs. Simpson	The Dairy Farm
Millsboro: Mrs. Lingo	Our Farm; Our Community

1935

Bancroft: Mrs. Caney	Health Through Projects
Elbert: Mrs. Murdah	Health
Gray: Miss DeCormier	Various Countries
Harlan: Miss Hudson	Indians
Lore: Mrs. Crossan	Clothing
Lore: Mrs. Steelman	Safety
Williams: Mrs. Church	Health
Williams: Mrs. Ewing	Safety-First; Fire Prevention
No. 21: Miss Simpson	Transportation
Delmar: Miss Ellis	Transportation Holds The World Together
Millsboro: Mrs. Lingo	Eskimos
Milton: Mrs. Owens	Clothing and Related Problems

1936

Bancroft: Mrs. Caney	Our City
Gray: Miss DeCormier	United States
Harlan: Miss Hudson	Christmas Cards
Lore: Mrs. Crossan	Wool
Williams: Mrs. Church	Our Clothing
Williams: Mrs. Ewing	Switzerland, a Study of Mountain Life
No. 21: Miss Simpson	A Play City
Delmar: Miss Ellis	Mexico: Knowing the Business of Our Community

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1936 (Continued)

Millsboro: Mrs. Lingo	American Indians
Milton: Mrs. Owens	The Home; The Food Market
Marshallton: Mrs. Kennard	Cotton; Birds; Christmas in Other Lands

1937

Bancroft: Mrs. O'Brien	Clothing; Swedish Unit
Elbert: Mrs. Murdah	The Community; The Grocery Store
Gray: Miss DeCormier	United States: Scandinavian Countries; British Isles; Sesquicentennial
Harlan: Miss Hudson	Sesquicentennial Celebration; Sweden
Lore: Mrs. Crossan	Home Unit; The Farm
Lore: Mrs. Frasier	Boats
Williams: Mrs. Church	Home Unit; Types of Homes
Williams: Mrs. Ewing	Tercentenary; Sesquicentennial; Holland; Indians
No. 21: Miss Simpson	Transportation; Clothing
Delmar: Miss Ellis	How Our Community Prepares for Winter
Millsboro: Mrs. Lingo	Nature Around Us
Marshallton: Mrs. Kennard	Books and Bookmaking; Home; Farm
Milford: Mrs. Russell	Safety; The Home; The Community

All teaching of the mentally subnormal accepts the fact that their intellectual achievement will always be severely limited.

It attempts mainly to develop emotional and character traits that will make dull children acceptable members of the community, and to enable them to earn a living and to meet others with reasonable success. While correcting their defects so far as is possible is important, the vital problem with such children is to discover their special abilities, interests, and attitudes, and to develop to the highest possible degree any of these that might prove useful.

"In the practical workaday world," says Dr. Wallin, "mentally handicapped children will be judged by what they can do rather than by what they cannot do. It is possible to so develop many of these children that they will be come social and economic assets to the community. Follow-up work on graduates from the special classes for the mentally handicapped and for the physically handicapped has shown that this ideal can be realized to a greater extent with the mentally limited block than with the physically handicapped, surprising as this may seem."

Dr. Wallin's report of objectives and methods in use during his first year has been summarized fully here since it gives a clear idea of the program developed throughout the State during the past seven years. Except where changes are noted, both city and state schools have continued to follow the general principles here laid down.

The Division of Special Education and Mental Hygiene offered its recommendations in two separate groups. The first, for immediate attention, included establishment of one opportunity class and one fresh-air class in the Harlan School in September, 1933; establishment of one or two prevocational classes for boys in No. 24 school, where two rooms were available; and recommendations concerning other types of defectives summarized under their proper headings.

In respect to the prevocational classes mentioned above, Dr. Wallin says:

Provisions of this type would afford great relief for a very troublesome type of maladjusted child for whom no facilities are now available. The following are curriculum suggestions along the lines of motor training for such classes for boys and girls.

For Boys	For Girls
Occupational Tryout Subjects:	Occupational Tryout Subjects:
Electricity Machine Shop Practice Painting and Decorating Woodworking (carpentry, cabinet making, furniture construction, etc. Electric Shoe Repairing Tailoring (cleaning, repairing pressing Junior Commercial Service (the work of messengers, office boys, bundle wrappers, clerical assistants, machine operators, and junior clerks) Auto Mechanics	Foods Cooking Clothing Textiles Sewing Home Making Elementary Dressmaking Tea Room Service Novelty and Millinery work Power Machine Operation
Related and Non-Vocational Subjects	Related and Non-Vocational Subjects:
Mechanical Drawing Mathematics English Spelling Reading Composition Grammar Handwriting History and Geography Physical Education and Hygiene Vocational and Educational Guidance	Much as for boys

(Wallin, 1932, p. 12)

The long-range program, to be initiated as rapidly as funds permitted during the decade 1932-1942, was presented in the form of a table, reproduced below following the recommendations of Dr. Wallin. It is interesting to compare these seven-year-old recommendations with the summary of present needs on pages 139-140.

(1) Were these classes centralized in one of the old buildings, the children could be better classified, departmental instruction could be introduced, and nineteen or twenty handled in each class. Rooms thus vacated could be used for opportunity classes. However, it would be necessary to supply street car fare for some children.

(2) These classes should be distributed in the regular grade buildings. Rooms are now available in the Lore, Williams, and the new Harlan. If two classes could be established in certain schools better grouping and departmentalization could be effected, and twenty-five pupils carried on the register of each class.

Some of these cases will prove in the end to be restoration cases and will be returned to the grades. To some extent these classes will subserve the function of restoration classes, although that is not their primary function.

The number of opportunity classes required could be reduced somewhat by the introduction of ability grouping, provided, however, that the ability grouping is accompanied by a ssytem of differential instruction for bright and dull children, and provided the sections for the dull are somewhat smaller than the other sections and are supplied with more material for construction work.

(3) I would recommend that a Boy's Prevocational School be established in one of the abandoned buildings for boys from about 13 to about 16, under the joint support of the Wilmington Public Schools and the State Department of Public Instruction to serve pupils in the Wilmington territory, and that a similar school for girls be similarly established when funds permit. However, I would not recommend such dual support unless the State Department of Public Instruction assumed the full overhead for the children from the surrounding school districts.

The number of applicants for these schools will, no doubt, prove to be greater than the estimates I have given. However, it should be understood that older children will be transferred from the opportunity classes to these schools (and occasionally some of the ablest ones from the specials), so that the estimates of the children for the Special, Opportunity, and Prevocational Classes cannot be summated.

These classes can handle from 18 to 25 in a class, although most teachers hold that an enrollment of 25 is too large.

(4)
When a sufficient number of special, opportunity, and prevocational classes have been established the large majority of these cases will respond. There may be need for one day-class for so-called incorrigibles. But I think it is more important to first secure enough classes that will adjust to the interests and the abilities of the children.

(5)
Only about one-third of orthopedic cases need to be in a special class. I have no definite knowledge of the number of such children in Wilmington. I have requested one of the Orthopedic Clinics to supply me with data, but no information has reached me thus far.

(6)
The number of these cases according to the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness is one in 500. We found one in 800 in Baltimore, but the investigation was not finished at the time. There are probably enough cases in Wilmington (or at least in the Wilmington territory) for one class. These children will recite with the sighted children.

(7)
A class for the blind might be supported jointly by the Wilmington schools and the State Department for Public Instruction, rather than institutionalizing the children in other states at public expense.

(8)
The School for Deaf Children of Wilmington might be supported jointly by the Wilmington Schools and the State Department of Public Instruction.

(9)
I do not at this writing know if there are enough cardiacs in the schools who should be in a class of this kind. Most cardiacs can be handled in the regular grades provided they can remain on the same floor, provided the teachers properly control their physical activities in the school and on the grounds, and provided a proper rest and nutritive program is observed. Some of the others can be handled in the fresh-

(9) continued

air classes or in classes for crippled children, although this is not the ideal solution.

(10)
This estimate is far more conservative than the White House Conference estimate. But many of these cases can probably be handled fairly successfully with modified instructional and rest programs in health instruction groups in the regular classrooms, and with the milk feeding program in the regular grades. Provisions now exist for two fresh-air suites.

WILMINGTON PUBLIC SCHOOLS
WILMINGTON, DELAWARE

SPECIAL CLASSES THAT SHOULD BE ESTABLISHED FOR CHILDREN HAVING VARIOUS TYPES OF MENTAL OR PHYSICAL DEFECTS

Type of Defect	No. in Class	No. of Classes	Where
I. Mental			
1. Special Classes for Individual Instruction (mentally deficient cases)	17 (single class units)	Seven	(1)
2. Opportunity Classes (borderline and backward cases)	22 (single class units)	About ten	(2)
3. Prevocational Schools (borderline, backward and motorminded)	100 boys 75 girls	1 school for boys 1 school for girls	(3)
4. Speech Defectives	In groups of from 5 to 18, twice weekly	Two teachers to start, each to handle from 100 to 150 cases	Traveling teachers
5. Behavior Cases	?		(4)
II. Physical			
1. Orthopedic Cases	About 20	One	(5)
2. Sight Conservation	16 to 20	One	(6)
3. Blind children	10	One	(7)
4. Hard-of-hearing	In groups of from 5 to 15	One teacher to handle about 100 cases	Traveling teachers
5. Deaf Children	10	One teacher	(8)
6. Cardiac	?		(9)
7. Serious malnutrites, anemic cases, non-active tuberculary predisposed, cardio-paths, and delicate convalescents	About 25	Four	(10)

1933-34 marked definite progress in both city and State.

In Wilmington, the Director's time was consumed largely in conferences with school officials regarding specific problems, inspection of classes in operation, and the examination and assignment of special-class cases.

He made 259 separate case reports to the proper school officials after careful study of examination results. This matter received particular attention, since the success of the entire program rests upon correct diagnosis and assignment of referred cases. All students enrolled on full time in special classes had received individual examination, with the exception of eight who were irregularly placed by a principal.

Enrolled in nine special classes were 274 children, though 78 of them were on part-time only. Three opportunity and one mixed class were opened in the fall of 1933. Because of the need for retrenchment in school costs, enrollment in special classes was increased from 16 to 20, and in opportunity classes from 22 to 25. Without exception, the teachers felt that the heavier load seriously cut the efficiency of their work.

Some of the articles made in the special classes were sold; although sales realized only $44.47 in six reporting schools, they helped give children an idea of the value of the things they had learned to make, and they supplied the teachers with a small petty cash fund for emergency use in carrying out various projects.

Teachers with adequate technical training in the instruction of subnormals are essential to any program of special education worthy of the name. Although the requirements of the Wilmington Board of Education included eighteen semester credits in courses chosen from the approved list of the White House Conference, teachers already in

service were allowed a "reasonable" time to meet them.

In this connection Dr. Wallin makes several recommendations in regard to the courses to be accepted for credit. They should in all cases be special education courses, because it is taken for granted that special-class teachers have the general background information demanded of all instructors. Courses in Tests and Measurements for them, for instance, should be "clinical, diagnostic, and remedial and not merely the general test courses usually offered." The Director's approval should be got in advance for all contemplated professional study since special education courses are frequently offered even at reputable universities by instructors who have had no first-hand contact with the problems they venture to discuss. "Such courses," says Dr. Wallin, "are often worse than useless." It is almost impossible for the non-specialist to tell from the titles listed in catalogues whether or not he will actually obtain the sort of work he is seeking.

During 1933-34, questionnaires were addressed to all Wilmington schools asking an estimate of the number of handicapped children enrolled. Answers from all except Wilmington High School yielded a total of 998 pupils considered by their teachers as fit subjects for special-class instruction. This, of course, was in no way a scientifically accurate survey. Dr. Wallin's estimate during his first year based upon statistical probability had been 500. Later tests have continued to prove that this early estimate was very conservative, so far as the proportion of feebleminded cases is concerned. Though Dr. Wallin makes no reference to it, some educators long associated with Delaware schools charge that it was once a common practice of certain children's societies to dump defective dependent

children from other states into communities here, and that certain sections of the State still show the effects in an abnormal proportion of feeblemindedness. The State was finally forced to defend itself by legal measures.

Recommendations for the general improvement of the department were:

1. Employment of a psychometrist for work in individual testing and some of the routine functions of special-class supervision. This would make possible far more examinations, besides freeing the Director for the type of duties only a specialist is qualified to perform.

2. As funds become available, more classes for various retarded and subnormal groups must be established. The prospectus for such classes was included in the report for 1932-33.

3. Establishment and discontinuance of special classes must be the sole right of the central administrative offices, with the approval of the division of special education. All transfers to and from special classes must be in accord with the rules sent to the schools in September, 1932. Flagrant violations of these principles had occurred in two of the colored schools.

4. A return to the earlier standard enrollment as soon as possible is advisable.

The work of the Division of Special Education continued during its third year along lines similar to those it had already laid out. The director had spent more time than previously in preparing publicity releases to acquaint the public with the program. Supervision of existing special classes continued. Visits were made to the various schools to discuss problems of defective children enrolled, mental hygiene cases, placements, and similar matters. No new classes were

opened, though all the old ones were in operation, and the enrollment rose to 317, as compared with 274 in 1933-34.

The Mental Hygiene Clinic was still the only agency equipped for testing pupils. Dr. Wallin felt strongly that the city, to continue its work efficiently, should have its own psychometrist, subject to the schools' jurisdiction, and available for call at any time. The State Hospital unit had rendered invaluable service to the schools, but its time was limited, and its examinations and reports were necessarily at its own convenience, not that of the school. There had been a certain amount of confusion, too, due to conflict in jurisdiction between the two agencies. This matter was later adjusted according to the arrangement discussed in detail on page 136.

It had been possible this year to secure many more physical examinations of children referred to the Division of Special Education than had previously been the case. Two physicians connected with the Wilmington schools had completed between them 131 such tests.

Though the number of special classes of various sorts in the city had remained constant through the year, and their enrollment increased slightly, Wilmington still ranked far below similar population centers in the provision it made for handicapped pupils. Studies of six other cities in this section lend striking confirmation to the charge. Sussex county, also, has more special classes and greater enrollment, in proportion to population, than Wilmington. Organization, administration, and instruction in the existing classes had improved during the year.

Before the work with defective children was systematized, most of the classes, no matter what their label, enrolled problem students of all types. Mental ability within the same group varied widely. Some of the members were not primarily cases of scholastic or

intellectual handicap. In restoration classes, many pupils were of subnormal or borderline intelligence. Such mixed grouping defeated the chief purpose of the classes. It likewise increased parental objection to having children assigned to them. By 1934-35, a "reasonably satisfactory system of classification of children in the special classes had been introduced."

The one serious grouping problem still unsolved was the matter of having too wide an age range. This was unavoidable until pre-vocational classes had been opened for the older boys and girls in the dull groups.

Children were no longer assigned to special classes except under the authority of the Department of Special Education. No assignment was made before the full report on the child had been examined; the very few exceptions were cases where principals acted in defiance of the regulations, or where examination reports were held up unreasonably by circumstances beyond the control of the department.

After three years of careful supervisory work teaching methods were far closer to the ideal laid down in an earlier report. Every effort had been made to make their work seem important and real to the children, and to make it actually give these handicapped girls and boys the sort of skills and interests they could use as adults. There was much emphasis upon training of the senses and muscular control. In restoration classes teachers had a better understanding of how to find out just what their pupils' difficulties were and of efficient methods for helping them. Problems of moral and social adjustment received much attention. Social activities projects and units had become the chief form of instruction.

Two factors besides better supervision had contributed to the improvement in teaching. All classes were reasonably well-equipped now, so that a far richer curriculum could be offered, though some desirable types of activity were still impossible. Some of the teachers had taken courses designed to increase their professional efficiency. Here, too, there was room for improvement, since some of the staff were still unsuited to such assignments and unwilling to take advantage of opportunities for further training.

None of the major recommendations of the previous year had been acted upon. They were repeated for 1934-35. In addition, Dr. Wallin asked that space be reserved in the Wilmington High School for pre-vocational classes for the older mental defectives, or, if that proved impracticable, that school No. 4 be repossessed and re-conditioned for such classes for white boys.

Once funds have been allocated to the department, they should be handled at the discretion of the Director; the sole function of the business office should be to see that the budget is not exceeded.

For 1935-36, no report is available. It is learned, however, from an interview with Dr. Wallin, that in September, 1935, a psychometrist was finally employed by the city school system. Her assistance speeded up the work of examination to a considerable degree, and made Wilmington schools less dependent upon the Mental Hygiene Clinic for tests of a routine character.

Two important changes in the set-up for the care of mental defectives were completed before the Report for 1936-37 was made. The schools and the Mental Hygiene Clinic had divided the examination field between them according to a definite agreement, so that their work no longer conflicted or overlapped. A beginning had been made

in the long-contemplated program of prevocational training for dull adolescents when such classes were opened at the Howard School. No work of this type was provided for white children until 1938-39 (See p.126 for curriculum).

According to the arrangement with the Mental Hygiene Clinic, it was to examine the following: Children referred by child-caring organizations; youths in state institutions other than public schools; Juvenile Court cases; pre-school children subject to behavior, emotional, and habit disorders; and public-school children referred by the Department of Special Education for psychiatric examinations and for mental hygiene and psychiatric treatment for behavior disorders, emotional instabilities, and neuro-psychiatric disturbance. It was also to provide follow-up mental hygiene and psychiatric treatment in cases where symptoms of developing mental or nervous disturbances appeared.

The Department of Special Education was to examine public school children who were mentally deficient, mentally or educationally retarded, subject to specific mental or educational disabilities, or who constituted special educational problems because of other types of defects or maladjustments. Other cases might be examined upon special request as time permitted.

During 1936-37, a total of 379 children were examined by the schools and 10 by the Mental Hygiene Clinic. Because a prevocational class was being opened for them, an unusually large proportion of colored children were among those examined. Reexaminations, because of difficulties revealed at the first test, had begun to assume importance in the Division's program. Physical examination of children referred for apparent mental deficiency was possible in 269 cases

through the cooperation of the school medical inspectors.

As in previous years, the Director's time was consumed in consideration and correlation of test reports, disposal of cases, visits to schools regarding specific problems, preparation of reports for both local and out-of-state agencies, committee meetings, and talks to groups of teachers and laymen interested in various phases of the education of handicapped children.

A total of 439 children were examined by the Division of Special Education and 6 by the Mental Hygiene Clinic. Again a disproportionately large fraction of the totals was supplied by the colored schools, as examinations of candidates for Howard Prevocational Classes continued. Many of the others examined were candidates for a second prevocational group planned for the Bayard School for September 1938. The type of tests required for accurate diagnosis of cases considered for prevocational classes are particularly time-consuming because the children, being older, can complete a greater part of the standard I.Q. and achievement tests, and because a wider variety of tests is advisable for such placement. The department has not been able to use as complete a battery as the best practice dictates. The number of physical examinations accompanying the I.Q. and achievement reports fell sharply. Personal and family histories are compiled by school nurses, and educational records by the teachers. It was impossible to secure home reports on all non-residents and a considerable number of others whose parents the nurses could not find at home.

The total enrollment in classes of various types for the mentally handicapped rose slightly during 1937-38 to 256 in special and opportunity classes, and 192 in the prevocational class at Howard. This

total includes all registrants, whether or not they were assigned for full time, and without regard to the length of time attended. The number enrolled full time throughout the year was somewhat smaller in both divisions than it was in 1936-37, though twelve more children attended at some time.

Sale of articles made in special classes had increased to the point where receipts totalled $134.62, representing an increase in nearly every school.

Throughout its existence the department has emphasized the need for making all instruction in special classes very concrete, as active as possible, and basing it upon subject-matter that would be "of practical social value to the retarded child."

The Wilmington office has been seriously handicapped by lack of adequate stenographic service. During the latter half of 1937-38, when the office had been obliged to rely almost entirely upon co-operatives from the high school commercial courses, the situation was particularly bad. The girls, of course, were not fully trained, and, to complicate matters, frequently left to accept positions with small salaries just as they began to acquire some familiarity with the required routine. Messy reports, incompleted work, and confusion were the inevitable results. This office is further handicapped by lack of space, not only for proper filing of records, but even for physical accommodation of the people who must work there.

Prevocational classes for white adolescents were opened at Bayard School in the fall of 1939; combined enrollment of other groups and the one at Howard totalled 320.

The facilities of the division are taxed to their limit by examination of candidates for special classes of various grades. Unless

further assistance can be obtained, the department will be forced to limit its services to such examinations.

It remains difficult to obtain an adequate supply of first-rate teachers for special classes, because no proper differential is offered as an inducement. There is no reason to expect people who are doing satisfactory work in regular grades to specialize, at considerable expense, and for a very exacting type of service, unless they can so advance their rating. Wilmington does grant special class instructors junior high rating, but the rest of the State gives them no differential whatever. Although possibly seven hundred teachers from the two systems have pursued courses in special education, a negligible number have indicated any desire to enter the field as teachers.

There are in Wilmington sufficient numbers of handicapped children of various types to require the establishment of "practically all the different kinds of special classes and special educational services which are now an integral part of the program in all the larger cities throughout the nation," if the terms of the new school law are to be carried out.

THE SUB-NORMAL IN STATE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

In the Annual Report of the State Board of Education for 1932-33, Dr. Wallin has summarized the situation he found outside Wilmington when he assumed his position as director of the Division of Special Education and Mental Hygiene.

There was no census of defective children of school age. The estimates of the 1932 White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, based upon the proportion of defectives in the populations of the States which have made surveys of the problem, placed the number of mental subnormals in Delaware at 1,080. The definitely feeble-minded were estimated at 360, and borderline and backward cases at 720. As reported before, this estimate has proved conservative. Between three and four percent of the children of school age should be in special classes. Approximately one percent are definitely feeble-minded. This estimate included the city of Wilmington. Of the thousand children who probably needed special class treatment, about 140 were enrolled in special public school classes. Institutional cases at Stockley account for a sizable block of the most defective type, but the proportion of subnormals receiving proper training, remains dangerously low.

Very few of the schools which had or needed special classes had sufficient space available for the kind of work such children require. This was equally true of the older schools and the buildings erected during the construction program that in 1933 was nearly completed. The problem of defectives of all types had apparently never been considered in drawing up plans for most of the new schools.

The new division was hampered also by an insufficient diagnostic staff. The "division," in fact, meant one man, shared equally by Wilmington and the rest of the State. Though the State Board of Health and the Mental Hygiene Clinic of the Delaware State Hospital cooperated

to the full extent of their facilities, it was impossible to secure prompt and complete examination for all children who needed it.

Since candidates for special classes are found in every part of the State, and many of them in schools too small to consider providing such instruction, Dr. Wallin suggested that special ungraded groups be established at convenient central points, each to serve an entire section. The existing school bus service made the plan entirely feasible. Chief drawbacks were lack of space, funds, and well-trained teachers.

The State schools had not yet adopted a set of standards for class admission and teacher certification similar to the ones in force in Wilmington. Candidates for two special classes had, however, been psychologically examined.

Special classes existed in five communities outside Wilmington during the school year 1932-33.

The State report for 1933-34 is far more detailed than that of the previous year.

There were special or opportunity classes in six towns, Lewes, Milford, Delmar, Marshallton, Millsboro, and Milton, enrolling 124 children. In the State Board units, this type of education dates only from 1929. Fifteen other schools, in a survey made by the department, reported the need for similar classes to meet the requirements of their own and neighboring districts. Only five of them, however, had an available room, and only three one that was really well-suited to the purpose. There was little equipment that could be adapted to the sort of work done in low-ability classes. Lack of funds to employ an extra teacher was the chief reason for not organizing classes in these communities. What had been accomplished in the six pioneer towns was, indeed, merely a suggestion of the problem facing

the State.

In schools where special classes were in operation, there had been surprisingly little opposition on the part of parents to having their children transferred to them. School officials were convinced that both the special class children and the regular sections from which they were withdrawn had benefitted by the arrangement. The program for these children stressed handwork and social adjustment.

Because of lack of facilities, only a fraction of those needing individual psychological examination had been referred, and only a small proportion of those referred could be handled. Remarks concerning both the assistance the Mental Hygiene Clinic rendered in the early stages of the public school program in Wilmington, and its inadequacy as a permanent part of the school set-up, are equally applicable to the State work.

Dr. Wallin's recommendations for the improvement of special education facilities outside Wilmington give a fair conception of the situation existing in 1933-34:

For all elementary teachers courses in mental hygiene and the problems of defectives are important and should be mandatory. For those in charge of special classes they are vital. In order to attract suitable teachers and give them an incentive to perfect their professional equipment, the State should offer a salary differential comparable to that in force in Wilmington.

In Delaware, the regular classroom teachers are especially in need of training in the diagnosis and care of defectives, since the great majority of such children will be in the regular classes for some years to come. Even when the department is fully organized, the less seriously affected members of all handicapped groups will, as they should, remain in the regular sections. To date, the courses

Dr. Wallin has offered in various centers around the State have been well attended. He estimates the enrollment at approximately 700. (1933-39 inclusive)

There is need for a considerable extension of special and opportunity classes in the State. Not only the feeble-minded and retarded children now in regular classes, receiving little benefit for themselves and hindering the work of their normal classmates, but also many of those now committed to Stockley, could be accommodated.

Dr. Wallin believes that only four types of mental defectives belong in an institution. Any individuals who show signs of being potentially dangerous in any way should, of course, be confined. Those who are public charges and cannot be placed in satisfactory foster homes, or whose families cannot or will not control them in their out-of-school hours, must go where they can receive supervision. A few such children form a heavy burden to others in the family, absorbing time and effort that belong to the normal members; they, too, are a problem for Stockley. All idiots and most imbecile grades are clearly institutional cases. Others than these four groups should be provided for in special classes in public schools.

Such a course gives several advantages. Institutional care costs the State from twice to three times as much as day-school special classes. For many types of child it is less effective than sound training in public school, coupled with normal family life in his own or a foster home. Those who have worked with dependent or physically handicapped young people have realized this for a number of years; students of the problems of mental defectives are becoming increasingly convinced that it is true of them also. The residential school regime is not particularly designed for educating children for independent, cooperative living in society - an ability dull pupils

need above all others. A good home, on the other hand, provides constant normal contacts, as well as the affection and the sense of "belonging" so difficult for boarding schools to supply, and so necessary to any child. Though the exact role of environment in mental development is still a matter of controversy, there is mounting evidence that it is far more important than early theories assumed. It is undeniably a determining factor in social adjustment. Finally, Dr. Wallin says in his report for 1933-34, children who do not belong there are occasionally committed to schools for the feeble-minded. If no defectives but the dangerous, the dependent or unsupervised, and the idiotic and imbecilic are considered institutional cases, there will not be tragic errors, difficult to correct, in the committment of borderline individuals. If such a student proves to be merely a restoration problem, he can be returned to his proper grade when his difficulties have been adjusted with no more formality than a transfer from one school or class to another.

In another discussion of the same problem in the Annual Report for 1937-38, Dr. Wallin concludes: "It goes without saying that the colonies for the feeble-minded should make ample provisions for the dependent, unprotected, and uncontrolled mental defective adolescents above school age and adults in need of colony care. The more nearly the public schools adjust their instructional programs to the needs of 'all the children of all the people' the less will the need be for expensive institutional commitment. The faithful execution of this policy will result in substantial economies to the taxpayer."

In Delaware, because of the central system of financing all schools, and the universal school bus service, it should be especially feasible to organize special classes for serving conveniently an entire region. Such classes should be organized without regard to existing district lines. The State should assume responsibility for

all overhead. All new buildings planned in locations that would make convenient centers for such work should be designed with this set-up in view.

Adequate examination facilities are a basic necessity for any satisfactory program of special education.

All educational activity at public expense in behalf of defective or mal-adjusted children should be supervised by the Division of Special Education and Mental Hygiene of the Department of Public Instruction.

The Report of the Department of Public Instruction for 1934-35 shows that slow, but significant progress was being achieved.. Surveys of the schools of Wilmington and the rest of the State indicated, during this and previous years, that the estimate of approximately 4,000 handicapped children among the school population is "reasonably conservative." This number includes all cases of mental or physical handicap of varying degrees of severity.

A total of 175 written case reports were issued on 159 children from 32 schools. Two new special classes, at Laurel and Lord Baltimore, were opened, giving a total registration for the entire State of 477, including Wilmington, in special classes of various grades. Since 1932 the number of such classes in the State had increased almost 250 percent, with the most active development in Sussex county. Delaware, however, still ranked far below other similar population centers in this section of the country in provision for handicapped students.

The schools that had attempted such work for the mentally retarded group reported that they still had remarkably little active opposition to the program and had met much praise of its accomplishments. Most of the previous recommendations are repeated. The Division repeats its claim that most mentally defective children can safely

be cared for in the public schools, and that such provision is usually in the best interests of all concerned. Again it emphasizes that a better examination service is imperative if any really worthwhile program is to be achieved; a State subsidy is necessary to encourage formation of special classes where they are needed; some equitable financing arrangement must be worked out if the idea of central classes for thinly populated sections is to become a fact.

The only really new suggestions are that a prevocational division be organized at the Conrad School for the older retarded white children in the section southwest of Wilmington, and that the recently abandoned Mt. Pleasant School be retained for similar classes for those in the north suburbs.

In January 1936 the department received a subsidy of $3,800 from the Delaware Citizens' Association (the same organization which was so important a factor in the school rehousing program then drawing to a close) "for furtherance of programs of special education and mental hygiene, and the prevention of delinquency and crime." It has enabled the department to get needed equipment and material both for its own use and for the special classes under State jurisdiction; to offer summer courses for teachers at the University of Delaware, and to employ a psychoeducational examiner for the department. Courses were offered on the University of Delaware campus during only one season. Dr. Wallin has, however, since offered extension courses at nine centers throughout the State under the auspices of University of Delaware, Rutgers, and New York University; subjects included education of handicapped children, mental hygiene, and abnormal psychology.

One new special class, at New Castle, was opened, which balanced the discontinuance of one in Sussex. Plans had been afoot, and

candidates examined for special classes in several places, but few had actually been opened. Kent county had none at all, and New Castle county outside Wilmington had only two. Sussex county, in proportion to its population, supported more than Wilmington. The incidence of feeble-mindedness and serious retardation is about the same in the various sections of the commonwealth. The total enrollment in the various classes was 386; excluding the Wilmington enrollment, this represented a decrease of 16 from the previous year.

As in Wilmington, handwork made in special classes was offered for sale to help defray costs of special equipment, and to give the children a conception of the value of the objects they were learning to make.

There was still surprisingly little parental objection to the program and a gratifying amount of enthusiastic cooperation.

Courses accepted for preparation of special teachers had been completed by 496 teachers from the State, including Wilmington, but only three individuals other than Wilmington special class teachers had applied to have their credits evaluated for special-class certificates. A differential, Dr. Wallin repeated, was necessary if high-grade instructors were to be attracted to this type of work.

Financing of the special-class program was still unsatisfactory, since responsibility for the extra expense involved fell upon the districts that attempted to provide them. This appeared to the department a State, rather than a local responsibility, and ought to be the next item of educational activity considered. Delaware, says the report, should try to achieve "at least a good average ranking in the education of its 'submerged tenth'" before adding to the already superior service offered the normal child.

Courses in mental hygiene, it repeats, should be part of the

required training of all teachers, since care of the slightly abnormal falls to the lot of the regular classroom instructor under the best of conditions, and since no other factor can compare in importance to mental health for anyone, regardless of intelligence, health, occupational status, or other circumstance. By the spring of 1939, about 700 teachers from Wilmington, special district, and State Board schools, had completed the extension courses referred to above.

In 1937, the Division reports funds received from the Delaware Citizens' Association had again made it possible to secure equipment and supplies for the department, had paid most of the expenses of psychological and audiometric examinations, and had underwritten courses in mental hygiene offered to local teachers. The Junior League of Wilmington and the Women's Club of Trinity Episcopal Church, also contributed toward the work of the Division.

There was still a deplorable lack of public support for this phase of the school program. Though Dr. Wallin's report does not mention it, comments from people concerned with various aspects of the care and education of handicapped individuals in the State indicate that it is very difficult to show the Delaware public how important such education is. It is expensive, of course, when measured against the costs for those who have no special problems. But leaving handicapped children and adults to shift for themselves is expensive business, too. It means that someone must support a large percentage of them all their lives. None can, unaided, become as efficient as training could have made them. Few of those who can receive any education cannot repay society for its cost. Certainly, when one considers the loss an occasional pervert can cause, or the contribution a highly gifted person with some physical defect may make to his generation, the dollars and

cents value of providing sound education for the handicapped as well as the normal becomes evident.

During 1936-37, 479 children were examined from 41 schools. In addition, 159 others had been referred who for one reason or another could not be examined. Case histories complete enough to make diagnoses satisfactory were in many cases difficult to obtain.

Most subnormals belong to the borderline and backward groups--the type that in their adolescence can be best accommodated in prevocational classes. In the upper grades, they are completely at sea, often become seriously maladjusted in their social relationships through trying to cope with a set of situations utterly beyond their abilities, and present one of the most serious problems of the entire school program. Yet there was until 1938-39 in the entire State only one school designed for the needs of young people of this type, the Howard Prevocational Classes for colored children in and around Wilmington.

There was no change in the number of special classes outside Wilmington. The city supported 15 classes with 436 students, Sussex had 7 classes with 133 pupils, and rural New Castle one class. Kent continued to ignore the existence of very dull and subnormal children among its school population.

Lack of room, or of money for teacher and equipment, remained the chief obstacle in carrying out plans made but never executed in many sections.

The greatest progress the Division of Special Education has made was in the field of clinical and diagnostic fact-finding through psycho-physical examinations. There had been, in the six years of operation, a gradual increase in the number and enrollment of classes for retarded children. The General Assembly, in 1937, for the

first time in the State's history, made special provision for the education of a handicapped group in the regular public schools, when it increased the per capita rate paid from the school fund from the $65 for regular classes to $100 for pupils assigned to special classes. So far as the State was concerned, however, all other handicapped groups except some of the totally deaf or blind were left to shift for themselves.

During the school year 1937-38, 626 students from 63 schools were psychologically examined. Two full-time examiners were available. By dividing the territory between them, they were able to offer the department's services to more pupils from more schools than had ever before been possible. In addition, they had had time to make many of the home visits and to compile many of the personal histories the less routine cases required for complete diagnosis.

At least twenty classes outside Wilmington could be filled with those sufficiently mentally or educationally retarded to need special class facilities. Kent county still has none, and rural New Castle only one. Outside Wilmington, there is no provision whatever for mentally defective or retarded colored children, in spite of the fact that retardation among them has a much higher incidence than among the whites. There is no opportunity, other than in the Howard School, for vocational training for any colored adolescents, either normal or dull. For both colored and white schools there is particular need for prevocational classes for the reasons stated above.

The report of the Division of Special Education to the Department of Public Instruction for 1938-39 has several items of particular interest at this time. Although the report had not been revised for publication at the time this paper was prepared, the Federal Writers were allowed to see the preliminary draft. The

usual statistical items are included for the year in Table I, though the figures may be subject to correction. The first follow-up study of a group of former special-class students in any schools in the State appears. Recommendations are unusually important because of the new situation produced by passage of the law relative to handicapped and retarded pupils.

In the vocational study, case-records of thirty-three former students of three classes in the southern part of the State are included. The pupils range in age from sixteen to twenty-three; most of them are between seventeen and nineteen, and only three over twenty-one. I.Q.'s vary from a low of 52 to a high of 82, with most scores in the high sixties and low seventies. Occupations at which these young people are now earning their living include factory or mill work, 3 individuals; truck-driving, hotel work, "working on a bridge," and filing clerk, 1 individual each; farm labor, 2 individuals; CCC, 2; WPA, 3; and employment on the home farm, 15. The majority of those working for wages earn $2.00 or $2.50 per day, though highs of $22.00 and $18.00 per week are recorded. The schools are in farming communities, so the large proportion of former students who remain at home and assist with the work there is quite normal. These young people, though their cash earnings are impossible of computation, are self-supporting as much as their class mates who enter the industrial labor market. The report calls particular attention to the fact that most of this group are still minors.

Under the new law, all "principals, superintendents, teachers, and visiting teachers in every school district" are required to report all "seriously retarded children and all physically and mentally handicapped children" who are "not being properly educated or trained."

The State Board of Education must have such children properly examined and most provide "special classes or special facilities wherever possible to meet the needs of all children recommended for special training." The Division of Special Education recommends that all schools be supplied with copies of the act so they may be familiar with their obligations under it.

The type and number of classes the State and the city of Wilmington need if they are to comply with the law have already been discussed in connection with previous departmental reports. Briefly summarized, these are: At least twenty-five more classes for the mentally defective and retarded; fresh-air classes for children of lowered vitality (defined in detail in the section which follows) in Wilmington and at least all the larger special districts; traveling teachers of speech-and-lip reading for the hard-of-hearing, and of speech correction for those with speech defects; they should serve at least all the larger centers. Wilmington has a sufficient number of children in need of special facilities to require all the special training services supplied in all the larger cities of the nation.

To prepare for the new program certain technical details need prompt attention. Proper forms for reporting handicaps should be drawn up. Standards for eligibility for the various types of special service should be formulated; at present regulations cover only special and opportunity class candidates and fresh-air class candidates in Wilmington. Examination facilities should be made available; without them it will be impossible to carry out the provisions of the law. This involves adequate support of the psycho-educational clinic of the division, since 1936 supplied by the Delaware Citizens' Association." Specialized educational facilities must be instituted as early as possible to meet the needs of the different

handicapped groups. Thus far facilities exist for only a limited number of mentally retarded children. Most mentally retarded children, especially in the schools outside Wilmington, are still in the regular grades."

Audiometric equipment should be increased to make it possible to give both group and individual tests; duplicate equipment should be available in both the northern and southern sections of the State.

Certificates in special education should be granted candidates who have fulfilled the eighteen semester-hour requirement for special-class teachers.

A definite budget should be provided for purchase of books, journals, and other incidentals for the division, such as other branches of the State Department of Public Instruction receive.

An adequate travel allowance should be authorized for official trips, and budget transfers to meet inadequacies in certain brackets.

Need for more adequate space and stenographic service in the Wilmington office is repeated.

The only serious weakness of the bill providing special education for the handicapped is its failure to include an appropriation. Passage of the Pepper-Boland Bill, pending in the House of Representatives after approval in the Senate at the time this paper was being prepared, would be of great assistance to Delaware in financing its new program. The Journal-Every Evening for May 18, 1939 carried an account of the effect the proposed legislation would have upon the local situation. In part, it is as follows:

"Dr. J. E. W. Wallin, director of mental hygiene and special education in the public schools, has forwarded to U. S. Rep. George S. Williams of Delaware estimates of children in Delaware who would come within the purview of the Pepper-Boland bill:

"Speech defectives, about 1100. We are not affording any remedial treatment for any of these children at present.

"Children of lowered vitality (seriously malnourished, incipient tuberculosis, and anemic children in need of special treatment in fresh air classes), about 1100. We have no classes for children of this type in this state although we have two suites of rooms properly constructed for such classes in Wilmington.

"Hard of hearing children in need of speech and lip reading, about 500. We have already identified about 400 of these children through the audiometric tests administered by this department.

"Deaf children, about 32.

"Partially sighted, about 130. For some of these we should have sight-conservation classes.

"Blind children, about 25.

"Crippled children, about 200.

"Cardiopathic children, about 50.

Most of these could be taken care of in the classes for children of lowered vitality.

"We have at the present time," Dr. Wallin added, "25 classes for mentally retarded children in the state and in Wilmington. However, we would receive no aid for the maintenance of these classes from the appropriation provided in the Pepper-Boland bill.

"It would be feasible to start in Wilmington classes for children of lowered vitality, sight-conversation classes, classes for the deaf, for the cardiopathic, and possibly for the blind. Traveling

teachers of speech correction and lip reading could function in Wilmington as well as in other sections in a number of the special districts.

"From the $40,000 appropriated output, it would be possible to maintain the necessary administrative, supervisory, and examination services and also some of the classes."

QUALIFICATIONS FOR SPECIAL-CLASS TEACHERS

Extract from: State of Delaware, Department of Public Instruction: Rules and Regulations for the Certification of Superintendents, Supervisors, Principals, and Teachers, 1938; section 32, pp. 12-13.

A Certificate for Special Class Teachers required in all special classes for mentally handicapped children may be granted to an applicant who has fulfilled the requirements of a collegiate certificate in elementary education (Rule 30), and who has had at least two years of successful teaching experience, and has secured, as a part of his college course or in addition thereto, at least eighteen (18) semester hours of approved preparation in the field of special education distributed as follows:

Study and Education of Handicapped Children — Four (4) semester hours

Mental and Educational Hygiene — Four (4) semester hours

Clinical and Abnormal Psychology — Four (4) semester hours

Diversified Industrial Arts and Manual Training — 2-6 semester hours

Observation, Participation and Practice Teaching in Classes of the Mentally Deficient and Backward — 2-6 semester hours

Speech Improvement and Correction — Two (2) semester hours

In case of teachers who devote all or nearly all of their time to handicraft work, the credit requirements in approved diversified industrial arts courses shall be at least eighteen (18) semester hours (as part of the undergraduate course or in addition thereto) while the requirement in speech correction will be waived.

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Provided the State Superintendent shall have power to modify the above requirements for college graduates, if in his judgment conditions warrant, such modifications to be reported to the State Board of Education at its next meeting.

Number of Children Psychologically, Educationally and Audiometrically Examined in all the State Schools from September, 1934 to June, 1939, and the number of times Different Psychological and Educational Tests were Administered.

	Number of Retarted or Maladjusted Children Psychologically and Educationally Examined			Number Times the Different Psychological and Educational Tests were Administered			Number of Children Audiometrically Tested by 4A Phono-Audiometer		
Year	State	Wilmington	Total	State	Wilmington	Total	State	Wilmington	Total
1934-35		48	48		96	96			
1935-36	340	500	840	546	1404	1950			
1936-37	479	379	858	1440	1115	2555	4004	5772	9776
1937-38	626	439	1065	1770	1113	2883	5698	2306	8004
Total	1445	1366	2811	3756	3728	7484	9702	8078	17780
1938-39*	1445	439		1813	1025		6191	3073	

* Preliminary figures compiled at close of school year and subject to correction before issuance in Annual Reports.

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ENROLLMENT IN SPECIAL CLASSES[1]

DATE	WILMINGTON	STATE	TOTAL
1923-33	196	134[1]	408[2] (428 estimated)
1933-34	317	160	477
1934-35	242	144	386
1935-36	436[3]	155	591[3]
1936-37	448	161	609
1938-39	571[4]	117[4]	688[4]

1. includes all enrollments, whole and part time and all and part of year.

2. one class, approximately twenty pupils, not reported.

3. increase due largely to opening of prevocational classes at Howard High School in Wilmington.

4. Preliminary figures obtained from Division of Special Education before report had been prepared for publication.

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE COMMITTEE OF SPECIAL CLASSES OF THE DELAWARE WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCE

Mrs. Anne Rowe Stevens, Chairman

(1) The Committee feels in harmony with the White House Conference Committee that the primary obligation for the education of all handicapped children devolves upon the public schools.

(2) There should be established a sufficient number of public school special classes to meet the needs of all types of handicapped children, with adequate equipment, state support, necessary transportation, authority for placement and transfer from one school district to another, and for joint support of classes, if they are not wholly supported by state funds.

(3) Provide adequate facilities for the proper examination and selection of the children of all types under the direction and control of the newly established Division of Special Education and Mental Hygiene.

(4) Provide for the appointment of an assistant in the division of special education and mental hygiene for the supervision of the instructional work in the special classes as soon as the need arises.

(5) Request the State Department of Public Instruction to include among the required courses for all teachers the following courses:

The Study and Education of Handicapped Children,
Remedial Instruction,
Mental and Educational Hygiene,
Clinical and Abnormal Psychology,
Diversified Industrial Arts,

recommended by The White House Conference Committee, to be offered only by experts who have actual clinical and educational experience with different types of handicapped children.

(6) Appoint adequately trained teachers for special class work, and set up definite requirements for the training of such teachers. Recommend that as many as possible of these special courses be made available to Delaware Teachers under competent instruction.

(7) Recommend that an adequate salary differential be set up for special class teachers who possess the necessary specialized training, and that such teachers be certificated.

(8) Institute adequate programs of educational and vocational guidance, as well as after care and placement service for handicapped children, in cooperation with public and private agencies. There should also be provided necessary facilities for research and investigation.

(9) Delaware should enact a mandatory special class law, with proper financial support of the classes.
This measure is justified because the prevention of delinquency, dependency and incompetency, and other serious social consequences which follow the neglect of the proper educational care of the underprivileged, is a measure of vital importance to the whole social fabric.

(10) In connection with the annual child accounting, provide under legal enactment for an enumeration of all physically and mentally handicapped children, (the deaf, crippled, blind, mentally deficient, etc.)

(11) The compulsory education law should apply to all types of handicapped children, and no type of handicapped child should be exempt from compulsory attendance at school except for illness. Provide instruction for the home-bound child who cannot attend school because of lack of transportation or temporary disabling conditions.

(12) There should be established an Advisory Council for handicapped children to work in cooperation with the Division of Special and Mental Hygiene of The State Department of Public Instruction. See Paragraph II-Page 4-Dr. Wallin's Report.

(13) There is a decided need to educate the public in their attitude toward the handicapped. Few states throughout the Union have done so little in establishing classes for the handicapped child, as the State of Delaware.

(14) All educational work in State-supported institutions should be inspected and supervised by the State Department of Public Instruction.

SPEECH DEFECTIVES

Between 1924 and 1930 there was a Speech Clinic held in Wilmington to which the public schools might refer suitable cases. It was held weekly in Wilmington High School under Dr. Elizabeth Stuart of the University of Pennsylvania Speech Clinic; discontinued when she withdrew to open a private school near Philadelphia, it has never been revived. Dr. Wallin's figures indicate about eleven hundred children of school age in need of the assistance such a center can offer.

The White House Conference report states that speech correction should be undertaken at the earliest possible age to secure satisfactory results, and recommends further that all elementary teachers be required to complete a course in speech training. Neither requirement is met in Delaware.

TUBERCULAR CHILDREN

The State Board of Education maintains three schools in connection with centers for the treatment of actual or threatened tuberculosis. Brandywine Sanatorium for active white cases, Edgewood Sanitorium for active negro cases, and Sunnybrook Cottage, a preventorium for white children, each have a school maintained under the rural section of the State Board unit. Each of these institutions admits eligible cases from the entire State.

Detailed information about the schools at Sunnybrook and Edgewood is not available. At the Negro hospital authorities were able to state only that there had been "a full-time teacher for some time" to instruct all children of school age who were physically able to study. The school enrollment in June 1939 was fourteen. Sunnybrook details could not be secured; it is the largest of the three schools, handling, in the course of a year, approximately thirty cases. The State provides a teacher on a half-time basis only, but the Delaware Anti-Tuberculosis Society, which maintains the preventorium, supplements the salary and the funds for equipment and recreation. None of its children are over twelve.

All three schools are in session eleven months of the year. Since all are under the same Department of Education supervisor, it seems reasonable to assume that the details supplied by Brandywine Sanatorium school about its general plan of operation are also true of the others.

Brandywine has a teacher employed for the morning only, eleven months a year. The school is in session for three hours daily, five days a week, and enrolls all children of school age who are considered convalescent. Since its organization in November 1934, thirty-three students have attended at one time or another. In June 1939, there

were nine. The enrollment, of course, is constantly shifting, as children are discharged and new cases admitted. The length of time pupils remain in the school varies widely from child to child, according to the seriousness and the type of each one's illness, but for nearly all, residence is a matter of years rather than months.

The school is organized much as any small rural institution would be. Grades taught range from kindergarten through junior high; the ages of the present group, from five to seventeen. For the most part, the children meet together in the school room, working at their individual assignments under the teacher's supervision. Some individual bedside instruction is given in cases where the medical staff recommends it, and classes are occasionally held out of doors in good weather, but neither practice is a part of the routine program.

The small enrollment makes it possible to adapt the school program to the individual needs and interests of each child to an extent impossible with large groups. The course of study is the one used in the regular State Board schools, but the teachers are allowed the greatest freedom in presenting it. Pupils are permitted to progress as rapidly as they can, and may be promoted at any time they finish the work of a grade. Though they must complete the minimum requirements of a grade in each subject before passing to the next, they are allowed to give special emphasis to subjects that give them real satisfaction.

Only the standard instruction in hygiene and health is offered. Somewhat more than the usual attention is given to music, since it is a diversion the children can enjoy during their hours of enforced rest; lessons in piano and flute are offered to those who can profit by them. Pupils who show an aptitude for it are given opportunity for art work. The children arrange the usual special programs at holiday

seasons, although the need for conserving their strength discourages much activity of this type.

In considering the work of these schools one must never forget that the pupils are convalescents, and that the school program is regarded by the hospital staff somewhat in the light of occupational therapy. Though school authorities supervise the instruction, pay the teachers, and provide the supplies, the physicians have final authority over all phases of the work that affect the children's health.

An important consideration in a program of this sort is that children must not be forced beyond their strength. On the other hand they need occupation to hold their interest, give them encouragement, permit them to feel they are still in contact with the ordinary routine life of others of their age, and help them fit back into their community when they are well. Such considerations have occasioned the flexible program of study and activities. One or two illustrations will suggest the type of adjustments made. An active child with a tendency to attempt too much physical exercise may be given homework to prepare. One who takes great pleasure in art work may be allowed to do the major part of it for the various projects. A five-year-old who was over-active was admitted to the school to give him a legitimate outlet for some of his energy. A ninth grader, a boy in his late teens who has spent most of his life in various hospitals, has been allowed to add French and typewriting to his schedule, since he had expressed keen interest in them. Incidentally, he was compelled to purchase the privilege by coming up to standard in the mathematics he disliked and neglected.

For all of these children, school is a cherished privilege. Many of them are allowed up only for school attendance; weekends and holidays mean twenty-four hours in bed. The teacher who comes for a few hours daily gives all of them a valued contact with the world outside the hospital. She makes it part of her duty to obtain reading material from outside sources for the older children, and perform various small services of the sort that the nurses, on full-time duty, cannot attempt.

It has been impossible to learn much about the personal qualifications and training of the various teachers. The fact that changes in personnel have not been very frequent suggest that both school and hospital supervisors have been satisfied with the candidates chosen. The one individual about whom information was secured is an experienced grade teacher, a competent musician, who has had some of the courses recommended for special teachers, and is herself the mother of a family. Since all vacancies have been promptly filled, it appears that the hospital authorities consider the various programs a success from the standpoint of occupational therapy.

Considered only as schools, they serve a useful purpose. The short school day, in addition to the time completely lost during their serious illnesses, makes it inevitable that the children should be retarded when compared with others of the same age and intelligence. When they are allowed to continue their schooling during convalescence, however, they do not lose the habit of study, nor do they fall so far behind their grade that they have no interest in returning to school after they recover. Though most of these young people are behind their normal grade according to the standard curriculum, some of them are unusually mature in their reading tastes and the type of radio program they enjoy. (This paragraph applies especially to the two sanitorium schools.)

So far as can be learned, there is no program for teaching tubercular adults new trades in cases where return to the old after recovery would not be wise. Most of the boys and girls in the sanitorium schools and all those at Sunnybrook are below the age at which vocational training is usually offered to those of normal intelligence, as the majority of these pupils are. There has, however, been some effort to help a few older students to prepare for occupations that are not physically difficult.

As with other handicapped groups, most of the effort is spent on caring for those who have already developed a serious handicap. Sunnybrook Cottage treats approximately thirty cases annually; the estimates of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, which has proved to be conservative where actual surveys have been made, indicates need for facilities for about eleven hundred seriously malnourished or incipiently tuberculous children in Delaware. A program of fresh-air classes in the public schools is an obvious need.

FRESH-AIR CLASSES

and

ACCOMMODATIONS FOR VARIOUS TYPES OF DELICATE CHILDREN

During the first full year the Department of Special Education was in existence in the Wilmington schools, plans were drawn up, but never put into operation, for opening a fresh-air class at the Harlan School. Although the program was formulated for 1933-34, it is still valid and can be initiated whenever funds become available. Wilmington schools have two suites of rooms suitable for such use.

On May 31, 1933, the Department of Special Education issued a bulletin giving in detail the standards for admission to fresh-air classes, methods of selection and assignment, and follow-up service. The classes are designed primarily for serious cases of malnutrition and anemia, and non-active, non-contagious chest cases, including certain types of non-active tuberculosis, selected tubercular contact cases, and selected positive tuberculin reactors. While the practice is not ideal, fresh-air classes may accommodate occasional delicate convalescents and cardiac cases not confined to bed or chair, if no other provision can be made for them. Recommendations for admission to such classes must come from the Department of Health Instruction and the school medical inspectors.

When a child has been certified as a proper candidate for a health conservation class, and a vacancy exists for him, his principal is to explain to his parents the advantages of such a class, and the program recommended both for home and school activity. The parents' consent is prerequisite to any transfer. Once a child has been

admitted to such a class, he must be weighed and the weight recorded at least twice a week,must have temperature readings at proper intervals if his condition requires, and must be inspected by the school nurse at least twice weekly, preferably oftener. There should be a check-up by school physicians three or four times a year, with recommendations for retention or discharge of pupils. All positive tuberculin reactors should be X-rayed at from three to six-month intervals. Contact between the school nurse and the parents, to secure cooperation both in and out of school, is important to the success of such a program.

Proper nourishment is an important part of any health-building work planned for children of this type.

Suggestions for a nutritional program follow:

Nutritional Program

Mid-morning lunch (e.g.: whole milk or cocoa and graham wafer; or oatmeal, cracked wheat, cornmeal, or cream of barley, with sugar and milk; or orange or tomato juice).
Mid-day lunch (e.g.: creamed peas and carrots, brown bread and butter, pineapple whip, and whole milk;--lamb stew(carrots, potatoes, onions). white or brown bread and butter, maple nut mold and custard sauce, and cocoa;--Spanish rice, Waldorf salad, gingerbread with whipped cream, white bread and butter, and milk;--cream of celery soup, baked sweet potatoes, white bread and butter, and sliced oranges, bananas and graham wafers;--beef balls, buttered spinach, brown bread and butter, apple jelly, and milk;--macaroni and cheese, sliced tomatoes, rye bread and butter, milk, and oatmeal cookies;--baked fish, cream potatoes, lettuce and tomato salad, rye bread and butter, milk, and ice cream.

The cost is to be defrayed by the parents who are financially able to bear the expense. Principals and nurses should report to the Department of Special Education and Mental Hygiene the names of pupils who can and who cannot pay for their lunches. Efforts will be made to interest organizations and individuals to supply lunches to indigent children.

(An afternoon lunch will be provided, in harmony with customary practice, if it can be financed.)

The table reproduced on page130, in the section of this paper dealing with the mentally retarded also outlines the general program needed for children of the convalescent, malnourished, tubercular, and cardiac groups. The following section giving details worked out for the class planned for 1933-34 is quoted from Dr. Wallin's unpublished report for that year, with the omission of some statistical items concerning practices in other cities.

"Last year (1932-33) plans were made for opening a fresh-air class in the Harlan school. The standards for admission to the class were promulgated, a teacher was selected, a tentative selection of eligibles was made with the cooperation of the school nurses and physicians, and a pledge of $500 was secured from the Junior League toward defraying the cost of transportation for some of the children. According to the nurses' reports fully half of the children selected for the class could not afford the transportation cost and about an equal number could not pay for their lunches. Financial aid was sought from various organizations, such as the Lions Club, the Kiawanis Club, the Rotarians, the chairman of the Committee in charge of the proposed Community Chest, and other organizations. Addresses were delivered before the Junior Board of the Delaware Hospital and the Wilmington New Century Club regarding pending problems in the field of special education in Wilmington. All individuals and organizations approached manifested considerable interest in the school's program for the improvement and rehabilitation of handicapped children, but no financial aid has been forthcoming. It has not seemed judicious to open the projected fresh-air class unless a worthwhile constructive program of educational and health service could be inaugurated.

"In May a questionnaire was addressed to the superintendents of schools in thirty cities in the middle west, east, and south varying in population from about 70,000 to seven million, with a view to securing up-to-date information regarding current fresh-air practices in representative cities of varying population in different sections of the country.

"The replies to the questionnaire, summarized in Tables 3 to 6, supply valuable data on a number of questions of present-day interest.. The tables speak for themselves. In this connection it is only necessary to call attention to a few matters of particular local moment at this time.

"In thirteen of the twenty cities the children do not pay for the lunches either whole or in part. The number is practically fourteen as "not many" pay anything in Paterson. Of the remaining six cities, 2,540 out of 4,659 children in the New York classes pay for their lunches, in Philadelphia about one fourth pay part of their lunches, in St. Louis 25% pay in whole and 25% to 30% in part, in Richmond practically none contribute anything in the poorer sections while all from the better sections contribute from 50% to 100%, and in Grand Rapids and South Bend about one-third contribute toward the cost of the lunches. It is apparent that in none of these cities do all the children pay for their lunches either in whole or in part. In only two cities do as many as 50% of the children pay for their lunches in whole or in part. Based upon these data and the experiences of the past year, it is reasonable to infer that an open-air class cannot be successfully conducted in Wilmington unless the lunches are supplied without charge to a large proportion of the children, unless, indeed, the registration is restricted to children residing in the economically favored sections of the city.

"What agencies defray the cost of the lunches in the cities under investigation? The entire cost is borne by the Board of Education in twelve cities, namely Detroit, Baltimore, Newark, Hartford, Springfield, Paterson, albany, Erie, Reading, Allentown, Bayonne, and Niagara Falls. Some of the expenditure is assumed by the Board of Education in Richmond and in St. Louis. In the remaining six cities various kinds of cooperative agencies assume the burden. It is apparent that lunches are supplied free of charge to all of the children in 60% of the cities and to all of the needy children in all of the cities.

"The childrens' transportation cost (usually in street cars) is defrayed when necessary, by the boards of education in twelve cities. In six cities car fare is not furnished, namely in New York, Baltimore (the classes in both of these cities are well distributed throughout the city), Richmond, Grand Rapids (car fare was previously allowed), South Bend, and Bayonne. It thus appears that 70% of these cities find it necessary to supply car fare to some of the children transferred to fresh-air classes, and that the cost of the transportation in almost 86% of these cities is borne by the Board of Education.

"To the above findings may be added the practices in Toronto and Cleveland as gleaned from personal visits last February. Both Toronto and Cleveland supply lunches free of charge to all the children, in Toronto from the budget of the Board of Health, and in Cleveland from the budget of the Board of Education. Street car transportation is supplied by the school boards in both cities, in Toronto

to all who cannot afford to pay and in Cleveland to children who live two miles or more from the classes. Here children under twelve receive street car tickets for one cent each way, and those twelve years and over for 50¢ a week."

At the end of the school year 1938-39 there was still no public school provision anywhere in the State for delicate children who should be enrolled in fresh-air classes. According to the figures quoted on page 155, nearly twelve hundred boys and girls need such a health-conservation program.

EDUCATION AND REHABILITATION OF THE CRIPPLED IN DELAWARE

Public, or well-organized private, provisions to enable crippled children to obtain an education, and crippled adults to earn their own livelihood, are very recent developments in Delaware. Medical care, at least in and near Wilmington, has been available over a somewhat longer period. The crippled in general have been among the more neglected handicapped groups. At the present time several agencies, both public and charitable, are engaged in programs for their education, rehabilitation, and treatment. When these projects are fully matured, the State should be among the leaders in its provision for its crippled residents.

There is no history of early programs for the training of crippled children similar to those developed between 1835 and 1861 for the blind, the deaf, and the idiotic. The first legislation concerning them was in 1935, when the law providing state tuition for indigent handicapped children was amended to include the crippled. Instruction might be at residential schools outside the State, or, for the crippled or deaf, under a tutor at home. The details of this provision are discussed in the section dealing with the blind. Under it, private instruction was supplied for three crippled children from September 1936 until the latter part of the school year 1938-39, when the number of beneficiaries, according to records of the Governor's office, was increased to seven.

In 1937, Delaware accepted the Federal funds offered for crippled children under the Social Security Act of 1935, and designated the State Board of Health as the agency to conduct a public program

to "develop, extend, and improve services for locating such children and for providing for medical, surgical, corrective, and for such other services and care, and for facilities for diagnosis, hospitalization, and after-care," and to supervise the activities of organizations and individuals concerned with the problems of the crippled.

It was in 1939 that Delaware became the final State to join in the program for rehabilitating adults no longer able to follow their original occupation. A law, previously discussed in detail, was passed at the same legislature to require the State Department of Public Instruction to provide suitable education for all students sufficiently handicapped to need special facilities. These last two acts, of course, are not for the crippled alone.

Over a considerable period, individuals and organizations have been active in trying to improve the physical condition of crippled people in the state, the children especially, and some efforts have been made to see that badly crippled or invalid children had an opportunity for an education. All these programs, until the very recent past, have been sporadic and unorganized.

No one knew exactly how many residents of Delaware needed orthopedic attention, how large a proportion of the State's crippled population were a medical problem only, and how many needed special facilities to continue their ordinary schooling or to reestablish themselves at their original occupation or some other, or how many young people were being allowed to grow up with deformities which could be cured or greatly improved if treated early enough. This was true as late as 1932; although partial studies of various phases of the

problem have been made since then, complete data is not yet available.

In an article outlining the objectives of the Nemours Foundation, published in The Delaware State Medical Journal for August 1938, Dr. A. R. Shands has outlined the development of orthopedic practice in the last century. Surgery has been used in the relief of crippling conditions only since 1831; the first hospital designed specifically for the care of cripples was founded in 1839. Plaster of Paris casts, and aseptic surgery, in 1852 and 1866 respectively, opened up whole new fields for possible treatment. In the United States, the first ward for care of crippled children was established in 1862, and the first hospital specifically for the crippled a year later. Opening of the Shriners' Hospitals for Crippled Children in fifteen cities in North America, the first in 1922, provided a tremendous stimulus to interest in their problems throughout the continent. Federal Government activity on behalf of crippled children in this country began in 1935, when Crippled Children's Division was added to the Children's Bureau of the Department of Labor to administer funds appropriated under the Social Security Act. Fifteen years earlier (1920) a Federal Bureau of Occupational Rehabilitation was established.

In spite of the fact that Delaware has been slow in undertaking to assist its crippled residents, the stages of the program have followed the general trend of such work elsewhere. Physical rehabilitation has been the first consideration; special education for children and adults has followed at a later date. For nearly a generation, there have been organized attempts to make orthopedic treatment available to all who need it; special classes for school children and occupational rehabilitation for adults are still in the planning stage; government agencies have entered the field only since

1935 (The Division of Special Education had done some survey work as early as 1932-33, but no actual classes had resulted.)

Orthopedic clinics in Delaware have a history of a little more than twenty years. At the present time each of the four major hospitals in Wilmington maintains one, where both diagnosis and treatment are available. The Crippled Children's Division of the State Board of Health offers a diagnostic service at various centers in the southern part of the State.

The infantile paralysis epidemic of 1916 was the indirect cause of the organization of the first of these clinics in 1918. In 1917 the Visiting Nurses Association and the Junior Board of Delaware Hospital, in cooperation with other agencies, undertook to round up the convalescents for examination and after-treatment in cases involving crippling. During this period all treatment and examination was at the Jefferson Hospital in Philadelphia. A little later, the Delaware Hospital, whose Junior Board under the leadership of Miss Margaretta Miller, had been financing the program, employed its own physiotherapist. Shortly afterward, Dr. J. T. Rugh, an orthopedic surgeon from Philadelphia, began examining patients in Wilmington at irregular intervals.

In 1918, the Delaware Hospital decided to expand this service for the victims of infantile paralysis into a formal orthopedic clinic, and to establish a social service department. The management chose to head the new division, Miss Mary L. Cook, a graduate nurse, who combined orthopedic and neurological cases with her social service training. She still heads the department, and furnished the material for this sketch of the clinic's growth.

At first orthopedic clinics were held monthly, but were soon

put on a bi-weekly schedule, and later held weekly. From the beginning, the Junior Board of the Hospital supplied motor transportation, and opened the service to residents of the entire State. Patients from New Jersey also occasionally attended. In the early years, when the center was the only one of its kind in this section, attendance was extremely heavy, sometimes as high as seventy for a single day. The majority of the patients were children, but the clinics were not reserved for them alone.

In addition to transportation, the Junior Board furnished follow-up service through the Social Service Department, and made it possible for patients to obtain whatever appliances might be prescribed. It worked out an installment buying plan for those of limited means, and supplied equipment outright to those unable to pay for it. All types of treatment were made available at the hospital. One of the early physicians in charge pronounced it the most successful clinic he had ever held, because the close cooperation of all concerned had insured that his recommendations would be followed carefully.

For many years, the hospital has also maintained a neurological clinic, to which some orthopedic cases, particularly spastic paralytics, are referred. To facilitate cooperation between the two, they are held the same day. Specialists from Philadelphia brought with them all personnel needed for complete psychological examination before the Mental Hygiene Clinic of the State Hospital was equipped to carry on such work. Recently Dr. Tarumianz, Superintendent of Delaware State Hospital, has become a member of the Delaware Hospital staff and is now assisting in the neurological clinic of which Dr. T. H. Davies is in charge.

The physicians conducting the orthopedic clinic, in order of their

tenure, have been, besides Dr. Rugh, Dr. Banks, Dr. Bird, Dr. D. P. Willard, Dr. C. H. Moore, who still comes at irregular intervals, and the incumbent, Dr. I. M. Flinn, Jr., who was associated as assistant with his last two predecessors before his appointment to the hospital staff as orthopedic surgeon. These last three have conducted the clinic through most of its existence.

Home or hospital tutoring for crippled children, and occasionally for other invalids of school age, began through this clinic. The hospital has secured convalescent care for many of the young people who have used its facilities. At the time the case-load was particularly heavy, a playroom was equipped for the use of children waiting their turn to see the doctor, or for transportation home from being treated. A Christmas party and a picnic during the summer have been regular features of the program for years.

Though fewer patients are now treated in this clinic than was formerly the case, since similar centers have been established elsewhere in the city and State, this is still probably the largest. It remains thoroughly up-to-date in its equipment and practices. Transportation is still supplied for patients unable to reach the hospital otherwise, and the Junior Board still contributes to the fund for therapeutic equipment. For about ten years the Lions' Club has borne the major part of this item of expense.

Miss Cook comments particularly on the change in the type of cases passing through the clinic in the past two decades. Today, they are typical of any such center; congenital deformities, and those resulting from accidents and from infantile paralysis form the bulk of the case-load. Scattering instances of almost every bone and muscular condition, of course, occur among the several hundred admissions that come each year.

Early diagnosis and treatment of congenital deformities is far more general than the case was twenty years ago. Parents are more alert in recognizing slight peculiarities in gait or in general control of the limbs as symptoms needing prompt attention. Examination of school children by physicians and nurses ~~have~~ has resulted in many being referred for the correction of minor or incipient abnormalities that would have once been neglected.

When the clinic was first opened, tuberculosis of the joints, osteomyelitis, and rickets, formed a large proportion of the cases. The first physician commented that the proportion of crippling due to tubercular infection from milk was higher than in any other State he knew. The Board of Health, by rigid inspection of the milk supply, has almost elininated this condition, though it is still more frequent in the sections that rely upon raw milk than in those where a pasteurized supply is available. The welfare programs have helped

reduce malnutrition among many children in underprivileged homes. This, and wise prenatal and infant care, more common among all income groups than it was a generation ago, have been factors in producing children free from rickets and other abnormalities due to faulty feeding, and more resistant to infectious diseases like tuberculosis and osteomyelitis. Since Delaware has had no serious outbreak of infantile paralysis in a number of years, there are not many new orthopedic cases of this type. Seven cases of the disease in a year are an unusually large number. Apparently, avoidable causes of crippling that were regularly deforming large numbers of children twenty years ago are today almost negligible.

Wilmington General Hospital was the second in the city to establish an orthopedic clinic when it inaugurated a program in the fall of 1929. Dr. Paul N. Jepson, of Philadelphia, has been the surgeon in charge since the beginning.

The hospital has an active file of approximately two hundred cases, with admissions slightly outnumbering discharges. Almost every type of crippling condition is represented. The work of the clinic has been highly successful, a fact attested by the comparatively few old cases dragging over extremely long periods.

The Junior Board of the hospital and the Kiwanis Club cooperate in bearing the expense of cases not able to pay at all or in full for

treatment or appliances. Installment payment for applicances is frequently arranged for those of limited means. It is the policy of the hospital's social service department to assist patients or their families in financing the expenses of treatment and after-care with the least strain, rather than to supply the service gratis, except in cases of extreme need. The ambulance provides the only transportation available, though members of the Junior Board occasionally give the use of their cars to take children to convalescent homes.

Information about this clinic was supplied by the social worker, Mrs. Jessie Mecarraher.

When St. Francis Hospital recently enlarged its plant, it opened an orthopedic clinic under the supervision of Dr. I. M. Flinn, Jr., very similar to the one maintained at Delaware Hospital. Miss Julia Lavin, of the social service department, who supplied the information, was unable to give the date of its opening more exactly than 1936 or 1937. Approximately 15 patients attend weekly, from a total case-load of between 50 and 60 individuals. There is no transportation service supplied other than use of the ambulance in situations where it is justifiable.

The Homeopathic Hospital, which has no social service department, has an orthopedic clinic under the supervision of Dr. Flinn. About ten patients are treated weekly.

All the hospital clinics have certain features in common. They cooperate with the State Board of Health diagnostic clinics, but are completely independent of them. Costs of treatment for indigent cases are met from the hospitals' general appropriations, and almost invariably involve a deficit. No occupational rehabilitation among older adolescents and adults has been attempted. All hospitals supply

both diagnostic and correctional services, and are open to adults and children. Many patients come to the clinics of their own initiative. The others are referred from agencies of every type. The two hospitals which have a sponsoring organization helping in the purchase of appliances have also received assistance in a few instances from the Nemours Foundation; all but one receive a share in the proceeds from the annual Birthday Balls.

In the fall of 1939, Dr. W. M. Phelps of Baltimore, who is in charge of The Maryland Reconstruction Hospital in Baltimore and the Babbitt Hospital in Vineland, N. J., held two clinics in Wilmington for spastic children, the first ever held in Delaware specifically for individuals of this type.

The State Board of Health, as sponsoring agency under the Federal Social Security Act, maintains a Crippled Children's Service for the support of which $10,966.00 of State and Federal funds were available for 1939. Its first clinic was opened at Lewes in October 1937. Another was added at Seaford, and the two were in operation until the summer of 1939, when most of the reported cases in Sussex county had been examined. A third center, established at Milford in 1938, is still active.

The program has until recently been concentrated largely in Sussex county, since the sponsors believed it wiser to cover one section thoroughly than to make a hit-or-miss attempt to serve the entire State simultaneously. There is still in operation a clinic at Dover, besides the one at Milford. Another is planned at Middletown, New Castle County, to open in September 1939.

On June 30, 1939, there were 555 names of children under 21 years of age on active Crippled Children's register. All these cases had been examined by a licenced physician. The roll included those

365

attending Wilmington hospital clinics, and 301 individuals examined in the State clinics. In addition to this group, there are seventy more children who had been investigated but not examined by the State clinic at the date of the report.

The original list of cases for examination was supplied by the NYA survey referred to above, and has been supplemented by the county nurses and by the public schools. It is not possible to determine from the available facts just what proportion of the cases in the State have been reported. As the State Crippled Children's Service has extended its survey into rural New Castle county and the city of Wilmington, it has found that a considerable number of the cases listed on the 1937 survey from that section have now received attention from Wilmington hospital clinics or from private physicians.

Cases are typical of those found in any orthopedic clinic. Many cases of bow legs, club feet, and similar deformities have been corrected. Throughout this State, as in many others, spastic paralysis is the most serious single problem. Table I gives the Board of Health breakdown of the causes of crippling in the cases it has diagnosed.

Dr. I. M. Flinn, Jr., consultant for the State Board of Health, has conducted the clinics, with Miss Mary M. Klaes as nursing consultant. Where treatment has been indicated it has been supplied by hospitals or by Dr. Flinn acting as an individual orthopedic surgeon. The Nemours Foundation has given funds to defray costs in some cases where hospitalization has been necessary. The Board of Health has not entered the treatment field directly.

One of the chief difficulties the clinics have encountered is a tendency on the part of many parents to try to hide deformities of the type that can be concealed under clothing, and a somewhat

widespread feeling that it is wrong to "interfere with nature." The clinic has made some progress in combatting this superstitious fatalism.

Service clubs and other organizations have given invaluable help in transporting patients unable to reach the clinics in their own conveyance. Without such assistance the program, in the sparsely settled sections of lower Delaware, would have been severely handicapped.

The Delaware Crippled Children's Advisory Committee was organized on the initiative of Dr. A. C. Jost, State Health Officer, at Dover, April 14, 1938, to coordinate the activities of various agencies and individuals engaged in the field, make information available to physicians, lay groups, and urge needed legislation. Dr. Woodbridge E. Morris, State Director of the Crippled Children's Service, was elected permanent chairman. When he resigned from the State Board of Health a year later, he was succeeded as chairman by Dr. I. M. Flinn, Jr., elected at a meeting held May 8, 1939.

In addition to those served by the various clinics and as private patients at the hospitals in Delaware, children from the State have been sent at the expense of parents, friends, or charitable agencies to the Shriners' Hospital in Philadelphia; the Children's Seashore Home at Atlantic City; the Widener Hospital for Crippled Children in Philadelphia; the Philadelphia Orthopedic Hospital; the Children's Hospital School connected with Johns Hopkins, and Kernan's Hospital connected with the University of Maryland, both in Baltimore, as well as to Jefferson Hospital referred to previously.

From 1936 to 1939 Miss Lydia du Pont has maintained a home at Lewes called the Children's Beach House, which, during its first three seasons, was devoted to crippled children. A new and well-planned building was erected in 1938 to accommodate twenty-five

patients. With the opening of the Nemours Foundation's convalescent home for crippled children at Cherry Island, Cambridge, Md., in the summer of 1939, the Beach House was converted to the use of undernourished children.

A summer camp for frail and crippled children was also once in operation at Rehoboth, Delaware. It has been impossible to learn details about its operation.

Certain agencies have referred to physicians for treatment of crippled individuals coming to their attention. The Children's Bureau, guardian of dependent, abused, or neglected children in the State, has a few cripples among its wards. The Y.W.C.A. in its routine examinations of those who apply for the privilege of its pool or gymnasium, occasionally discovers conditions warranting the attention of an orthopedic specialist. Such individuals are always advised to consult their own physician at once to be referred to the specialist best equipped to meet their particular needs. There may be other agencies whose work incidentally involves the crippled, though only these two have come to our notice.

The Y.W.C.A. has of recent years offered another service to crippled women and girls, and a few younger boys, in and around Wilmington. On one day each week it keeps its pool at a temperature suitable for therapeutic use. Children who have been taught to swim by a physiotherapist and are able to get to the pool alone may swim there. Paralytics under the instruction of a physical therapist may use the pool at the fee charged for a dip. Since the Y.M.C.A. does not offer similar privileges for boys, the Y.W.C.A. waives its regulation barring from the pool boys over nine years old, in the case of those who need such facilities. Correctional classes under the

usual regulations are also held for those who do not require the constant supervision of an orthopedic surgeon.

Although formal provision for special education for crippled children is a very recent development in Delaware, it is not true that nothing was done until the past few years to help such boys and girls obtain an education. A former teacher connected with the Wilmington public elementary schools as teacher and principal for more than fifty years recounts case histories of many crippled children who attended the various schools in the city. They received every assistance from their school-mates, their teachers, and sometimes from residents of their neighborhood to make their attendance possible and happy. The particularly gratifying case of a spastic child who had become a serious emotional problem before he was old enough to attend school, and, with the cooperation of his family, the school authorities, and the other children, achieved a very satisfactory adjustment, has been discussed elsewhere. Through the years there were numerous other cases just as satisfactory but less spectacular. There is no reason to doubt that provisions were made in many schools throughout the State to enable seriously handicapped children to attend.

All such efforts were, however, private and unorganized. They depended for their success entirely on the thoughtfulness, judgment and ingenuity of the various individuals who were in a position to help if they would. If the local school officials did not care to bother, or if nobody happened to think of a means of getting a particular child to school and making him comfortable while he was there, he went without instruction. Likewise, it was the merest accident if a crippled child came under the care of a teacher able to adapt the regular school program to his needs, and to help him adjust himself,

physically and emotionally, to the situation he would face as an adult. Completely helpless children were excluded from even these opportunities. If the child's parents were inclined to pet and over-protect him, there was no authority with the right to insist that he must learn to be as self-reliant as his condition permitted.

A few children have been supplied with a tutor, through private efforts, while they have been confined to Wilmington hospitals or to their homes over long periods. Over the last few years, an average of about a dozen children have been so instructed. This, again, has not been the guaranteed right of every crippled child in the State able to study, but like the public school work, the good luck of a fortunate few.

When the Division of Special Education and Mental Hygiene was added to the Wilmington and State public school systems in 1932, there was no record of the number of orthopedic cripples in need of special-class instruction, and not even information upon which to base an estimate. The Division accepted the Delaware White House Conference Committee's estimate of the same year, about 150 such cases, as the most reliable figure available. This total was computed on the basis of the incidence of serious crippling in sections of the country which keep complete records. The director of the Division, when he visited schools of all types throughout the State in the years immediately following 1932, was convinced that the general estimates of the number of children in the various handicapped groups, though conservative, were reasonably accurate. Children who need special facilities, the crippled among them, are distributed fairly evenly throughout the various school districts of the State.

In 1937 the NYA made a survey by the questionnaire method, admittedly incomplete, which located, according to an account in the Delmarva Star for June 23, 1937, 406 crippled individuals in the State under twenty years of age. Since the White House Conference estimate was based on the premise that one crippled child in three needs special-class facilities, the two reports agree substantially. The Board of Health survey included infants, as well as older adolescents no longer in school.

Later clinical examination of these cases and others reported through the county nurses and the public schools, under the jurisdiction of the Crippled Children's Division of the State Board of Health, has revealed more than five hundred minors with orthopedic defects requiring attention. Cases range from the most serious conditions to minor disabilities that can be easily removed.

Because most of its limited budget and personnel have been required for meeting the pressing problem of the mentally subnormal in the public schools, the Division of Special Education has never been able to do more for the crippled than to call public attention to their needs and to make suggestions for supplying them.

The new school law concerning the handicapped will probably affect fewer of the crippled children than of other groups, since, before it had been passed, a private agency had already assumed the obligation of their care and training.

During the later years of his life, Alfred I. du Pont had been keenly interested in the problems of the crippled, and had contributed generously, and usually anonymously, to the assistance of individual cases that came to his attention. His efforts usually took the form of supplying treatment, appliances or opportunities for

self-support which demanded an outlay too great for the patient's resources. When he died, April 29, 1935, he left a considerable proportion of his estate in trust for the eventual establishment of Nemours Foundation.

His widow, Mrs. Jessie Ball du Pont, inherited the bulk of the fortune for her lifetime. The will specified that at her death, the Nemours property, Mr. du Pont's former home near Wilmington, should revert to the Foundation, to be maintained in perfect condition as a memorial to the donor's father and his great-great grandfather. Any sum up to $1,000,000 might be deducted from the estate for the initial buildings and equipment for the institution. The net income of the entire residual estate, after certain annuities were paid, was assigned to financing the Foundation's activities.

The Foundation is "for the purpose of maintaining the said estate of Nemours as a charitable institution for the care and treatment of crippled children, but not incurables, or the care of old men or old women, and particularly old couples, first consideration in each instance being given to beneficiaries who are residents of Delaware." Choice between the two projects is specifically left to the Trustees, along with power to draw up the detailed plans. The Trustees subsequently decided to establish the institution for the care and treatment of crippled children, believing it the more constructive of the two alternatives. They likewise took into consideration that old-age pension legislation had been passed between the drawing of the will in November 1932, and Mr. du Pont's death in April, 1935.

He had during this period made a large contribution from his own funds to permit the pension plan to go into effect promptly, in spite of the legislature's delay in making an appropriation for the purpose. It is likewise interesting to note that in every reference

in the will to the Foundation's purpose, the children's hospital is mentioned first.

Mrs. du Pont arranged that the fund for erection of buildings should be made available as soon as possible after her husband's death, and personally provides for maintenance of the Foundation until the income from the estate reverts to it.

In July, 1937, Dr. A. R. Shands, formerly Associate Professor of Surgery in charge of Orthopedics at Duke University, was appointed Medical Director of the Foundation. The following outline of its program is summarized from his article in the Delaware State Medical Journal referred to above. The account has been supplemented by more recent news releases to Wilmington papers, and by an interview with Dr. Shands.

The Medical Advisory Board of the Foundation has decided on a four-point program, embracing the medical care of crippled children, their education, research along related lines, and graduate instruction of doctors, nurses, and others in the field.

The Foundation's building program will start with the construction of a 100-bed hospital within the grounds of the Nemours Estate. Later, separate cottages to house 200 convalescent school children will be added. A school building will eventually be constructed.

"The initial building," says Dr. Shand's article, "will have, on the first floor, administrative offices, an outpatient clinic, an X-ray department, two school rooms, and boys' and girls' wards which will face south and open on a wide concrete and grass terrace. On the second floor will be the operating rooms, a ward for colored children, an observation ward, interne's quarters, staff dining rooms, and a museum. On the first floor, of a separate wing of the

building, adjacent to the wards, will be the physical therapy department and therapeutic pool, an auditorium-gymnasium, and two additional school rooms. On the second floor of this wing will be a twelve-room laboratory section. The nurses' quarters will be on the third floor. In the basement will be the storage rooms, the kitchen services, dining rooms and locker rooms for the hospital help. There will be a separate building to house the heating plant and laundry."

Construction of the hospital started June 20, 1939; the building is expected to be ready for occupancy in the late spring or early summer of 1940.

In addition to the estate near Wilmington, where the main hospital is being built, the Foundation has the use of Cherry Island in Chesapeake Bay near Cambridge, Md., and a farm on the adjoining mainland. This has been equipped as a summer home for twenty-five children. The site permits them to enjoy the advantages of country life and at the same time receive treatment for their disability. The first groups went to the camp on June 9 and 17, 1939, to stay until September. The children were selected from among those most in need of the kind of care the home can offer.

"The research program," according to the article referred to above, "will include both laboratory and clinical investigation. The original laboratories will be for biochemistry and bacteriology with facilities for pathology. They will be staffed by workers particularly interested in research problems. A certain number of beds will be available for the research division so that the clinical and laboratory work may be coordinated to their mutual advantage.

In addition it is hoped that the research program may be extended to include certain psychological problems of the crippled child."

While the Foundation's own laboratories are under construction the research program is being carried forward through fellowships granted twelve physicians for investigation of problems related to the crippled child. These grants will not be continued after the research program starts at the Hospital.

The problem of vocational placement and training is likewise being studied. On May 27, 1939, a conference was held at Nemours at the invitation of Mrs. du Pont and the medical advisory board of the Nemours Foundation, where orthopedic surgeons, specialists in vocational education, and representatives of interested government agencies discussed the various phases of the work. According to the chief of the Crippled Children's Division of the Children's Bureau of the U. S. Department of Labor, Dr. Robert C. Hood, the meeting was the first of its kind ever held in the country. Papers describing the programs of certain prominent educational institutions for the crippled were read, and arrangement has been made for their publication.

Special classes for orthopedically handicapped children are not uncommon in the larger cities of the country, and special school facilities are sometimes part of the programs of homes and hospitals for such cases. In general practice, however, education has not been considered one of the basic problems of the crippled. Where provision has been made, it is in most instances limited to bringing the children to a comfortable classroom whose equipment can be adjusted for their use, or sending a tutor to confined students.

This attitude is not suprising. Most crippled pupils are entirely normal children from a mental and sensory point of view, and are able to follow the standard curriculum taught by ordinary

methods.

They do, none the less, present many of the same problems that confront teachers of gifted classes. Both groups are likely to receive more attention and petting, with less discipline, than their companions do. Character training is therefore especially important for them. Unless they are able to meet normal people in normal situations, their abilities are wasted and their handicaps needlessly multiplied. They must learn to make their own decisions, and to be generous, fair, and considerate of the rights and preferences of their companions. Crippled youngsters must be steeled against the helpless attitude they so often develop.

It is essential for their teachers to stress high standards of workmanship, because the crippled child can so often avoid unpleasant tasks by an appeal to maudlin sympathy, and the brilliant one "get by" with no real effort. Both must learn to assume responsibility for the full use of their talents, since they are less likely than others to be compelled by outside pressure to do so.

Since a crippled child is barred from some activities, and handicapped in others, it is very important for him to discover all the things he can do, and to develop at least some of his talents to a very high degree. He needs the satisfaction of knowing he is competent in some field to bolster his self-confidence. If he is later to complete successfully with physically sound men in the employment market he must offer some special fitness for the job he wants.

A training program designed to graduate crippled students who are normal in their emotional reactions and able to support themselves must take all these factors into consideration.

The Nemours Foundation plans to emphasize vocational education for children over fourteen. All patients will of course receive the academic instruction appropriate to their age and ability. All types of vocational training will be offered the older children, in a program substantially paralleling that of the H. Fletcher Brown Vocational High School in Wilmington. Some of the suggested activities are dressmaking, millinery, weaving and basketry for girls, and shoemaking, watch and jewelry-making, upholstering, leather-craft, printing, and commercial art for boys. The program of each student will be adapted to his physical condition, his interests, and his mental ability. Though new patients will not be admitted to the hospital above the age of sixteen, those already in residence may stay longer if it seems wise for educational purposes. The Foundation hopes to find permanent employment for these young people after their training has been completed.

Its primary emphasis upon vocational training and research mark the Foundation's chief claim to distinction among institutions for care of crippled children. Its program of education will extend beyond proper training for its patients, since it will offer graduate instruction for adults engaged in the various related fields such as nursing, social service, physical therapy, and teaching. When the hospital is opened, there will be a group of younger doctors in constant attendance, learning the medical and surgical care of the crippled child.

"At the beginning," according to Dr. Shand's article, "only crippled children from the State of Delaware will be admitted; it has been estimated at this time that there are approximately 200 in need of hospital care. It is thought that eventually twenty-five active hospital beds will be sufficient to meet the needs of the state."

When its plans are fully realized, the Nemours Foundation expects to have one of the most completely equipped centers in the United States for the study of all phases of the care of the crippled child.

While a comprehensive program for the care and education of handicapped children of all sorts is at the present time being outlined for Delaware, the outlook for the crippled is perhaps the brightest, since funds for carrying out this project are already guaranteed, while the law covering the general problem carried no appropriation.

TABLE I

Causes of Crippling Conditions in Delaware Cases Registered with State Board of Health

Following the guide for the classification of orthopedic and plastic conditions issued by the Federal Children's Bureau, the 555 cases on active C.C. register are divided as follows:

A.	Crippling conditions due to prenatal influences	124
B.	Crippling conditions due to infection (lower forms)	38
C.	Crippling conditions due to higher plant and animal parasites	0
D.	Crippling conditions due to trauma or physical agents	50
E.	Crippling conditions due to disturbances of innervation or of psychic control	48
F.	Crippling conditions due to disorders of metabolism, growth, or nutrition	29
G.	Crippling conditions due to new growths	2
H.	Crippling conditions due to all other causes, including unknown or uncertain causes	264
		555

Excerpts from the Will of A. I. du Pont

concerning

Nemours Foundation

Will Book-Z 5-369 pp. 369-414- Register of Wills office, Wilmington, Del.

Nemours estate left to Mrs. du Pont, together with income from the entire estate after bequests and annuities have been deducted, during her lifetime. After her death, the estate should proceed as follows:

"To Nemours Foundation in fee simple forever, the entire property, with building and structures thereon, of Nemours," the trustees of the estate were to pay "at convenient intervals, to the said corporation, the net income of my said estate, subject to the annuities and legacies hereinabove mentioned, for the purpose of maintaining the said estate of Nemours as a charitable institution for the care and treatment of crippled children, but not incurables, or the care of old men or old women, and particularly old couples, first consideration in each instance being given to beneficiaries who are residents of Delaware, the one or more of which charitable purposes, however, being left to the decision of my said Trustees, with the understanding that the following rules and regulations shall be included among those imposed by the Board of Managers controlling such institution."

Nemours Foundation shall be created and maintained as a memorial to the great-grandfather of the testator, Pierre Samuel du Pont de Nemours, and to his father, Eleuthere Irenee du Pont de Nemours;

The Mansion House at Nemours is not to be used for housing or hospital purposes, but other buildings for such use may be erected on any suitable site on the property.

The Mansion House may be used for entertaining visitors or for administrative offices if desired, but is to be kept mainly for a library and museum;

The Mansion and grounds are to be maintained in their present condition for "the pleasure and benefit of the public." Trustees may make regulations for the admission of the public.

A Board of Managers of five, whose original terms shall be set so that one term will expire during each of the first five years, and afterwards for terms of five years, and three members of whom must be Delawareans, are to be appointed by the Trustees with full powers to administer the affairs of the Foundation.

One million dollars, or whatever proportion of it is needed, is to be set aside from the estate for the erection and equipment of necessary buildings. This sum, along with the Nemours property, are to be the only capital deductions from the estate. Further additions to plant and equipment must come from income or from the bequests of others.

Mrs. du Pont may, if she wishes, make the trust operative during her lifetime, but may not increase the capital endowment.

ORIGINAL WILL SIGNED NOV. 19, 1932.

Codicil referring to personal bequests, and increasing Mrs. du Pont's security in her interest in the estate, Nov. 4, 1933;

Codicil Jan. 15, 1933, altering certain personal terms of the will, and affirming that the Foundation was the testator's own idea, fully considered over a period of at least ten years, and established in the belief that the bulk of the fortune should be devoted to constructive social purposes after generous provision had been made for those with a legitimate claim to a share in it had been made. The

only reason that the capital endowment of the Foundation was not at this time increased was the possibility of the testator's death within a time short enough to invalidate charitable bequests.

WILL ADMITTED TO PROBATE MAY 24, 1935.

The Wilmington Morning News for May 27, 1935, reports that a petition valuing the estate at $32,736,933.63, has been filed in a probate court in Florida, where Mr. du Pont died.

VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION OF HANDICAPPED ADULTS

"It is the purpose of vocational rehabilitation," says the newly organized Department of Vocational Education in Delaware, in a circular outlining its program, "to render physically handicapped persons fit to engage in occupations which will make them self-supporting, thereby creating happiness and contentment among those individuals and families affected. It is definitely a part of our public education program, in conjunction with grammar schools, high schools, vocational schools, colleges, and universities. Delaware is a part of the national program instituted in 1920, offering special training to physically handicapped persons, so that they may take their proper place in the community and fulfill their duties of citizenship with others."

Delaware joined the national movement for helping the handicapped prepare themselves for employment in April 1939. The act was effective from July 1, 1939, and by August 1, the personnel had been selected, plans of operation approved, and an office opened in the Delaware Trust Building in Wilmington. Since that date, organization and actual case studies have progressed at a normal speed. The new service is under the direction and control of the State Board for Vocational Education, working in close cooperation with the Industrial Accident Board, and informally with all other agencies concerned with the problems of the handicapped and with vocational placement.

Before the State established the Department of Vocational Rehabilitation, there was very little opportunity for a resident who was physically unable to follow an occupation he knew to prepare himself to earn a living. Neither training facilities nor information concerning the various lines of work in which he might still engage

were available to the average person so affected. The Delaware Commission for the Blind had for thirty years undertaken such a service for its clients, and individuals or organizations had interested themselves in particular cases from time to time, but for the great majority a physical disability which interfered with ordinary employment opportunities meant permanent unemployment, or at best, greatly decreased earning power.

The Federal-State rehabilitation service is available to all physically handicapped persons who offer reasonable prospect of becoming employable. Their disability may have been present from birth, or be the result of accident, injury, or disease, and must seriously interfere with the applicant's ability to earn a living at the occupation for which his education and experience have prepared him, though he need not be totally disabled. Each applicant must be at least sixteen years of age; anyone above that age may be considered, if there is a reasonable probability of placing him after training. He must also have been a resident of the State at the time he incurred his disability, or for at least a year prior to his application. The service is open to both men and women, and to all races.

Mental defectives, epileptics, or individuals whom the State Board of Vocational Education believes cannot be trained, or placed after training, are not eligible for rehabilitation. Aged or helpless persons who need permanent custodial care are also ineligible. Because speech defects are rarely of physical origin, Federal or matched funds may not be used for their treatment.

"In the operation of the program," according to the plan approved by State and Federal authorities, "it will be the policy of the State Board to provide a rehabilitation service for individuals from

all groups of the physically handicapped; to maintain a reasonable distribution of cases with regard to age, race, sex, education, and origin and nature of disability; and to maintain a reasonable geographical distribution of cases throughout the State."

The funds available for the work amount to $10,000 annually, the State and Federal governments each furnishing half. The staff at the present time is limited to a State Supervisor, R. N. Parkhill, formerly associated with a similar department in Philadelphia, and a secretary.

Because the Delaware project is so recent, a little data on actual operation is ready for publication. There is no complete survey of the number of eligible cases, the types of disability most prevalent here, or the opportunities for employment. A preliminary study of the number of possible candidates for rehabilitation was made in 1930 by the State Department of Vocational Education. It located over 4000 individuals who might at that time have been assisted. Further details of this study were not available. Under these circumstances, a far more complete survey of national practices than has been introduced in other sections of this paper has seemed advisable. The following summary from various Department of Interior Bulletins will give a picture of what may be expected of the fully developed Delaware program.

Tables I, II, III, and IV present some of the more important statistical aspects of the program in the nation at large and in the northeastern district of which Delaware is a member.

The figures show that most of the various classes of occupations include jobs open to the clients of Vocational Rehabilitation Bureaus.

Any one applicant's choice may be severely limited, but the possibilities for the entire handicapped population of a city or state are wide.

The largest single group of clients is that of white men under thirty-six years of age, but white women, Negroes of both sexes, and older people of all races and sexes are represented.

Wages paid rehabilitated workmen vary rather widely between the sections of the country, just as ordinary wage scales do. The figures given in Table III are the medians[1] for each group. White men receive the highest pay, followed by white women, Negro men, and Negro women in that order.

Table IV shows total per capita costs of rehabilitating applicants. In our section of the country, the median cost for a person who needs only training of some sort in order to obtain employment is $167.20; for one who needs some artificial appliance in addition to training, $286.16; for one who needs some other service in addition to training, $199.50; for one who needs only an appliance to be fit for service, $124.94. In this district, 52.1 percent of all new cases rehabilitated needed training of some sort.

Since 1930 some of the States, notably California, have been experimenting with rehabilitating tuberculous and cardiac cases. They have found that rehabilitations of this sort are not dissimilar to

1. The median is determined by tabulating items in order from the lowest to the highest, and selecting the middle item as typical of the group. In normal distributions, approximately half the cases tabulated will cluster closely around the median, a quarter will be well below it, and a quarter well above. This method is usually preferable to the average for selecting a representative individual case from a group, since it is less subject to distortion from a few exceptional cases.

others in personal characteristics of individuals involved, costs, and range of occupations open to clients. The proportion of young, well-educated adults is slightly higher in this group than in the general case-load, and a somewhat larger percentage require training as part of the rehabilitation program. A list of the occupations people of this type entered shows a surprisingly diversified choice of "light" work. In the period 1930-36, nearly one-third of the tuberculous clients rehabilitated were in California.

In the entire United States, 9,844 persons with disabilities of all types were rehabilitated in 1937-38, the last year for which complete data is available. The northeastern region, to which Delaware now belongs, accounted for 2,404 of these. Types of jobs in which clients found employment varied widely between regions, both because of varying policies of different States and varying local conditions, Table IV shows the distributions among the various employment field.

The qualifications which the Bureau of Education specifies for agents suggests clearly the sort of work which goes into readjustment, training, and placing the ten thousand handicapped individuals who are annually prepared for normal self-support. Patience, wisdom, tenacity, and tact are prime requisites in a successful agent. He must be sympathetic, but not maudlin in his dealings with clients. He must be able to inspire confidence and win cooperation both from the disabled persons who come to him for assistance and from the prospective employers he approaches in their behalf. His personality, in short, is an important tool in his work.

"He should take the attitude," says the bulletin Vocational Guidance, handbook for the use of agents, "that rehabilitation is

a social, economic, and educational activity in the same sense as are public education, public health, and other welfare activities." The position that this work is in no sense a charity, but as legitimate a part of the school system as any trade school, and of public service as any placement bureau, is emphasized throughout.

The man who accepts such appointment should be a student, informed on theories of psychology, sociology, vocational guidance, and methods of research. He must supplement his theoretical knowledge by actual contact with handicapped individuals and/with acquaintance industrial practices in his section of the country.

He must be able to understand and cope with the sensitiveness and peculiar attitudes of many handicapped persons. He must know all the personal and technical requirements of the various types of positions available in his locality. He must know the compensation laws of his State. He must be capable of helping clients arrange budgets and other financial arrangements during the period of training.

In addition, he must be alert to protect his clients against employers who try to exploit workmen whose choice of jobs is limited, and to impress new workmen with the fact that they are to receive pay for value given, and not a charity hand-out for which they need only go through the motions of working. Both information and judgment accurate enough to enable him to become adept at placing the right man in the right job are also required.

The actual steps involved in rehabilitation are, first, a complete survey of the facts in the individual case; then, whatever physical repair and vocational training may be indicated; job-selection and placement; and final follow-up to make certain adjustment is complete before a case is closed.

The initial survey for each new client includes the most detailed information about all his characteristics which have any relation to his future employment. Bureaus of Rehabilitation must have all the facts of a case to avoid both the cruelty and the waste a haphazzard policy would involve. Certainly nothing could be more brutal than carelessly encouraging a person already handicapped to attempt preparation for an occupation in which he would almost certainly fail. That such useless effort would also cost money which might have been invested in making the same man independent at work for which he was fitted, or giving some other an opportunity he could profit by, is also important.

The applicant's name, address, age, and nationality are obvious routine items. Though the Federal act specifies no minimum age, Delaware, in line with usual practice, requires a client to be at least sixteen years old. There is no upper limit. Anyone for whom there is a good chance of employment may be accepted.

The candidate's education is an important factor in preparing him in the shortest time for self-support. Agents are advised to determine this by standard educational tests, since school credentials are so unreliable a gauge of what an adult really knows. Some with a relatively long school record may be very poorly informed, while others whose formal education ended early may have since gained the equivalent of high school training, or beyond.

Mentality is a very important factor, and should be determined with the aid of standard tests. If the client is placed in a job far below his mental level, he tends to be ashamed of it and may abandon the whole idea of trying to support himself; certainly if it requires a grade of intelligence he does not possess, he will fail. For occupations requiring mental or auditory memory, mechanical skill,

or similar special abilities, special aptitude tests are advisable. Sometimes such tests may suggest possibilities neither client nor agent had thought of. Intelligence appears to consist of ability to comprehend abstract symbols, to deal with other people, and to manipulate objects. Normal minds have all three skills. Each capacity, however, is usually developed to a different degree in the same individual, and some one of the three is almost certainly dominant. Though a normal or superior person can do many lines of work, the activities which will claim his keenest interest will be those connected with his dominant mental bias. Placement should take this psychological peculiarity into consideration.

In instances where a position requires specific mental or neural abilities, cooperation with a competent psychologist is advisable. If this is impossible, the client's school record, hobbies and spare-time activities, and work history should be carefully considered as indications of his mental traits.

It is important for the agent to obtain a full expression of the client's vocational interests, and to determine upon how much information they are based. Personality traits, attitude, and morale, require careful attention in the re-habilitation program. Unless they can be broken down, indifferent, helpless, or smart-aleck reactions are an insuperable bar to satisfactory adjustment.

An agent must determine the nature and extent of his client's disability, his physical condition at the time of application, and the prospect of improvement or aggravation. The advice of a physician is always desirable, and should be routine in certain types of cases.

An applicant's vocational experience should be carefully checked. It is usually the best course to reestablish him in work

related in some way to his previous experience, if this is feasible. If his earlier employment record is in any way unsatisfactory, the agent must endeavor to find where the difficulty lay, and cure or avoid its causes in the new job.

Other considerations that affect the rehabilitation program planned for any given individual are provision for his dependents during his training period, and arrangement for his own support and any other imperative financial engagements until he can reasonably expect to be employed. It is useless to start a person on a course of physical and vocational rehabilitation if his personal affairs have not been put in order.

So far as possible, a position should be selected for an applicant which will bring him in contact with others of the social level to which he is accustomed. Radical changes, either up or down, introduce an unnecessary factor in an already complicated adjustment.

In this connection it is worth repeating that an applicant need not be completely disabled from an occupational point of view. Those who are employed at an occupation wholly inadequate to meet their needs, or at one for which they need further preparation to insure reasonably secure tenure may be considered eligible for the department's services.

Once the agent has secured a complete picture of his client's interests, abilities, and limitations, he is in a position to consider the position for which he might be fitted. His obligation in this part of the program is to supply information which can help the handicapped person make an intelligent decision for himself. There are many, especially among those who have never been employed, who do not have even the most rudimentary notion of what lines of work are available in their neighborhood, or what the requirements and

advantages of the various openings are. It is the agent's business at this stage to explain and describe the fields of activity the applicant might enter, possibly arrange for him to visit a plant and watch the processes involved, or secure a try-out for him.

Selection of the work for which he wishes to prepare should be the client's own choice. The agent may guide, but not try to compel. Obviously, he cannot approve a choice for which the workman cannot qualify, but he can usually lead him to accept some related substitute which will suit his requirements.

Just how specific the job objective should be depends upon the other circumstances of each case. In general, the agent and client should work out some compromise which will give the greatest number of possible openings with the least possible outlay of time and expense. The theory of occupational rehabilitation is not to give a disabled man his greatest possible industrial development, but to give him a satisfactory means of earning his living at a standard comparable to the one he is used to, and to leave the matter of further study and advancement to his own initiative. Those whose mental or physical limitations are serious may often very profitably be directed into the so-called "dead end" jobs, which are far more numerous than those which offer a regular line of advancement. For individuals who cannot honestly be encouraged to hope for promotion, such positions are ideal, since they offer less competition.

When the client has made his final choice of the position for which he wishes to prepare, methods of reaching his goal must be considered. Those the terms of the act permit are: (1) physical restoration through surgery or artificial appliances; (2) vocational training; (3) counsel and advice concerning employment. Any com-

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bination of methods is permissible. "The method of preparation must follow the principle of the greatest return in the shortest possible time."

If the restoration program includes physical rehabilitation, this must be the first step. Actual vocational training is usually carried on through regular schools or through apprentice training in an industrial establishment. When care is taken to guard against sweatshop practices, this last is one of the most satisfactory forms of training. It puts the client on an earning basis quickly, and often results in his permanent retention if his work is satisfactory. When no other facilities are available, correspondence courses or tutoring, or the two in combination, may be used, though neither is very satisfactory. Training time varies from a few days on the job as an apprentice to four-year university courses; the average for all cases accepted is approximately nine months.

There are occasional cases where a disabled person needs only advice, information, and encouragement to reestablish himself. His difficulty may only be that he has permitted his handicap to discourage him so completely that he can no longer think clearly about his problems or behave normally among able-bodied companions. Once the possibilities are pointed out to him, and his morale is restored, he may be able to readjust himself without further help. There are other instances in which an agent can confer with the client, his employer, and any other agencies in a position to help, and remove difficulties or mal-adjustments barring a handicapped person from employment or endangering his tenure if he is already working. A lame young widow, for example, had a baby who was not properly taken care of during her absence. Her work required that she walk from one

machine to another in some stages of production. Extreme self-consciousness over her awkwardness and worry about the child had reduced her to a nervous state where she was unable to do the work required. Fearing dismissal, she appealed to the rehabilitation office of her district. The agent arranged for her position at the machine to be changed, and for her baby to stay at a good day-nursery during her working hours. ~~With her~~ When the reasons for her worry and embarrassment were removed, she rapidly regained her efficiency. Establishment of small independent businesses is another field in which advice and information is sometimes the only service a client needs. Cases which can be closed without physical treatment or training are, however, comparatively infrequent.

During the entire rehabilitation program the agent must supervise his client's progress closely. This is especially important during the first few days or weeks while he is adjusting himself to a new routine and a new attitude toward life.

Placement is the most difficult step in the entire process. It includes locating openings, satisfying objections employers may have to hiring handicapped individuals, and guidance of the client until he is thoroughly established.

The agent must be thoroughly informed about employment conditions in his territory, and must have been able to establish cordial relations with prospective employers. If business men of the community are hostile or indifferent, the program is doomed to failure, no matter how well it may be able to contact, encourage, and train candidates.

The agent is expected to render every service possible to his client in finding an opening and securing the position, so far as information, suggestions for application, arrangement of appointments, check-up on the progress of negotiations and similar details are concerned. So far as possible, actually getting the job must be the client's own accomplishment; if it is, he will enter his new phase of life with far more self-confidence and probably a greater feeling of responsibility.

Business men raise two chief objections to employing handicapped persons. In some States, compensation laws are so phrased that if a man already impaired is injured a second time, the employer must compensate him on the same scale as an able-bodied employee. There is a tendency to amend this provision in many States, so that employers are responsible only for disability actually incurred in the second accident. The second major argument is that physically handicapped individuals cannot compete on equal terms with the able-bodied. This can be refuted only by citation of successful rehabilitations, offer of try-out without pay, and proof that the candidate's special training for the position he seeks more than offsets his physical disability. Many employers have, indeed, found that rehabilitated workmen are often more careful, more anxious to succeed, and less frequently distracted by outside interests than others are.

When the client has secured his opportunity to prove his worth, the agent must still keep in contact with the case until he is sure the new employe understands his duties, his responsibilities, his privileges, and the various personal traits and attitudes that will smoothe his way, as well as that the employer is satisfied with his performance.

The process of rehabilitation, in brief, requires first a staff of tactful, well-informed agents able to act as intermediaries between disabled persons and all the other individuals and agencies with which they will be thrown in contact in the process of fitting themselves for employment. They must make and keep a careful record of facts about a client that bear on his employability. They must be equipped to supervise his training for his new occupation, and to serve as an employment agency when he is ready to seek work. They must check the progress of newly rehabilitated persons until their adjustment appears stable.

The machinery by which this highly individualized service is administered is relatively simple. A State must accept the terms of the Federal act, designate its own administrative agency to oversee work within its jurisdiction, and empower its State Board of Vocational Rehabilitation to prepare and submit a plan for the approval of Federal authorities.

Each State participating in the program must at least match the Federal funds it receives. Federal or matched funds may be used only for genuine rehabilitation services. Under certain safeguards, funds contributed by private agencies, or gifts from individuals may be included in the matching funds, but no contribution on behalf of a particular individual may be so credited.

Because of varying local conditions, each State's agreement is an individual plan worked out to meet its particular needs, and subject to change by mutual consent as the local situation changes.

The Federal and matched funds must <u>not</u> be spent for purchase, rental, or maintenance of land, buildings, or administrative equipment; for medical or surgical service or hospital or clinical care; for living expenses of a client during training; or for capital stock for

establishing a client in business.

They may be used for administrative expenses (salaries of staff, travel, communication, printing, supplies, office rental, research and publicity, or reference materials); for legitimate expenses directly connected with the training of clients, such as tuition and supplies needed in courses; for such appliances as braces and artificial limbs when they cannot be obtained from any other source and are a necessary part of a client's rehabilitation program; for transportation for clients to the nearest point at which they can receive proper instruction; and for any medical examination required for the proper handling of a case.

The Delaware program which has just been placed in operation offers great possibilities for increasing both the usefulness and the happiness of a considerable group of the State's residents. It places a wealth of employment data within the reach of mentally normal men and women who may be crippled, deaf, blind, or otherwise unfitted for the occupation for which their education and experience has prepared them. For those who can still hope to become employable, it offers the expert advice, access to necessary appliances, and additional training they require to make profitable use of their remaining ability.

To realize its enormous potential benefit, the program must have the full cooperation of the entire community. Vocationally handicapped people and those interested in their problems must be willing to supply rehabilitation agents with full, accurate information so that their advice will be based on knowledge of the actual facts of a case. Business men must be willing to accept handicapped individuals for apprentice training or employment. Without their support, the program will certainly fail. The various social and

educational agencies within the State must be ready to supply essential services for which the rehabilitation program has no funds. The general public must be convinced that the program is genuinely one of vocational education just as are those of the trade schools and commercial classes in the public schools. The greatest positive contribution the public can make at the present time is to urge handicapped persons among their acquaintances to file applications with the Bureau of Rehabilitation, or to submit their names so that a representative of the Bureau may visit such individuals to acquaint them with the services it can offer.

If these conditions can be quickly fulfilled, Delaware may at least partially atone for its twenty-year delay in starting the rehabilitation of its physically handicapped members by building an outstanding program.

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Statistical Tables Concerning Various Phases of

Vocational Rehabilitation in U. S. and in Northeastern Division

TABLE I

AGE, SEX AND RACE OF REHABILITANTS IN U.S. AND NORTHEAST

	US	NE		U.S.	N.E.
WHITES	95.0	96.6	NEGROES	5.0	3.4
Males	71.0	77.7		4.3	2.8
Under 24	19.4	21.1		.8	.3
24-35	29.2	28.3		1.7	1.0
Over 35	22.3	28.3		1.8	1.5
Unreported	.1				
Females	24.0	18.9		.7	.6
Under 24	11.6	9.9		.3	.2
24-35	9.0	7.2		.3	.3
Over 35	3.3	1.7		.1	.1
Unreported	.1	.1			

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Statistical Tables Concerning Various Phases of Vocational Rehabilitation

Table II

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF REHABILITANTS IN OCCUPATIONS

1937 - 1938

Occupation	U.S.	N.E.
Housewife	.5	.2
Professional	7.2	3.2
Semi-professional and technical	5.3	5.9
Trade	14.7	16.3
Clerical	23.8	23.6
Public Service	.6	.7
Inspectors and Foremen	1.1	2.3
Shilled and Semi-skilled	29.1	30.8
Domestic and Personal	6.5	4.2
Agriculture, forestry, and fishing	4.9	3.9
Unskilled labor	6.3	9.0

Table II a

Percentage Distribution in Occupations of Persons Rehabilitated with Training: (6,502 individuals in U.S.; 1,221 in N.E.)

Professional	12.9	8.5
Technical and Semi-professional	4.3	7.0
Clerical, sales, and business	36.1	40.1
Skilled and semi-skilled	18.7	24.5
Repair, Service, and Maintenance	13.9	10.2
Personal Service	7.6	3.9
Handicrafts	1.1	.6
Farming, animal husbandry, etc.	3.3	2.6
Other training courses	2.1	2.6

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Statistical Tables Concerning Various Phases of Vocational Rehabilitation

TABLE III

MEDIAN WAGE SCALES OF REHABILITANTS

Whites			Negroes		
	U.S.	N.E.		U.S.	N.E.
Males			Males		
Under 24	16.44	17.70			
24-35	18.30	18.44	all ages	11.77	16.89
Over 36	18.12	20.83			
Females			Females		
Under 24	14.08	11.48			
24-35	15.95	15.54	all ages	8.26	12.56
Over 36	19.08	18.39			

TABLE IV

MEDIAN COSTS OF REHABILITATION BY VARIOUS METHODS

Method	Median Total Costs		% Distribution among cases rehabilitated with training	
	U.S.	N.E.	U.S.	N.E.
Training only	$127.20	$167.70	47.3	28.1
" and appliance	222.51	286.16	8.1	6.6
" " other	167.72	199.50	11.9	17.2
Appliance only	118.75	124.94		

SUMMARY

In April 1939, Delaware committed itself to a fuller program for educating handicapped individuals than it has ever previously attempted. It must now decide whether to provide generously for such work, or to make such minumum outlay as may possibly fulfill the letter of the law. Its residents must also decide whether or not they are willing to offer positions on fair terms to graduates of special training programs of various sorts.

Public or private provision has already been made for the education of all totally blind children without additional handicap, and a considerable proportion of the totally deaf. The child patients at sanatoria for the treatment or prevention of tuberculosis have special public schools. A sizable block of the mentally defective and retarded are provided for. A Federal-State rehabilitation service for adults unable to follow their former occupation has just been placed in operation. Plans have been made to give crippled children the facilities they need. Some invalid children unable to attend school are tutored at private expense.

More complete facilities are needed if the State is to provide adequately for all the deaf, the mentally defective, and the frail or crippled children unable to attend school.

No provision whatever is made for speech defectives, for partially blind or hard-of-hearing children, or for delicate children of various sorts who could safely attend school in a properly arranged and supervised classroom, or, in many parts of the State, for the higher grade of mental defectives, especially among adolescents and colored children. The State has no pension legislation for indigent blind residents.

Far more individuals are listed in the neglected groups than

in those whose members are partially or completely provided for.

The White House Conference Committee's conservative estimate of 1932, for example, lists 32 as the probable number of deaf school children and 540 as the probable number of hard of hearing; 30 as blind, 130 as partially sighted; and other groups in proportion.

Special classes are admittedly more expensive than those required for average children. With some groups, results come very slowly. Many handicapped children can never, even with the best of schooling, become entirely independent. The idea that such classes cost more than they are worth is far from extinct. A school administrator in the State once remarked to a teacher who was urging more adequate space and equipment for an opportunity class, "they are not worth the room they are taking up now." Unfortunately, this represents a far from negligible sentiment. The slowness with which the various programs finally launched have grown prove that many think it would be a nice, charitable gesture if full training opportunities could be offered for those with mental or bodily handicaps, but the expense is too great.

The real problem, however, is whether Delaware can afford not to give such training.

The pioneers who fought the early battles for public schools in Delaware defended them on many grounds. One of the most telling arguments was that schools were a branch of the defense as much as the army or navy. Another called them one of the most profitable types of "internal improvement," a term that ordinarily meant, in the 1830's, making the vast resources of the country accessible to its residents. No democracy, so ran the argument, could be healthy unless its citizens had the training necessary for self-support and for reaching independent conclusions based on reliable information. Schools would supply these needs. In addition, they might be expected to perform two other services.

They would salvage many young people who might otherwise drift into crime, and they would discover and develop gifted youths of all economic classes to be the leaders of the next generation.

A hundred years of experience have in large measure vindicated the judgment of men like Willard Hall and Charles Marim. Their arguments are as valid for the members of handicapped groups as they were for the rank and file of Delaware children a century ago. Most individuals in the handicapped groups are people of ordinary ability who have the right and the duty to contribute their best work in exchange for a livelihood. Their number also includes a few dangerous defectives and, especially among the mentally dull, many likely to become delinquent in minor ways unless they are carefully guided. The physically handicapped have their proportionate share of gifted members.

Delaware cannot afford to leave dangerous defectives undiscovered and unsupervised until they have done irreparable damage, or to allow the dull-witted to drift into crimes adequate training could have prevented. It cannot afford to permanently support the average people among the handicapped, or let them remain needlessly inefficient throughout their working lives, when proper training would enable them to support themselves. It cannot spare the gifts of talented individuals who have some physical defect.

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Governor Richard C. McMullen, relative to administration of the funds available for education of crippled children.

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