EDUCATION OF FEEBLE-MINDED WOMEN

BY

MARY VANUXEM, Ph.D.

ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT AND PSYCHOLOGIST LAURELTON STATE VILLAGE LAURELTON, PA.

Teachers College, Columbia University Contributions to Education, No. 174

Published by **Teachers College, Columbia University**New York City
1925

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The author wishes to express her indebtedness to Dr. Mary M. Wolfe, Superintendent of the Laurelton State Village, Laurelton, Pennsylvania, for her helpful sympathy, broad understanding, stimulating encouragement and unfailing support which has made possible the carrying out of this work.

Thanks are due and gratefully given to the Board of Trustees of the Laurelton State Village for their splendid coöperation in furthering the development of broad fields of social and practical

educational activities.

Special acknowledgment is due the officers and employees of the Laurelton State Village for their spirit of loyalty which was a

potent factor in training the girls.

Thanks are also due to Dr. Ellen C. Potter, Secretary of Welfare of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania and Dr. William C. Sandy, Head of the Bureau of Mental Health, Department of Welfare, for their kindly interest in the scientific work inaugurated at the Laurelton State Village.

Sincere appreciation and warm thanks are given to Dr. Leta S. Hollingsworth, Associate Professor of Educational Psychology, Dr. Rudolf Pintner, Professor of Educational Psychology, and Dr. David Snedden, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, for their helpful advice, valuable suggestions and careful criticism of this work.

M. V.

CONTENTS

CHAPTER		PAGE
I.	HISTORICAL SKETCH OF THE CARE AND TRAINING OF MENTAL DEFECTIVES	1
II.	THE TESTS AND THEIR RESULTS	6
III.	Education	12
IV.	ACADEMIC EDUCATION	16
V.	Industrial Education	23
VI.	Moral Education	48
	Personality	
	SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS	
	BIBLIOGRAPHY	

EDUCATION OF FEEBLE-MINDED WOMEN

CHAPTER I

HISTORICAL SKETCH OF THE CARE AND TRAINING OF MENTAL DEFECTIVES

The care and training of mental defectives in the last one hundred and fifty years may be divided into several distinct periods. Although the line of demarcation between the periods is not a sharp one, nevertheless, the various types of training are clearly differentiated. The earliest conception was that mental defectives could grasp all subjects ordinarily studied by normal persons, provided the period of training was longer and the presentation of subject matter was of a special character. The proponents of this idea felt that feeble-minded persons educated along these lines would eventually reach the same mental plane attained by normal individuals.

Gradually this early belief was found to be untenable. Actual

practice showed that even with prolonged training and the use of special methods it was impossible to accomplish the desired goal. No important changes, however, occurred in the management of mental defectives until Dr. H. H. Goddard of the Vineland Training School, Vineland, New Jersey, and Dr. C. B. Davenport, of the Eugenics Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, New York, sponsored the theory that mental deficiency was always hereditary and that no amount of training could or would enable mental defectives to become normal, assume their places in the world, and cope with the difficulties usually encountered by normal individuals. The protagonists of the theory of heredity were most emphatic in their statements that it was unwise for mental defectives to be at large, and that the only safe method of dealing with this problem was to segregate all persons who showed any such taint. Their idea was that as a result of the segregation, feeble-

mindedness would in time be wiped out; for if mental defectives

Mendelian Law would die out. Other studies such as those made of "The Pineys," "The Kallikak Family," etc., augmented the popular clamor for segregation of the feeble-minded. This resulted in efforts to increase the capacity of the existing institutions for the feeble-minded and in demands for the establishment of institutions for mentally defective women of child-bearing age.

In the United States at this time there were already two institutions devoted to the care of feeble-minded girls and women, one at Newark, New York, and the other at Vineland, New Jersey. These institutions, however, cared for girls and women from five years of age to the end of the child-bearing period. In choosing the type of institution for their state, the socially minded people of Pennsylvania decided that an institution solely for feeble-minded women of child-bearing age was preferable to one admitting children, since the institutions already in existence in that state could handle that phase of the problem.

As a result of this demand, the legislature of 1913 established the Pennsylvania Village for Feeble-minded Women of Childbearing Age (now the Laurelton State Village), in order that by segregation these girls and women might not be able to have children and thus transmit their defects to succeeding generations. Although may of the better informed citizens realized the pressing need of an institution of this type and every effort was made to arouse public sentiment; nevertheless, it was difficult to obtain sufficient funds through legislative action to develop and carry on the work. While the act creating the institution was passed in 1913 and three buildings had been erected, no money was appropriated for maintenance until the legislative session of 1919. As a result, the institution was not opened until December, 1919. The first admission was made within a month. Since that time one hundred and eighty-one have been admitted. One hundred and fifty-four of these girls are still in residence. When the idea of establishing the Pennsylvania Village was first conceived there was no thought of utilizing the institution, especially for the care of delinquent defectives, but the number of requests was so large and the number of places so few that it became necessary to select only the most urgent cases for admission. Consequently, without any conscious selection, the large majority of those admitted belong to the delinquent defective class; in fact, one hundred and forty-one of the one hundred and eighty-one ad-

mitted are found in this group. It is generally conceded that these girls form one of the big social problems and constitute the greatest menace to society among any of the groups of mental defectives.

For a number of years the policy of segregation played an important part in the care and management of mental defectives. As time elapsed, however, the wisdom and expediency of depending upon this method alone for solving the problem began to be questioned. The surprising disclosures as to the prevalence of low mentality, revealed by the Army Tests given at the time of the World War: the development of colony and extramural life for mental defectives; the results of additional studies as to heredity, all had their influence in changing the viewpoint with regard to feeble-mindedness.

So much has been written concerning the work of the Division of Psychology of the United States Army that it is merely necesary to repeat their findings in order that the continuity of the educational history of mental defectives may not be lost. It will be recalled that approximately 15 per cent of the men examined did not test above ten years of age and an additional 30 per cent did not reach fourteen years. These reports in themselves are interesting from a scientific standpoint, but when the economic side is considered, they take on additional meaning. Since it is generally conceded that these tests were given to a cross-section of the American public between twenty-one and thirty-one years of age, and that approximately 45 per cent of the men tested were not able to score above fourteen years; then, either the tests were not reliable, or the standard for maturity is too high, or mental deficiency exists to a far greater extent than had been previously supposed.

Recent investigations have increased the belief that the last premise is the one most tenable. These concomitant facts, however, must be pointed out; that, notwithstanding statements made prior to the World War, all mental defectives were inclined toward delinquency, needed supervision and were incapable of selfsupport; the majority of those found in the lower groups in the Army Tests were not only living in the world without causing any appreciable disturbance, but also, were self-supporting. raised the question as to whether, if these facts were true, it was possible to retain the idea of segregating all mental defectives. First, there would be many more than would fill the existing state and private institutions; second, the cost of this care would constitute such an extremely heavy burden as to be almost intolerable to the taxpayers. Therefore, consideration had to be given to other measures in addition to segregation.

The development of colony and extramural life assisted in weakening the policy of absolute segregation. This development was due chiefly to the work of two men; Dr. Walter E. Fernald, superintendent of the Massachusetts School for Feeble-minded, Waverly, Massachusetts, and Dr. Charles Bernstein, superintendent of the Rome State School, Rome, New York. In 1919 Dr. Fernald reported a most interesting and illuminating study of persons discharged from his institution during a period of twenty-five years. In accordance with this report, to the surprise of many, the majority of those who had been discharged were living

very satisfactory extramural lives.

Thirteen years prior to the publication of Dr. Fernald's report, Dr. Bernstein established his first farm colony for boys. colony differed from colonies established previous to this time (1906), in other institutions, in that it was started with the idea that it would be a stepping-stone between the institution and the outside world, and thus bridge the gap between the two, combining the protection of the former with the freedom of the latter. As this system gradually proved its value, Dr. Bernstein developed other colonies, both farm and industrial. His greatest innovation was establishing colonies for girls. This step was of far-reaching significance. It gave an opportunity to girls, who could adapt themselves to colony life, to prove that they were fit to live outside. It is true that some of the girls and women tried in the colonies were unable to meet the requirements of this type of life and so perforce had to be returned to the parent institution. Fortunately, however, colony life for girls has, in general, proved successful. At the present time (June 1924), approximately onehalf of Dr. Bernstein's girls lead extramural lives. Both Dr. Fernald's and Dr. Bernstein's experiences have given added proof that while segregation is a dominating factor in the control of mental deficiency other agencies are of importance and must be used in conjunction with it.

Recent investigations in regard to heredity have brought into question the invariable menace of mental deficiency and the neces-

5

sity for complete segregation. In 1921 Dr. C. B. Davenport in collaboration with Dr. F. H. Danielson issued a report in The Hill Folk which modified his findings of an earlier date relative to the heredity of feeble-mindedness. In earlier writings Dr. Davenport held the theory that mental deficiency is due to unit factors and hence is always hereditary. In his recent work he found that among these people (The Hill Folk), when matings occurred between two definitely feeble-minded persons, the proportion of defective offspring anticipated under the Mendelian Law did not materialize, in fact, only 77.3 per cent instead of the expected 100 per cent occurred. This result can easily be explained upon the basis that one of the feeble-minded parents might have been of the accidental or induced type of mental defectives. Other studies such as those of Dr. A. H. Estabrook, The Jukes in 1915: Dr. Fernald's writings, and Annual Reports of the Massachusetts State School for the Feeble-minded from 1916, etc., tend to confirm the fact that heredity is not so potent a factor in the production of mental deficiency as had been supposed ten to fifteen years ago.

It was with this more recent knowledge in mind that the following studies and experiments were undertaken at the Pennsylvania Village (now the Laurelton State Village), from June 1920 to June 1924, inclusive.

CHAPTER II

THE TESTS AND THEIR RESULTS

Although there is a multiplicity of mental tests, nevertheless, whenever the need for testing arises certain ones stand out distinctly in the foreground. Of these the most prominent are the Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon Tests, the Kuhlmann Tests (especially good for children under three years of age), and certain performance tests, *e.g.*, those found in Pintner and Paterson's A Scale of Performance Tests, the Witmer Cylinder, etc. When administering the latter type of tests it is advisable to use only tests that have been thoroughly standardized.

When testing the mental capacities of an individual, it is unwise to depend solely upon one group of tests for accuracy of results. If honest and careful diagnoses and prognoses are to be made, all available methods must be employed which adapt themselves to each individual case and sufficient time must be allowed for each examination. When both general intelligence and per-

for each examination. When both general intelligence and performance tests are administered, the greater number of reactions obtained furnish additional information which aids materially in

diagnosis and prognosis.

In considering which tests shall be administered first, if more than one group is to be used, it is advisable for the examiner to ascertain the mental attitude of the person to be tested. In certain cases it may be wise not only to choose carefully which tests are to be given first, but also to divide the examination into several sittings. In general it is advisable to administer performance tests first. It has been found that these tests arouse the interest of both children and adults and thus pave the way for obtaining more satisfactory results with other tests. There is a novelty attached to these tests that does not accompany the Binet-Simon, since the latter savor all too much of school examinations. In making a study of the mental capacities of the girls at the Laurelton State Village, it was deemed wise to follow the same procedure, on the principle that since normal persons are not, as a rule,

enthusiastic over formal tests, it was probable that this same attitude would be intensified in the subnormal, especially those of the higher grades. Experience has borne out the value of this decision. In giving procedence to the performance tests in making examinations at the Laurelton State Village advantage was also taken of the fact that the great majority of the girls are extremely fond of such games as Parchesi, Crokonole, Five Hundred, Flinch, Pit, Jigsaw Puzzles, etc., in fact, some of them are exceedingly skillful at them. As a result, when they came to be tested and were started first upon performance tests, they readily fell into an attitude of coöperation even when they had been strongly opposed to being tested.

The performance tests chosen for these studies were: (1) The Seguin Form Board, (2) The Mare and Foal, (3) The Witmer Cylinder, (4) Woodworth and Wells Substitution Test (however, only one-half of the sheet, being used), (5) Healy "A," (6) Healy Pictorial Completion No. 1, (7) Healy "B," and (8) Knox Cubes. The norms as found in Pintner and Paterson's A Scale of Performance Tests were used in tests 1, 2, 4, 5, 6 and 8. The norms as used by Dr. Lightner Witmer in his Psychological Clinic at the University of Pennsylvania were followed in test 3. The norms as found in "Eleven Mental Tests Standardized," were used in test 7. The results of the various tests administered are given in the median mental age.

The Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon Tests followed the performance tests. In nineteen cases 1, 21, 27, 28, 31, 40, 61, 62, 65, 68, 76, 103, 104, 110, 126, 134, 145, 160 and 170 the Performance Tests and the Stanford Revision were given at two different times. Whenever the girls and women were unable to pass the III-year test of the Stanford Revision, the Kuhlmann Tests ² for children under three years were administered and scored according to Dr. Kulhmann's methods.

Table I gives the results of both groups of tests. Cases 5, 60, 73, 78, 79, 80, 83, 84, 98, 99 and 100 are omitted because they were definitely mentally diseased when committed and it was not considered necessary to incorporate their results with those of mental defectives. Among those included in the table are a few who showed mild psychotic tendencies at times; but whose whole

¹ Eugenics and Social Welfare Bulletin No. V, Department of State Board of Charities, State of New York, 1915. ² Kuhlmann, A Handbook of Mental Tests, pp. 86-94.

Case No.	C.A.	S.R.	I.Q.	P.T.	I.Q.	Case No.	C.A.	S.R.	I.Q.	P.T.	I.Q.
1											
1	24-8	5.	31	4	25	42	17-5	6.8	42	8	50
2	30-7	3.	19	3	19	43	23-0	7.4	46	10	63
3	24-0	6.6	41	7	44	44	16-8	7.	44	8	50
4	16-4	5.10	36	5	31	45	18–7	6.5	40	6	38
6	18–5	10.9	67	13	81	46	23-2	2.8	17	1	6
7	24-2	8.6	53	9	56	47	28–2	1.8	10	1	6
8	19-0	7.4	46	8	50	48	17-2	7.	44	6	38
9	18–11	4.8	30	5	31	49	36-0	4.10	30	5	31
10	16-0	8.	50	10	63	50	16-8	6.	38	7	44
11	21-5	8.10	55	9	56	51	18-0	6.8	42	7	44
12	22-0	9.1	57	11	69	52	25-0	8.2	51	8	50
13	17-0	6.8	42	9	56	53	19–4	5.10	36	5	31
14	19-0	7.4	46	9	56	54	22-9	6.1	38	7	44
15	15-7	6.4	41	7	45	55	19-5	8.8	54	7	44
16	19-4	5.8	35	7	44	56	28-0	8.9	55	8	50
17	22-5	3,4	21	3	19	57	20-0	6.10	43	7	44
18	19-6	3.4	21	2	13	58	20-3	8.10	55	11	69
19	43-0	5.4	33	5	31	59	29-2	8.8	55	8	50
20	18-6	8.1	51	10	63	61	27-0	10.4	65	10	63
21	25-0	6.10	43	7	44	62	17-10	6.10	43	6	38
22	15-7	7.4	47	7	45	63	20-0	7.8	48	7	44
23	27-10	11.	69	15	94	64	42-1	3.8	23	5	31
24	14-2	2.6	18	1	7	65	44-9	12.9	80	10	63
25	14-10	3.8	25	6	40	66	19-6	7.8	48	8	50
26	28-0	6.2	39	6	38	67	18-8	8.4	52	12	75
27	26-0	5.	31	6	38	68	21-1	8.	50	10	63
28	27-9	6.2	39	7	44	69	18-9	7.10	49	8	50
29	26-0	7.10	49	8	50	70	22-2	7.4	46	6	38
30	16-6	8.2	51	10	63	71	19-9	8.10	55	9	56
31	22-0	9.2	57	6	38	72	19-3	7.10	49	8	50
32	16-9	8.	50	8	50	74	13-7	10.8	79	12	75
33	20-0	8.4	52	9	56	75	16-5	8.7	54	14	88
34	16-1	6.4	40	9	56	76	28-1	5.	31	5	31
35	20-0	7.	44	9	56	77	45-2	3.6	22	3	19
36	44-3	6.8	42	6	38	81	33-3	9.7	60	7	44
37	35-7	1.8	10	1	6	82	38-0	3.	19	2	13
38	34-1	6.	38	7	44	85	18-7	8.1	51	9	56
39	13-6	3.10	28	5	37	86	18-11	8.11	56	14	88
40	43-0	5.2	32	5	31	87	38-0	5.	31	5	31
41	30-9	3.4	21	2	13	88	16-11	3.2	20	3	19
41	30-9	3.4	21	2	13	00	10-11	3.2	20	3	1

TABLE I—Continued

Case No.	C.A.	S.R.	I.Q.	P.T.	I.Q.	Case No.	C.A.	S.R.	I.Q.	P.T.	I.Q.
89	23-2	4.2	26	4	25	137	22-8	8.6	53	8	50
90	22-5	4.8	30	4	25	138	21-0	7.2	45	7	44
91	24-1	7.4	46	8	50	139	15-5	8.	52	9	56
92	15-3	3.6	23	5	31	140	29-10	8.4	52	8	50
93	35-6	5.4	33	5	31	141	36–9	8.8	54	9	56
94	24-0	2.6	16	1	6	142	22-3	11.2	70	14	88
95	51-2	6.10	43	6	38	143	20-6	11.5	71	11	69
96	22-11	2.8	17	1	6	144	19–3	7.8	48	9	56
97	27-0	8.2	51	11	69	145	14-8	7.6	51	8	55
101	17-9	5.	31	7	44	146	17-5	6.4	40	6	38
102	20-4	9.1	57	13	81	147	14-10	7.10	53	11	74
103	19-8	9.6	59	11	69	148	19-8	12.3	77	16	100
104	18-3	11.6	72	14	88	149	21-7	7.2	45	13	81
105	23-7	7.8	48	9	56	150	32-2	6.8	42	9	56
106	22-4	6.8	42	8	50	151	20-10	7.8	48	9	56
107	40+	5.4	33	5	31	152	17-4	11.10	74	15	94
108	21-6	9.8	60	11	69	153	24-11	7.	44	7	44
109	16-5	10.2	64	13	81	154	23-0	3.8	23	3	19
110	20-9	7.6	47	9	56	155	19-6	10.6	66	14	88
111	23-9	8.7	54	10	63	156	18-1	9.2	57	14	88
112	22-5	9.4	58	15	94	158	16-1	2.8	13	1	6
113	29-9	9.4	58	12	75	159	12-4	2.10	23	3	7
114	16-4	7.10	49	8	50	160	20-11	8.4	52	14	88
115	23-0	9.9	61	13	81	161	10-6	4.6	43	6	57
116	14-6	1.8	12	1	8	162	19–11	4.10	30	5	31
117	19–10	7.2	45	6		163	21-4	8.	50	12	75
118	18-5	8.2	51	9		164	19-6	3.	19	4	25
119	16-4	8.	50	10	1	165	26-5	8.4	52	14	88
120	18-2	10.	63	15	94	166	17-3	8.8	54	11	69
121	37–10	3.	19	4		167	23-3	8.4	52	10	63
122	23-2	10.4	65	12	75	168	28–10	7.6	47	7	44
123	21-2	8.2	51	12		169	14-5	6.10	47	6	42
124	25-0	9.3	58	14	88	170	22-1	7.4	46	12	75
125	15-2	12.2	80	16		171	29-0	The Trace	43	9	56
126	17-9	10.4	65	14		172	15-6	6.10		14	90
127	21-0	5.4	1			173	The state of the state of		61		100000
128	24-5		33	5	31	174	24-1	8.	50	12	75
129		8.	50	8			30-9	7.8	48	12	75
	20-0	4.4	27	5		175	21-9	8.	50	12	75
130	18-7	8.10	55	8		176	14-0	7.10	56	10	71
131	19-5	8.7	54	10		177	28-6	11.7	72	16	100
132	20-6	7.4	46	9	1	178	22-0	7.2	45	5	31
133	15-5	4.2	27	4		179	28–10	7.	44	7	44
134	22-5	7.	44	6	38	180	25-2	8.11	56	11	69
135	21–11	8.5	53	13	81	181	25–0	9.6	59	11	69
136	18–8	9.10	61	14	88	100					

mental content was so predominately that of mental deficiency and not of mental disease that their results were not rejected. Case 157 died before she could be tested. In obtaining the I.Q.'s of adults, sixteen years has been used as the basis of computation.

Exceedingly interesting results are revealed when the correlation between the Stanford Revision and the Performance Tests, as shown by Table I, is studied. The statistics are as follows:

Correlation between the S.R. and P.T. for total group (169) tested, $r=.860\pm.013$ Correlation between the S.R. and P.T. for 103 morons tested, $r=.705\pm.033$ Correlation between the S.R. and P.T. for 57 imbeciles tested, $r=.866\pm.022$ Correlation between the S.R. and P.T. for 9 idiots tested, $r=.40\pm.188$

In all cases the Pearson formula for the coefficient of correlation $\left(\frac{\Sigma x \gamma}{\sqrt{\Sigma x^2 \Sigma \gamma^2}}\right)$ was used; the formula for the Probable Error was $\frac{67.45 \ (1-r^2)}{\sqrt{n}}$. Observation of the above results seems to show

that the correlation in the case of the idiots is, in all probability, unreliable; first, the number of cases studied is too few; second, the correlation is too small and the P. E. too large. In the other three correlations there seems to be a definite relation between the two series of tests since the correlation is high and P. E. is small.

Careful study and comparison of the results obtained in these two series of tests disclose another interesting set of facts. It will be seen that a majority of the morons obtained a higher score in the Performance Tests than in the Stanford Revision; that in the two sets of tests the scores of the imbeciles ran almost pari passu; and that the scores of the idiots who were chronologically over sixteen years of age were lower in the Performance Tests than in the Stanford Revision. The following analysis is presented to summarize the exact relation between these scores:

MORONS

Sixty-two (60.1 per cent) had higher scores in the Performance Tests than in the Stanford Revision. This difference ranged from one to five years. Thirty-five (33.9 per cent) had scores in both sets of tests which ranged within one year of each other.

Six (6 per cent) had lower scores in the Performance Tests.

IMBECILES

Nine (15.8 per cent) have higher scores in the Performance Tests than in the Stanford Revision.

Forty-seven (82.4 per cent) have pari passu scores in the two types of tests.

One (1.8 per cent) has a lower score in the Performance Tests.

IDIOTS

All idiots chronologically over sixteen years of age have lower scores in the Performance Tests.

CHAPTER III

EDUCATION

In the past decade there has been a marked change in the method of handling and training mental defectives. This difference can be illustrated best by a quotation from the Act ¹ establishing the Pennsylvania Village (now the Laurelton State Village), which embodies the best thought of ten years ago, and comparing those provisions with the present educational policy of this and other institutions for mental defectives.

This institution shall be entirely and especially devoted to the reception, segregation, detention, care and training of feeble-minded women of child-bearing age:... It is specifically determined that the process of agriculture shall be primarily considered in the educational department; that the employment of the inmates in the care and raising of stock and the cultivating of fruits and vegetables, etc., shall be made tributary to the maintenance of the institution.

The Laurelton State Village was established during the period when segregation was lauded as the only solution of the problem of the feeble-minded; consequently, at that time, the type of education set forth in the Act was considered a progressive and sufficient program. Since then experience has placed in question the possibility and wisdom of expecting segregation alone to control the situation. As a result, it has become necessary to evolve new methods for the care and education of mental defectives.

To-day no one curriculum can be devised that will apply equally to all inmates of an institution for the feeble-minded. In general, two distinct policies in education must be considered: first, the training and education that is to be given to the girls and women who for their own benefit and that of the community must remain in the institution. These are either of low mentality or of such anti-social tendencies as to be burdens, menaces, or both, if permitted to be at large in the community. For this group the old type of training with slight modifications is sufficient. Their training is planned primarily for the benefit of the institution. Second, the training and education that is to be given to

those who are expected eventually to lead either full or partial extramural lives must be considered. This group is composed of those who (a) have sufficiently high mental ability to profit by thorough instruction; (b) show only slight anti-social tendencies which may be eradicated by instruction; (c) give reasonable assurance of being able to live in the outside world. The training and education given to this group are as liberal as can be assimilated in order to fit its members to return to extramural life as economic assets.

In planning any curriculum for these two groups the training must be viewed from three angles: academic, industrial and moral. The group under discussion determines largely which type of training is to receive the greatest emphasis. When the first group (i.e., those who are institutional cases) is under advisement, then undoubtedly the emphasis should be placed upon industrial and moral training with special weight upon the latter; since without moral training little can be accomplished industrially. When the second group (i.e., those who are either the possible or probable candidates for extra-institutional life) is under discussion all three kinds of training must receive attention. Here the different emphasis for each girl will be of degree instead of kind.

In outlining a scheme of education for mental defectives three factors must be provided for: First, the individual; second, the individual in relation to the institution; third, the individual in relation to the community. When the girl herself is the subject of discussion one must realize that her intellectual lack acts as a barrier to more than a certain amount of achievement. Sometimes, however, this very lack is considered a greater handicap than it actually is. Simply because a girl seems to have arrived at an *impasse* is no proof that she has reached the limit of her mental capacity. It may be that this is only a "plateau" in her learning process. If this fact is recognized in time so that her discouragement is not too great, careful, helpful training may enable her to attain a higher level of skill than was supposed possible.

The second factor (i.e., the girl in relation to the institution) requires consideration. It must be acknowledged that no matter how carefully and economically an institution is managed it is an expensive proposition and a heavy burden upon the tax-payers of the state; therefore, everyone in residence should be required to

do her share toward making it self-supporting. In fact, as may be recalled, the Act establishing the Laurelton State Village definitely states that the girls are expected to contribute their quota of work towards the maintenance of the institution. As a result, industrial training must form a large part of the general scheme of education. Certain types of girls will be given more of this kind of training than others; some, because they are better equipped for manual labor, and others because they are more likely to remain as institutional cases. With certain of the girls the industrial work becomes more vocational in character than it does with others. This is essentially true with regard to those who are destined for extramural life.

The third factor that necessitates a varied curriculum is the girl in relation to the community. Since colonization and parole are being emphasized more and more as methods of dealing with the problem of mental deficiency, the course of training must be so arranged that it will enable the girl to adapt herself to extramural life in the average community. It is perfectly obvious that the training ordinarily given to institutional cases will not afford sufficient preparation for living among normal people. sequently, the whole educational scheme for these girls must be modified to meet modern tendencies and should include the essentials of academic, vocational, and moral training.

In the first place, the academic training must be of such a character as to provide both self-protection and recreation. Every girl who leaves the institution should have a sufficient knowledge of the three R's. She must be able to read and interpret notices, warnings, etc., which she meets in her industrial life. In addition, she should be able to amuse herself by spending part of her leisuretime in reading. This will lessen the likelihood of her seeking other diversions, such as poor theatres and movies, or spending time unwisely on the streets. She must be able to write a legible hand in order to sign payrolls, papers, etc. This knowledge may also enable her to write letters. She must have a wide enough acquaintance with arithmetic in order to safeguard her wages and to prevent her from being imposed upon when she makes her purchases.

An even more significant phase of her education is the vocational one. She should not be permitted to leave the institution until she has learned at least two trades, preferably not seasonal