



LEHIGH  
UNIVERSITY

Library &  
Technology  
Services

The Preserve: Lehigh Library Digital Collections

# Developments In Special Education In New Jersey Since 1900.

## Citation

STAUB, SHIRLEY T. *Developments In Special Education In New Jersey Since 1900*. 1978, <https://preserve.lehigh.edu/lehigh-scholarship/graduate-publications-theses-dissertations/theses-dissertations/developments>.

Find more at <https://preserve.lehigh.edu/>

*This document is brought to you for free and open access by Lehigh Preserve. It has been accepted for inclusion by an authorized administrator of Lehigh Preserve. For more information, please contact [preserve@lehigh.edu](mailto:preserve@lehigh.edu).*

## INFORMATION TO USERS

This material was produced from a microfilm copy of the original document. While the most advanced technological means to photograph and reproduce this document have been used, the quality is heavily dependent upon the quality of the original submitted.

The following explanation of techniques is provided to help you understand markings or patterns which may appear on this reproduction.

1. The sign or "target" for pages apparently lacking from the document photographed is "Missing Page(s)". If it was possible to obtain the missing page(s) or section, they are spliced into the film along with adjacent pages. This may have necessitated cutting thru an image and duplicating adjacent pages to insure you complete continuity.
2. When an image on the film is obliterated with a large round black mark, it is an indication that the photographer suspected that the copy may have moved during exposure and thus cause a blurred image. You will find a good image of the page in the adjacent frame.
3. When a map, drawing or chart, etc., was part of the material being photographed the photographer followed a definite method in "sectioning" the material. It is customary to begin photoing at the upper left hand corner of a large sheet and to continue photoing from left to right in equal sections with a small overlap. If necessary, sectioning is continued again — beginning below the first row and continuing on until complete.
4. The majority of users indicate that the textual content is of greatest value, however, a somewhat higher quality reproduction could be made from "photographs" if essential to the understanding of the dissertation. Silver prints of "photographs" may be ordered at additional charge by writing the Order Department, giving the catalog number, title, author and specific pages you wish reproduced.
5. PLEASE NOTE: Some pages may have indistinct print. Filmed as received.

**University Microfilms International**

300 North Zeeb Road  
Ann Arbor, Michigan 48106 USA  
St. John's Road, Tyler's Green  
High Wycombe, Bucks, England HP10 8HR

7815632

STAUB, SHIRLEY T.  
DEVELOPMENTS IN SPECIAL EDUCATION IN NEW  
JERSEY SINCE 1900,

LEHIGH UNIVERSITY, ED.D., 1978

University  
Microfilms  
International

300 N. ZEEB ROAD, ANN ARBOR, MI 48106

DEVELOPMENTS IN SPECIAL EDUCATION

IN NEW JERSEY SINCE 1900

by

Shirley T. Staub

A Dissertation

Presented to the Graduate Committee

of Lehigh University

in Candidacy for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

in

Special Education

Department of Instruction and Curriculum

Lehigh University

1978

Approved and recommended for acceptance as a  
dissertation in partial fulfillment of the requirements  
for the degree of Doctor of Education.

5/10/78  
(date)

Elwin G. Warfel  
Professor in Charge

Accepted May 22, 1978  
(date)

Special Committee directing  
the doctoral work of  
Mrs. Shirley Staub

Elwin G. Warfel  
Chairman

Joseph A. Darling

Margaret C. Handrick

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

My husband, Kaspar Staub, and my children, Rhonda Staub and Glen Staub, offered encouragement, support and a great amount of practical help which made it possible for me to pursue my chosen goals.

Dr. Elvin G. Warfel with humor, patience and high standards guided the study through each of its stages and assured its completion from the start. His wisdom and friendship made the project a very rewarding experience.

My thanks are extended to the committee for their suggestions and advice, and to Mrs. Marie Young for her excellent typing services.

I am greatly indebted to the fifty individuals who gave their time and hospitality, and shared their valuable files and memorabilia to make this research possible.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	PAGE
Abstract. . . . .	1
CHAPTER	
I. INTRODUCTION . . . . .	4
Need for the Study . . . . .	5
Statement of the Problem . . . . .	6
Limitations of the Study . . . . .	6
Sources of Data. . . . .	7
Organization of the Study. . . . .	8
Methodology. . . . .	9
Definitions. . . . .	10
Summary. . . . .	20
II. REVIEW OF RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN . . . . .	21
Introduction . . . . .	21
History. . . . .	26
Historical Research. . . . .	34
Design . . . . .	44
Development of Questionnaire . . . . .	45
Time Schedule. . . . .	49
Selection of Interviewees. . . . .	51
Procedures for Collection of Data from Interviews. . . . .	52
Interviewing . . . . .	54

CHAPTER	PAGE
Bias. . . . .	58
III. THE DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION FOR THE HANDICAPPED. . . . .	62
Introduction. . . . .	62
The Testing Movement. . . . .	63
Mental Retardation. . . . .	66
Emotional Disturbance and Social Maladjustment. . . . .	73
Learning Disabilities . . . . .	81
Pioneers in Education of the Handicapped. . . . .	84
Language Theorists. . . . .	94
IV. INFORMATION FROM INTERVIEWS . . . . .	104
Introduction. . . . .	104
Significant Contributors. . . . .	108
General Contributors. . . . .	135
Organizations . . . . .	148
Landmarks in Special Education in New Jersey . . . . .	152
Location of Special Classes . . . . .	155
Trends in Special Education . . . . .	161
Future of Child Study Team. . . . .	171
V. ORGANIZATIONS . . . . .	179
Conference on the Handicapped . . . . .	179
New Jersey Association for Retarded Children . . . . .	186

CHAPTER	PAGE
Association of Brain-Injured Children. . . . .	196
The Council of Organizations in Schools for Emotionally Disturbed Children. . . . .	202
Clinical Reading Association . . . . .	207
VI. LEGISLATION. . . . .	213
Summary. . . . .	230
VII. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS . . . . .	231
Summary. . . . .	231
Conclusions. . . . .	233
Organizations. . . . .	238
Legislation. . . . .	239
Recommendations. . . . .	240
BIBLIOGRAPHY. . . . .	245
APPENDIX. . . . .	257
VITA. . . . .	275

## ABSTRACT

The study identified developments in Special Education in the state of New Jersey since 1900 by raising the following questions:

1. Who were the principal contributors to the development of Special Education in New Jersey and what contributions were made by these individuals?

2. What organizations made significant contributions to the growth of Special Education in New Jersey?

3. What legislation enabled Special Education to be effected in New Jersey?

Fifty individuals, chosen for their work in Special Education, were questioned in open-ended taped interviews. All of the fifty identified the events which led to their interest in Special Education and named other individuals who contributed to the growth of Special Education. Organizations and landmark legislation which had an impact on the development of Special Education in New Jersey were named by the interviewees.

The interviews revealed that the majority of individuals who were responsible for the growth of Special Education became involved by chance, not design, and their professional activities were precipitated by an awareness of the unmet needs of the handicapped. Their contributions included the establishment and supervision of classes for the handicapped and of teacher training programs, participation in organizations

dedicated to the education of the handicapped, and drafting legislation which mandated the admission of handicapped children into public schools.

The interviewees discussed organizations which were strong forces in the development of Special Education. With the aid of educators and legislators, groups of parents achieved their goal of public school education for all children. Many of these organizations disbanded when their goals were accomplished and for many no written record of their existence remains. Others turned to new goals or were absorbed by national organizations of similar intent.

A review of New Jersey Statutes and the New Jersey Administrative Code produced a sequential record of the legislation which prescribed the course and set the standards for Special Education throughout the state. Legislation affecting Special Education was fragmented and ambiguous until 1954. Since that time legislative action has been frequent and exact and adequate diagnosis and appropriate education is now mandated for all handicapped children through the age of twenty.

Interviewees recommended changes in the structure and functions of the Child Study Team and suggested a need for additional information about the effect of specific educational programs such as mainstreaming.

The research revealed a need for evidence of educational planning in attempts to meet the needs of the handicapped in the future. The study indicated that further questioning of significant contributors, and the collection and centralization of memorabilia from the private files of these individuals would represent additional evidence of the beginnings and growth of Special Education in New Jersey.

## CHAPTER I

### Introduction

An awareness of the differences in the educational needs of handicapped children can be found in records of the early part of the nineteenth century. Since the first legislative action in 1821, which led to provisions for the deaf, dumb, and blind, educators, concerned parents and legislators have worked to improve the quality of education for all atypical children.<sup>1</sup>

Over the past 75 years these efforts have resulted in the development of special education programs for each of 11 classifications of handicaps, including mentally retarded, visually handicapped, auditorily handicapped, communication handicapped, neurologically impaired, perceptually impaired, orthopedically handicapped, chronically ill, emotionally disturbed, socially maladjusted, and multiply handicapped. State legislation mandates local public school districts to provide an appropriate educational program for all handicapped children subsidized from state funds.<sup>2</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup>N.J.D.E., Commissioner's Advisory Council for the Handicapped, "Twentieth Year Report on Education Programs and Services for Handicapped in New Jersey Public Schools," January 1974, Unpublished Preliminary Edition, p. 1.

<sup>2</sup>New Jersey Administrative Code 8:28, June, 1970.

A progressive concept in this total effort was the formation of a diagnostic team known in New Jersey as a Child Study Team. A team is comprised of state certified professionals in the related disciplines of psychology, education and social work, who are charged with the identification and classification of all handicapped children between the ages of five and twenty.

#### Need for the Study

There were no complete chronologies describing the development of Special Education as it led to the need for the Child Study Team in New Jersey, and no written record of "behind the scenes" achievements of many individuals on local, county or state levels who labored on behalf of handicapped children. Historical data might have been lost if it had not been recorded during the lifetime of those individuals who determined the course of that history.

Individuals who influenced legislation and the establishment of the earliest educational programs for the handicapped contributed in their own words, pieces and fragments of the total picture, which, when joined together produce a multi-dimensional view of the forces that resulted in the present levels of special education available for learning disabled and handicapped children.

### Statement of the Problem

The study identified developments in Special Education in New Jersey since 1900 by raising the following questions:

1. Who were the principal contributors to the development of Special Education in New Jersey, and what contributions were made by these individuals?
2. What organizations made significant contributions to the growth of Special Education in New Jersey?
3. What legislation enabled Special Education to be effected in New Jersey?

### Limitations of the Study

1. The Child Study Team concept is a recent development in the diagnosis and evaluation of handicapped children in New Jersey, but it is a part of a total set of educational procedures and programs known as Special Education.

2. Special Education is a part of the total set of educational procedures and programs known to be a function of public schools.

3. Only individuals and events significant in the context of Special Education in the state of New Jersey from 1900 to 1977 have been considered.

4. The content as presented in this study reflects the perceptions of the interviewees on the extent and nature of Special Education in the state of New Jersey.

#### Sources of Data

The primary sources of data were fifty individuals whose professional lives have been associated in some way with the public school education of the handicapped. These individuals each participated in an oral interview as a means of sharing their recollections of the early days of Special Education and voicing their opinions about the people and events which contributed to the growth of Special Education in New Jersey.

The interviews were conducted with the use of the following interview guide:

1. How did you originally become interested in Special Education?
2. In your opinion who were the most valuable contributors to the development of Special Education in New Jersey? What were their contributions?
3. What organizations or groups have had a significant influence on Special Education in New Jersey?

4. What do you consider a notable landmark in the development of Special Education in New Jersey?

5. Do you remember the location of the first special class you knew about?

6. Which of the newest trends in Special Education will be the most important? What do you see as the future of the Child Study Team in New Jersey?

Printed and secondary sources of data included letters, memos, and unpublished documents found in the private collections of the interviewees. New Jersey Statutes and the New Jersey Administrative Code provided information about legislation. Department of Education publications gave information about individuals, organizations and legislation. More readily accessible sources such as textbooks, periodicals, test manuals and unpublished dissertations provided background information for the study.

#### Organization of the Study

The state recommended definitions of specific handicaps and an overview of the study are contained in the first chapter. The second chapter is a review of methods of general research and historical research, in addition to the design of the study. The research on mental retardation and emotional disturbance which

led to the recognition of specific learning defects is developed in the third chapter. Information which was collected in interviews is categorized in the fourth chapter by question sequence. The formation and growth of the organizations which made contributions to Special Education are reviewed in the fifth chapter. Chapter six lists legislative action on the State level which directly affected the public school instructional programs for the handicapped. The last chapter summarizes the findings of the study and identifies specific recommendations made by the interviewees for the future of the Child Study Team in New Jersey.

#### Methodology

Seven individuals were selected to be interviewed on the basis of the writer's experience in the field of education. The remaining 43 names were referred by individuals who are presently, or have recently been active in Special Education. These individuals were questioned in an open interview which was recorded by means of a tape recorder.

A review of New Jersey Statutes, Department of Education publications, periodicals, textbooks, and unpublished dissertations supplemented and verified

information gleaned from the notes, letters, memorandums and unpublished documents found in private collections.

## DEFINITIONS

### Handicapped Child

A child shall be considered handicapped (learning disabled, learning handicapped) when he is impaired physically, emotionally, intellectually or socially to such extent that without the aid of special facilities, special professional staff, special supplies and equipment, special time schedules and/or special methods of instruction he would not, in the judgment of the child study team be expected to function educationally in a manner similar to that of children not so impaired.

### Child Study Team

A basic child study team, acting in consultation with a physician, shall consist of a school psychologist, a learning disabilities specialist (also known as a learning disabilities teacher-consultant, and more recently, a learning consultant) and a school social worker.

A child study team may also include a psychiatrist experienced in work with children, a school administrator, a classroom teacher, a school nurse, a guidance counselor, a speech correctionist, a remedial reading teacher, and other members of the

school professional staff as may be recommended by the basic child study team with the approval of the chief school administrator.

#### Special Education

For purposes of this study, special education shall be considered to be that education, public or private, provided for children who have been recognized as impaired physically, emotionally, intellectually or socially, whether or not a child study team has been involved in the classification.

#### Learning Consultant

This title is now synonymous with learning disabilities specialist and learning disabilities teacher-consultant. The learning consultant is responsible for making a professional analysis of a child's learning assets and deficiencies, and for preparing an educational evaluation and prescriptive program to meet the needs of the child. The learning consultant's qualifications and certification are determined by state regulations.

#### School Psychologist

The school psychologist is a specialist in education and psychology with skills derived from extensive academic preparation and practical experience. His evaluative abilities consist of the

assessment of the total personality and relating pertinent variables to the student's social, emotional and intellectual functioning. State law stipulates that diagnosis, classification and placement in conjunction with other basic team members are the psychologist's primary role.

#### School Social Worker

This member of the basic team focuses on students with problems of an academic, social-emotional, or physical nature and is concerned with providing services for students who have problems which interfere with their normal progress in school. The social worker provides casework services, group work services, and community services to help plan, develop and coordinate programs and activities for students and their families. Qualifications and certification for school social workers are regulated by state law.

#### Auditorily Handicapped

A child shall be classified as auditorily handicapped (deaf) when his residual hearing is not sufficient to enable him to understand speech and develop language successfully, even with a hearing aid, without specialized instruction. He is unable

to interpret speech sounds as a result of an approximate 70 or more average decibel (ISO) loss in hearing in the "better" ear as measured with a calibrated audiometer by a person legally qualified to determine hearing disability.

A child shall be classified auditorily handicapped (hard of hearing) when his sense of hearing, although defective, is functional with or without a hearing aid, but whose hearing loss renders him unable to make full use of regular school experiences without special education. He should show a 30 or more average decibel (ISO) loss in hearing in either ear as measured with a calibrated audiometer by a person legally qualified to determine hearing impairment.

Classification procedures by a basic child study team shall include a determination of hearing made by a legally qualified practitioner in the field of hearing impairment.

#### Chronically Ill

A child who, because of illness such as tuberculosis, epilepsy, lowered vitality, cardiac condition, leukemia, asthma, malnutrition, pregnancy, or other physical disabilities which are otherwise

uncategorized but which make it impracticable for the child to receive adequate instruction through the regular school program shall be classified under the category of chronically ill.

In determining the classification of chronic illness, the school physician may make the medical examination himself, or he may accept the medical report of another qualified physician. The school nurse shall assist in the accumulation of the data necessary to make the evaluation. Determination of the need for a special educational program shall be the responsibility of the basic child study team.

#### Communication Handicapped

A child shall be classified as having a communication disorder when his native speech or language is severely impaired to the extent that it seriously interferes with his ability to use oral language to communicate and this disability is not due primarily to a hearing impairment. An exception to the above is the classification of simple articulation disorders which may be made by an approved speech correctionist or speech pathologist without child study team consultation. Such children shall be reported to the basic child study team.

### Emotionally Disturbed

A child shall be considered to be emotionally disturbed when his behavior is characterized by a pattern of functioning which is so inappropriate as to call attention to itself and which severely limits the individual from profiting from regular classroom learning experiences or severely hinders other pupils in the class from profiting from regular classroom learning experiences. The emotionally disturbed child further characterizes himself by a pattern of expression of emotion inappropriate to the situation in a matter of degree and quality. However, the emotionally disturbed child must give evidence of a degree of rational behavior which permits some communication with authority figures indicative of ability to profit from instruction under specially controlled circumstances.

Classification of emotionally disturbed children and recommendations of educational programs shall be made by the basic child study team augmented by the evaluation of a psychiatrist trained or experienced in working with children.

### Mentally Retarded

Mentally retarded children who, as a result of examination are considered to be mentally retarded

and shall be classified as educable, trainable, or mentally retarded to such a degree as to be "neither educable nor trainable."

"Mentally retarded (educable)" means that a child shall be considered to be mentally retarded (educable) when he: performs on a standardized clinical test of intelligence within a range encompassing approximately  $1\frac{1}{2}$  to three standard deviations below the mean; gives evidence of limitations to a very low level of ability to think abstractly; gives evidence of less ability to function socially without direction than that displayed by his intellectually average peers.

"Mentally retarded (trainable)" means that a child shall be considered mentally retarded (trainable) when he: performs on a standardized clinical test of intelligence beyond three standard deviations below the mean and is unable to use symbols in the solution of problems of even low complexity; is unable to function well socially without direct and close supervision; is unable to learn a systematic decoding process to pronounce new words in his native tongue. The child shall be capable of remembering a sequence of words, sounds, and rhythms, be able to respond

to simple stimulus-response learning experiences, is aware of obvious hazards, and is able to learn to feed himself when presented with food, and gives advance notice of basic body needs.

#### Multiply Handicapped

A child shall be considered to be multiply handicapped, who, after proper identification and classification according to these rules and regulations, is found to qualify in any two or more categories of the handicap described. Primary and secondary handicaps shall be listed for classification purposes. Classification of the multiply handicapped and determination of priorities to be set in special education services shall be made by the basic child study team with the consideration of the reports of appropriate medical specialists.

#### Neurologically Impaired

A child shall be classified as being neurologically impaired as a result of an examination which shows evidence of specific and definable central nervous system disorder. The procedure to determine such impairment shall be administered by a person qualified in the field of neurology. This disability shall be determined by the basic child study team to

be related to impairment of the educational functions of the pupil.

#### Orthopedically Handicapped

A child shall be classified as orthopedically handicapped who, because of malformation, malfunction or loss of bones, muscle, or body tissue, needs a special educational program, special equipment or special facilities to permit normal learning processes to function.

The classification of the medical aspects of the orthopedic disability shall be made by the school physician or an orthopedic specialist approved by him. An orthopedic specialist shall be utilized for classification purposes whenever feasible. Determination of the need for a special educational program shall be the responsibility of the basic child study team.

#### Perceptually Impaired

A child shall be considered to be perceptually impaired who exhibits a learning disability in one or more of the basic processes involved in the development of spoken or written language but which are not primarily due to sensory disorders, motor handicaps, mental retardation, emotional disturbance, or environmental disadvantage. The disabilities are manifested

in the perceptual areas involved in listening, thinking, speaking, reading, writing, spelling, and the study of arithmetic. The determination of this classification shall rest with the basic child study team.

#### Socially Maladjusted

A child shall be considered to be socially maladjusted when his pattern of social interaction is characterized by conflicts which he cannot resolve adequately without the assistance of authority figures or when his behavior is such as to interfere seriously with the well-being or the property of those with whom he associates. The socially maladjusted child exhibits his maladjustment chiefly in his persistent inability to abide by the rules and regulations of social structure.

Classification of socially maladjusted children and recommended educational programs shall be made by the basic child study team, augmented by the evaluation of a psychiatrist trained or experienced in working with children.

#### Visually Handicapped

A child shall be classified as visually handicapped (partially sighted) whose visual acuity

with correction is 20/70 or poorer, or who, as a result of some other factors involved in visual functioning, cannot function effectively in a learning environment without a special educational program. A child shall be classified as visually handicapped (blind) whose visual acuity with correction is 20/200 or poorer in the "better" eye and requires a knowledge and skill in the use of Braille for educational purposes.

A person who is legally qualified to examine the child to determine disability of vision shall be employed by the local board of education to examine the child to determine the nature and cause of the deficiency of the visual acuity of the child. Whenever possible, a member of the Commission for the Blind would act as a consultant to the basic child study team in developing the educational program of a visually handicapped child.

### Summary

The study has traced the professional activities of fifty individuals, the contributing organizations and the landmark legislation which led to the establishment of mandated public school education for handicapped children in New Jersey.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN

#### Introduction

Progress as it is known in modern life has been made possible by research. In social, economic, educational, political and business aspects of life there continues to be increasing emphasis upon research as man's demands for additional data and techniques increase in his strivings for even faster progress.<sup>1</sup>

Man also uses research to solve his daily problems, satisfy his curiosity, gain factual information about the directions and rate of his progress, and compare his progress with that of other men and other societies.<sup>2</sup>

Satisfying these demands requires carefully planned inquiry and continuous effort by ". . . intelligent and highly trained people who spend their lives pushing back the boundaries of human ignorance."<sup>3</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup>Tyrus Hillway, Introduction to Research (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1964) p. 3.

<sup>2</sup>Francis J. Rummel, An Introduction to Research Procedures in Education (New York: Harper and Row, 1964) p. 2.

<sup>3</sup>Hillway, op. cit., p. 4.

There is no known point in human history at which research began, but the present principles and methods of research according to Hillway, have been available only within comparatively recent years.<sup>4</sup> Van Dalen agreed that centuries of effort have been needed for man to improve his capacity to obtain reliable knowledge.<sup>5</sup>

At his point in the development of research principles and methods, man no longer must be content with research of questionable quality. The reliability of scientific critical standards has increased greatly in recent years and has been regimented further by the addition of mechanical devices and laboratory techniques and equipment.

In realizing this present state of reliability, man has passed through many stages of knowledge and methodology. These stages have been labeled as Trial and Error, Authoritarian (which includes Tradition, Speculation and Argument), and Generalizations from

---

<sup>4</sup>Ibid.

<sup>5</sup>Deobold Van Dalen, Understanding Educational Research (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1973) p. 2.

Experience.<sup>6, 7, 8, 9</sup> The stages were not discrete and separate from each other, but have been interwoven and refined through the centuries and are now a part of the scientific methods common in the twentieth century. Scientific methods, in Van Dalen's words, involved "purposeful gathering of facts, and premises which are tested probabilities rather than assumed truths."<sup>10</sup> Hillway called scientific inquiry a method of searching for truth.<sup>11</sup>

Rummel defined scientific research as the "systematic and refined use of tools and procedures to obtain a more adequate solution to a problem than would be possible by less discriminating means."<sup>12</sup> The researcher starts with a problem, collects data which are critically analyzed, and reaches decisions

---

<sup>6</sup>Ibid.

<sup>7</sup>John W. Best, Research in Education (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1959) p. 7.

<sup>8</sup>Hillway, loc. cit.

<sup>9</sup>Rummel, op. cit., p. 6.

<sup>10</sup>Van Dalen, op. cit., p. 12.

<sup>11</sup>Hillway, op. cit., p. 5.

<sup>12</sup>Rummel, op. cit., p. 11

based on actual evidence. This procedure may involve tentative hypotheses and on occasion, experimentation. Research evolves from a genuine desire to know rather than from a wish to prove a point of view. As far as possible scientific research stresses a quantitative approach, seeking to know not only what but also how much. Measurement is, therefore, an important aspect of scientific research.

The employment and effects of scientific methods in recent years have made their greatest impact in the area of educational research. "Tradition has identified Science with the physical world, . . . not with human behavior."<sup>13</sup> But the gap between the physical sciences and the behavioral sciences continues to close with the application of scientific methods to research in the behavioral areas. Whenever tradition is faced with displacement or its tenets challenged by newcomers, some degree of controversy results. This was true when modern historians first attempted to imitate the research methods used by their scientific counterparts.

Tradition held that in the hierarchy of disciplines only those with dealt with observable

---

<sup>13</sup>Best, op. cit., p. 4.

quantitative results could be counted among the elite. The physical sciences, such as chemistry, biology and physics, use evidence based on reliable and direct observation. Experiments can be controlled and repeated before the facts are accepted or interpreted. History is not a science of direct observation. Historians can use only the traces left by past events as the basis for their interpretations. At best the record is ". . . fragmentary and incomplete."<sup>14</sup> Much of what has happened has not been recorded, or records have not survived. So the historian works with ". . . what happens to come to hand. It often comes to us by chance, not by choice."<sup>15</sup>

History even among historians has not ranked with the sciences:

Especially for a century or so historians have sought to adapt the methods of science to their special problems. Some, indeed, have made efforts to discover and formulate the laws governing human conduct, assuming that as natural phenomena men's acts are ruled by natural laws. Most, however, have decided that their tools are not suited to dealing with problems of that type and have accepted the more modest role of narrators and interpreters of men's doings, leaving to the newer

---

<sup>14</sup>Henry Steele Commager, The Nature and Study of History (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, 1965) p. 4.

<sup>15</sup>Ibid., p. 44.

sciences of sociology and psychology the investigation and formulation of the laws which govern them.<sup>16</sup>

### History

Definitions of history and explanations of what it is, and is not, are as numerous as the authors who write it. There is no agreement among even professional historians because the field is so complex it is impossible to obtain anything approaching a consensus.<sup>17</sup>

The confusion is heightened by the ease with which "writers unblessed with special training" can enter the field and add their contributions to the growing inventory.<sup>18</sup> This is possible because history is not an arcane discipline. History has no special language of its own. History has no consistent theoretical system or systematic methodology, and there are no uniform criteria for evaluating the historian's performance.

---

<sup>16</sup>Homer Carey Hockett, The Critical Method in Historical Research and Writing, (New York: The Macmillan Co. 1955) p. 7.

<sup>17</sup>Donald V. Gawronski, History Meaning and Method (Glenview, Illinois: Scott Foresman and Co. 1975) p. 1.

<sup>18</sup>John Higham, et al. History: The Princeton Studies (Englewood Cliffs, N.J., Prentice-Hall, 1965) p. 68.

History is whatever we know it to be , ". . . the interpretive study of the recorded facts of bygone individuals and societies. . ."19 History is a ". . . convenient blend of truth and fancy, of what we commonly distinguish as fact and interpretations."20 Johnson calls history a fable that all men have agreed upon.21 History is also a story but a story that is "reconstructed on the basis of certain evidence."22

To Commager, history is "both a story and a record" of what happened in the past.23 It is the past and also a memory of the past. Nevins offers ". . . any integrated narrative description or analysis of past events or facts written in a spirit of critical inquiry for the whole truth."24 Others refer to the ambiguity of the term, and differentiate between the actual

---

<sup>19</sup>Gawronski, op. cit., p. 3.

<sup>20</sup>Carl Becker, "Essays and Letters of Carl Becker," Detachment and the Writing of History, ed. Phillip Snyder (Ithaca, New York: Cornell University Press, 1958) p. 17.

<sup>21</sup>Allen Johnson, The Historian and Historical Evidence (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1930) p. 43.

<sup>22</sup>Lester D. Stephens, Probing the Past (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1974) p. 5.

<sup>23</sup>Commager, op. cit., p. 3.

<sup>24</sup>Allan Nevins, The Gateway to History (Garden City, New York: Doubleday, 1962) p. 39.

series of events that occurred, ". . . and the ideal series that we affirm and hold in memory."<sup>25</sup>

The selection of a definition depends in part on the historian's view of history as a scientific achievement or a literary endeavor. Since the end of the nineteenth century the advancement of scientific methods of research has created a controversy which centers on history as a science or as an art. Historians among themselves have failed to reach agreement. Those who attempt to classify history as a science have met cries of protest from within their ranks and from physical scientists who maintain that history cannot be a science since it does not deal with direct observation and experimentation, and because the events of history cannot be repeated and studied under controlled conditions.<sup>26</sup>

The scientific historians reply that their methods of inquiry are ". . . critical and objectives and that the results are recognized as organized knowledge by a consensus of trained investigators."<sup>27</sup>

---

<sup>25</sup>Robin E. Winks, ed. The Historian as Detective (New York: Harper and Row, 1968) p. 6.

<sup>26</sup>Hockett, loc. cit.

<sup>27</sup>Carter V. Good, Introduction to Educational Research (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc. 1959) p. 116.

Therefore, historians contend their discipline is primarily a science.

The literary-minded historians concur with the need for accuracy, but insist that only an effective literary style will arouse the interest of the layman and general reader, and history must be read if it is to be of any value. The literary historian is confident that historiography involves the art of expression and the philosophy of the author, so he strives to present his interpretation of facts in an imaginative and entertaining way.<sup>28</sup> He expects the philosophy which controls his work to also dramatize his facts.

The literary historian is primarily interested in recreating the past. He is a painter, not a photographer. He excites the imagination of the beholder to see the past through his eyes. The literary historian is a dramatist who employs his talent to conjure up what was once real and is now no more. The purposes of the scientific historian are more prosaic and realistic. He wants to explain the past, not recreate it. It is reason he wants to excite, not imagination. The gap between literary and scientific is not stylistic, but is a difference in the philosophy of history.<sup>29</sup>

---

<sup>28</sup>Ralph W. Jones, Methods and Techniques of Educational Research (Danville, Illinois: Interstate Printers and Publishers, 1974) p. 170.

<sup>29</sup>Commager, op. cit., p. 8.

It seems imperative for any writer of history to recognize the controversy and to establish for himself, if not for his reader, his own philosophy of history. For this writer, this necessitates a digression into the background of the dispute, and sampling of the opinions of professional historians of the day.

Man has always sought a bond with his past. He avoids the futility and insignificance of being an isolated individual by devising links with his social environment. History is such a link. It unites "each of us as an individual with a whole greater than ourselves."<sup>30</sup> Through the ages before written records, man comforted and strengthened himself by recounting tales of his real and imaginary revered predecessors. He filled the gaps in his knowledge by inventing heroic ancestors and creating myths about their exploits. The ". . . reality of these myths is accidental," and the ". . . genius of the myth maker not fettered by real events."<sup>31</sup> With the advent of written records the myths became somewhat less fanciful as their inconsistencies were challenged, but it was not until the end of the

---

<sup>30</sup> Archibald Robertson, How to Read History (New York: Frederick Ungar Publishing Co. 1963) p. 1.

<sup>31</sup> Ibid., p. 5.

nineteenth century that the writing of history was regarded as "something of a science in that facts were to be reasonably proven, not assumed."<sup>32</sup>

In 1928, Crawford stated that the merit of any historical writing should be judged by its "freedom from unsupported statements."<sup>33</sup> Forty years later: ". . . When one takes up the study of some difficult historical question. . . you must not say anything, however true, for which you cannot produce evidence."<sup>34</sup> Bury refused to consider history as an art since, in his opinion, there was little accuracy in historical writing "until the era of science has begun."<sup>35</sup>

An opposing view is offered by Page Smith with the statement:

Great history, the history that has commanded men's minds and hearts has always been narrative history. The detailed, analytical history that

---

<sup>32</sup>Gawronski, op. cit., p. 66.

<sup>33</sup>Claude C. Crawford, The Technique of Research in Education (Los Angeles: University of Southern California, 1928) p. 58.

<sup>34</sup>Robin G. Collingwood, "The Pleasures of Doubt." The Historian as Detective, ed. Robin W. Winks (New York: Harper and Row, 1968) p. 518.

<sup>35</sup>Lester D. Stephens, Probing the Past (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1974) p. 12, citing J. B. Bury, The Science of History, p. 7.

is the standard product of our academies has little to say to the ordinary man.<sup>36</sup>

This view is shared by G. J. Renier in whose opinion historians and scientists share nothing but . . . "a spirit of intellectual honesty. The methods of science are not those of history."<sup>37</sup> Few writers take as emphatic a stand as Page and Renier. Even when their own work leans heavily in one direction or the other, most historians present both the scientific and literary characteristics of history as a discipline.

In excerpts from his essay Scientist and Historian, Nevins claims:

The great defect of science from the standpoint of the historian and the writer generally, is its aridity in all matters of the spirit and the emotions. The great defect of history is that it tends to be too shallowly humanistic. In depicting the immense panorama of human events, in unceasing play of dramatic incident, it falls short of the penetration and exactness demanded by the scientist. The more literary it is, the less scientific it becomes; and ideally it should be a mixture of scientific elements.<sup>38</sup>

Malin writes that, "As one of the objectives of science is the formulation of laws by which events

---

<sup>36</sup>Page Smith, The Historian and History (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1964) p. 142.

<sup>37</sup>G. J. Renier, History - Its Purpose and Method (Boston: The Beacon Press, 1950) p. 154.

<sup>38</sup>Allan Nevins, "Scientist and Historian" Allan Nevins on History, ed. Ray Allen Billington (New York: Charles Scribner, 1975) p. 139.

may be predicted, history is not a science." He quickly modifies that with his subsequent statement, "Nevertheless, history is intellectual enterprise, singularly exacting. . . ."39

In discussing Carl Becker's literary style, Snyder emphatically states, "For good history as he (Becker) understood it includes both mastery of fact and imaginative interpretation; it is both a science and an art."40

The degree to which the scientific method is applied to data and conclusion determines the extent to which historiography can be regarded as scientific. Clarity of expression, logical organization, and effective style contribute to the development of history as an art.41

Stephens claims . . . "history is both art and science," and describes good history to be as rich and as colorful as any literary work; at the same time portraying scientific history as "drab, prosaic and devoid of aesthetic value."42

---

<sup>39</sup>James C. Malin, On the Nature of History (Lawrence, Kansas: Edwards Brothers, Inc. 1954) p. 67.

<sup>40</sup>Snyder op. cit., p. xi.

<sup>41</sup>Jones, op. cit., p. 164.

<sup>42</sup>Stephens, op. cit., p. 13

Nevins, in literary artfulness, summarizes what seems to be the present day trend toward scientifically acceptable historical research.

It is altogether clear that history and science, both pursued with some real imagination and both studied with an attempt at profundity, disclose many common meeting points. The further they are extended, the more they will owe each other. The historian has a special lesson to learn from the scientist in the latter's dedication to impartial and unprejudiced methods of study. When prejudice and ascertained fact come into conflict, when theory and data clash, the scientist never flinches. The historian must learn to imitate him.<sup>43</sup>

### Historical Research

The application of the scientific method of inquiry to historical problems is known as historical research.<sup>44</sup> The subject matter includes all of man's activities and thoughts from the beginning of ". . . the historic period,"<sup>45</sup> but the focus of the historical research may be directed towards an individual, a group, an idea, a movement or an institution.<sup>46</sup> When some event, development or experience of the past is

---

<sup>43</sup>Nevins (Billington) op. cit., pp. 149-150.

<sup>44</sup>Best, op. cit., p. 86.

<sup>45</sup>Hockett, op. cit., p. 4.

<sup>46</sup>Best, op. cit., p. 4.

questioned, historical inquiry begins.<sup>47</sup>

Modern day historians collect, examine, select, verify and classify facts according to specific standards of scientific research. They attempt to interpret and present these facts in such a way that the past is accurately recreated.<sup>48</sup>

There is general agreement among historiographers regarding the uses and values of historical inquiry. New problems can be met " . . . soberly and intelligently instead of emotionally and superficially."<sup>49</sup> A knowledge of history may make it possible to avoid repeating a practice which was unsuccessful because of an inherent weakness in the practice, and may aid in detecting aspects or practices which caused the failure of a basically sound plan.<sup>50</sup> Historical knowledge allows man to see the present in relation to its sources, and to examine recurring ideas or themes.<sup>51</sup> Commager believes man can meet the challenge of understanding, and even commanding the present and the future

---

<sup>47</sup>Van Dalen, op. cit., p. 161.

<sup>48</sup>Ibid., p. 160.

<sup>49</sup>Hockett, loc. cit.

<sup>50</sup>Jones, op. cit., p. 156.

<sup>51</sup>Ibid., p. 163.

if he understands the past.<sup>52</sup> Good states that history provides a sense of continuity and consciousness of unity in efforts and achievement and allows communities to plan more intelligently for the future.<sup>53</sup> Crawford and Gawronski agree that the purpose of history is to shed light upon and understand the past and present, while providing worthwhile guidelines for the future.<sup>54,55</sup>

Historical sources are broadly classified as documents, or remains or relics. Documents are reports of events deliberately recorded as a means of transmitting information. They describe the event as the observer perceived it. Relics or remains are physical objects produced for use, not as a means of relating information. Remains or relics are ". . . actual objects as handed down from the past."<sup>56</sup> Some sources may at different times, be both a document or a relic or remain, depending on the purpose for which it is studied. Examples and categories of historical

---

<sup>52</sup>Commager, op. cit., p. 48.

<sup>53</sup>Good, op. cit., p. 119.

<sup>54</sup>Crawford, op. cit., p. 49.

<sup>55</sup>Gawronski, op. cit., p. 6.

<sup>56</sup>Good, op. cit., p. 223.

sources are suggested by Carter V. Good in Introduction to Educational Research.<sup>57</sup>

1. Physical remains: historic sites, roads, aqueducts, pyramids, fortifications, buildings ruined or whole, furniture, human remains, clothing, food, utensils, pottery, implements, weapons machinery, industrial processes, fine art and museum pieces of many kinds.
2. Orally transmitted material (sometimes in writing), such as folklore, legends, ballads, tales, anecdotes, sagas, traditions, customs, manners, burials, ceremonials, social institutions and language.
3. More elementary and durable kinds of representatives or artistic materials, not written in the ordinary sense, such as inscriptions baked upon clay, chiselled stones, monuments, stamped coins, woven tapestries, vases, scenic or portrait sculptures, historical paintings and portraits.
4. Handwritten materials (sometimes in print), including papyri, bricks bearing cuneiform writing, vellum or parchment manuscripts, and such more recent documents as chronicles, annals, biographies, memoirs, diaries and genealogies.
5. Printed books, papers and literature.
6. Motion picture film, microfilm, and recordings, including radio television.
7. Personal observation (by the writer or by people whom he interviews).

Other historians have used additional or different classifications such as material and immaterial sources, written matter, aural and visual materials and oral sources but regardless of the label there is

---

<sup>57</sup>Ibid., p. 122.

agreement that the tools of historical research are the traces that are left behind when the event is past and gone.<sup>58, 59</sup> These traces may be left unintentionally by men in the course of their daily activities, or they may be traces intentionally left by men to inform posterity of their deeds.

Historical sources may also be classified as primary, secondary, or tertiary according to the number of times removed from the eye witness to the actual event. These categories are not exclusive and the purpose to which the source is put by the historian may allow a source usually regarded as secondary to become a primary source.<sup>60, 61, 62, 63</sup> A history textbook, for example, is at least one step removed from the actual event or observer, and is typically a secondary source. The same textbook becomes a primary source when the research involves examples of bias or language in history textbooks.

---

<sup>58</sup>Renier, op. cit., p. 97.

<sup>59</sup>Stephens, op. cit., p. 35.

<sup>60</sup>Jones, op. cit., p. 166.

<sup>61</sup>Good, op. cit., p. 127.

<sup>62</sup>Rummel, op. cit., p. 164.

<sup>63</sup>Renier, op. cit., p. 165.

The quality of the historian's work depends upon the number and completeness of the sources he consults, and on the authenticity of the sources. "History is no better than the evidence on which it is based. . ." so it is essential that the historian verify the validity and reliability of all his sources.<sup>64</sup>

Documents and remains are the broad classifications of sources in educational history. Documents are reports of events, or information recorded on any material commonly used at the time of the writing. The document has been deliberately prepared as a means of transmitting information to a private or selected audience. Official business papers, minutes of a meeting, newspaper accounts, college catalogs or printed curricula, government publications, personal letters, published speeches, census reports, are examples of documentary sources.<sup>65, 66</sup> Documentary sources reveal to the historian the events of the past as the eyewitness saw them or remembered them.

Remains or relics are physical objects which were in actual use at one time, and were not intended

---

<sup>64</sup>Stephens, op. cit., p. 37.

<sup>65</sup>Ibid., p. 36.

<sup>66</sup>Good, op. cit., p. 123.

as a means of transmitting information. They are often a more reliable source of information about the past than the written word. To illustrate this point Good wrote about the schoolmaster's annual report (the documentary source) which tells about the ". . . humane and kindly methods of discipline. . ." he employs. "Switches, an iron bound ruler, and a whipping post (remains) found in the school reveal the inaccuracy of the documentary source."<sup>67</sup>

The same item may be classified as a document or a relic depending on the historian's purpose. If a historian looks at a letter written by a historical figure as an example of spelling or penmanship, the letter is classified as a relic, or remain. The same letter is a documentary source if the historian is primarily interested in the message or content of the letter.<sup>68</sup>

Two types of historical criticism must be applied to all historical data. External criticism determines the authenticity or genuineness of the data or document. External criticism is concerned with: Who wrote it? When, where, why and how was it written?

---

<sup>67</sup>Ibid., p. 124.

<sup>68</sup>Ibid., p. 125.

Is it an original document or a copy or revision?  
What is the age and type of the paper on which it  
written?<sup>69</sup> Is it genuine or a counterfeit? External  
criticism is concerned with the form and appearance  
of the document. Is it what it appears to be?<sup>70</sup>

Internal criticism is concerned with the  
content or message, with the credibility, meaning and  
trustworthiness of the information within the document.  
Verifying the meaning of words within the document is  
essential since the meaning or connotation may have  
changed since the document was written. What was the  
real meaning at the time of the writing? What was the  
real meaning in comparison to the literal meaning?<sup>71, 72</sup>

There may be considerable overlapping between  
the external and internal criticisms since there is  
no sharp line separating the validity and reliability of  
a historical source. There can be no reliability if  
there is no validity.

The ideal history would be completely objective  
and unbiased, but the historian is human and fallible.

---

<sup>69</sup>Jones, op. cit., p. 167.

<sup>70</sup>Rummel, op. cit., p. 171.

<sup>71</sup>Good, op. cit., p. 138.

<sup>72</sup>Rummel, op. cit., p. 172.

He is a product of his own time and culture and cannot write a scientific, mechanical history.<sup>73</sup> His own race, faith, class and country have shaped his values and interests. The historian can only view the past ". . . through lenses colored by the ideals and attitudes of his time."<sup>74</sup>

There is bias even in the choice of a subject since the historian will investigate areas that are of interest to him. There is bias in the selection and organization of data since it is impossible to collect facts without some theory of relationship among them.<sup>75</sup> Even the most ". . . bloodless scholar. . ." untroubled by bias and ". . . human feeling . . ." must make decisions in the selection and presentation of evidence, and must make deductions on the basis of that evidence. All this will be affected by his personality and predilections.<sup>76</sup>

Historiography is affected by an "astigmatic view" since the historian knows how history is going

---

<sup>73</sup>Commager, op. cit., p. 53.

<sup>74</sup>Smith, op. cit., p. 119.

<sup>75</sup>Commager, op. cit., p. 5.

<sup>76</sup>G. Kitson Clark, The Critical Historian (New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1967) p. 33.

to come out and has a tendency to ignore evidence which doesn't lead to the predetermined conclusion. The historian's personal standards and beliefs dictate his interpretation of events and may cause him to ". . . subconsciously 'adjust' the past . . ." to meet his own convictions.<sup>77</sup>

Historians cannot observe the events of the past or see all that was there. They must depend on the accounts of other fallible humans to select and present the facts. Every statement about the past has had an author who ". . . observed it, recorded it, repeated it and every author is subject to the limitations and defects of humanity."<sup>78</sup> History is always seen through the eyes of others, and the history they show will also be tinted by the personality of the informant whose ". . . whole approach to history is different from our own. . ."<sup>79</sup>

History itself produces distortions and imbalance. Some groups did not, or could not keep records. Literate and articulate societies offer their recorded versions of events while the illiterate groups

---

<sup>77</sup>Commager, op. cit., p. 44.

<sup>78</sup>Clark, op. cit., p. 35.

<sup>79</sup>Clark, op. cit., p. 34.

may go unrecognized. Victors and conquerors confiscate or rewrite the records of the conquered and present their own case in a favorable light. Even nature has distorted history when natural disasters have destroyed written records, and possibly even traces of entire civilizations.

Historians must be aware of these influences and must make ". . . superhuman efforts . . . to keep their work objective and scientific, but all historians are biased, either consciously or unconsciously and all of recorded history is slanted toward that bias.<sup>80, 81</sup>

### Design

The concept of providing appropriate educational opportunities for all handicapped children is relatively new. Turning the concept into a reality was accomplished less than 25 years ago in New Jersey with the passage of state legislation which mandated and regulated the education of all children. Many of the individuals who were instrumental in reshaping public school education in New Jersey continued their involvement with the handicapped and are now functioning at county, state and

---

<sup>80</sup>Gawronski, op. cit., p. 7.

<sup>81</sup>Commager, loc.cit.

national levels. Others, recently retired, are still following developments and maintaining contacts in the field.

These two groups of individuals were invited to participate in this study by means of interviews. By permitting the interviews to be taped these individuals created oral history.

#### Development of Questionnaire

The investigator was interested in the training and professional goals of these individuals whose efforts were directed toward improving educational facilities for the handicapped in the years preceding general awareness of the problem. From which disciplines had they come? Why were they so aware of the needs of the handicapped? What were their specific contributions toward the present status of Special Education? What was the source of their inspiration or dedication? Who were their professional associates through the years? Time, courtesy, and the need for uniformity prohibited the asking of each of these questions singly, and necessitated including one question that would elicit much of this information through a chronological review of the interviewee's professional training experiences and associations. How did you

originally become interested in Special Education?

seemed to summarize many of the topics, and was chosen as the first question of each interview. The question was chosen for several reasons: the interviewee would be set at ease immediately with a topic with which he is familiar, the interviewee could set the tone and pace of the interview with his first response; and his reply would open the door for additional inquiries as the interview progressed.

The second question requested the names of individuals who, in the opinion of the interviewee have made significant contributions to Special Education. This inquiry was included to add names and background information for future interviews. A second purpose was to verify the specific contributions and referrals named by other interviewees.

Since individuals who affect change in political and social structures often require the aid and support of similarly interested people, question number three asked for names of groups or organizations, which in the opinion of the respondent, had been influential in changing the status of Special Education in New Jersey in some way. The intent of the question was to identify and describe the goals of the many parent groups who are rumored to have attempted to pressure

local educators and politicians into providing educational facilities for handicapped children before the 1954 legislation made such facilities mandatory. The question was designed to locate the founders or leaders of these organizations who, in turn, would be interviewed and used as further sources of information.

The question, In your opinion, what has been the most notable landmark in the development of Special Education in New Jersey? was intended to permit verification and expansion of the opinions offered in previous responses, and to allow for a range of replies that included names, concepts, anecdotes, events, or any point of interest of which the interviewer had been unaware, or had overlooked. A second purpose of the question provided an opportunity for the interviewee to direct the conversation toward areas of concern and interest to him.

Early in the investigation determining the exact geographical location of the first special public school class in New Jersey seemed to be an important and interesting goal. The fifth question asks for the location of the first special class known to the respondent. A second part of the question resulted from stories told by old time teachers about classes for the handicapped

scattered about in cellars, hallways, converted coal bins, rented church basements and the like. In addition to the geographical location the question requested specific placement of the special class in the school building or the type of building used to house the earliest special classes.

Predictions of future conditions is one of the possibilities and attractions of historical research so the sixth question invited opinions of present and future trends in the education of the learning disabled, and in the future status of the Child Study Team. The two part question was designed to give the interviewer an opportunity to estimate the age and rate of growth of the more widespread trends and practices in education today, and as a basis for predicting future trends and innovations. The present positions of many of those selected for interviews make them privy to information regarding statewide trends and innovations, proposed changes and legislation not yet available to the general population. The sixth question, which asked for opinions of any trends or innovations known to the interviewee, was included as a vehicle by which this privileged information could be shared with the investigator.

The interview guide of six questions used in every interview was presented in Chapter I. The

questions are a summary and composite of the many possible questions which would have been interesting and appropriate in each or any of the interviews. Limitations of the interviewees' time and interest, plus consideration of their privacy, and the need for all possible uniformity and objectivity were factors in the choice of the questions, and in the decision to limit the number of questions.

#### Time Schedule

Fifty interviews were conducted over a period of 28 months beginning in November, 1975. In each case meetings were scheduled at the convenience of the interviewee, anywhere from twenty-four hours to six months after the initial contact. In-person interviews were conducted in many locations across the state of New Jersey, in parts of Pennsylvania, Connecticut, and in Washington, D. C. All requests for appointments and meetings were made with telephone calls. In some cases locating a prospective subject required as many as eight telephone calls to his previous associates, friends, and information operators, over a period of several months. Once located, the interview might be arranged for several months hence. In four instances the scheduled meeting was postponed due to emergencies on the part of the interviewee, and a second trip was required to complete

the interview. These emergencies covered sudden illness, previously unscheduled business meetings, death in the family and a spur of the moment golf game.

During the initial telephone contact the interviewer requested approximately 30 minutes for the interview. The time allotted by the interviewees varied from 20 minutes to three hours, with an average interview time of one hour. In all cases the interviewee set the pace of the interview directly or indirectly, according to his interest and other responsibilities.

Forty-two personal interviews were conducted in a variety of settings including crowded restaurants, busy offices, libraries, on the shore of a quiet lake, in private homes, in vacant classrooms and one in an antique shop during business hours. The meeting place was determined by the interviewee. When distance or time prevented an in-person interview, telephone interviews were arranged. An initial call explained the reason for the request and a convenient time for the telephone interview was arranged. These eight interviews were taped with the respondent's permission. Telephone interviews were conducted with individuals in Utah, Illinois, Florida, Tennessee, and several places in northern New Jersey. Interviews by telephone averaged

approximately 25 minutes in length since there were fewer digressions and no interruptions.

### Selection of Interviewees

The first and second informant were chosen on the basis of the writer's knowledge and experience in the field. The remaining subjects were selected for interviews after referrals by other interviewees, or after being named as an important contributor to the field of Special Education. (See Appendix B) In some cases names of parents of handicapped children were offered. Directories published by organizations such as the New Jersey Psychological Association and Association of Learning Consultants were used. County Superintendents' Offices, the New Jersey State Department of Education, County Teachers' Credit Unions and Pension Plans were contacted. Former associates and known friends of the individual were persuaded to search through correspondence and records to locate the last known addresses or telephone numbers. These methods were successful in all but three cases.

Another three individuals who were mentioned as having made local contributions to Special Education refused to be interviewed. Two of the three had been involved only for the last few years of their career,

after all present legislation had been passed, and the third had never been involved in public school education. Their refusals were accepted and no further attempts were made to contact them.

#### Procedures for Collection of Data from Interviews

All interviews were open-ended and informal. The only structure was in the wording and sequence of the six questions. Subjects were encouraged to digress, ramble, and reminisce in their responses. The next question in the series was not read to them until they indicated they were ready to change the subject or continue with the interview.

The reasoning for this choice of format has to do with the nature of the information sought. Subjects were being asked to remember names, details, relationships and events that occurred as many as 50 years before. Some of the informants had retired from the field in the early 1960's. Those who are still employed have assumed new roles and responsibilities over the years. Much valuable information might have been lost for all time if responses had been confined to a more formal structured format. Conversations, digressions, reminiscences in an unthreatening atmosphere, are accepted ways of soliciting and sharing information, and

have been known to encourage the memory so that previous responses are expanded and details forgotten in response to a specific question are recalled minutes later as part of a related anecdote.

Within days of the interview the tape was played in its entirety and key phrases of the responses written on paper. The tape was played a second time as a check, and to enable the investigator to number the responses to correspond with the number of the question, and to transcribe all related miscellaneous information volunteered by the interviewee. These pages of responses were filed alphabetically by subject's name. The tapes were labeled to correspond with these pages, and the interviewee's name was mentioned several times during the interview itself as a further means of identifying the tape.

Index cards were then prepared for each tape. Preparations consisted of printing the name of the interviewee and other identifying information on each of nine cards. A separate card was used for each of the two parts of questions number two and six and numbered to correspond to the question. The ninth card was added for any volunteered miscellaneous information. Responses were transferred to the appropriate card and the cards filed by question number,

and within that grouping by informant's last name. This allowed for a cross-filing system. The original transcriptions from tape to paper were filed by name, and all responses plus any miscellaneous information offered by each interviewee were recorded under his name. The cards, filed by question number, allowed for an immediate comparison of responses to a given question.

### Interviewing

An interview is a conversation between two people, a conversation that is serious and purposeful.<sup>82</sup> The basic skills and insights needed for ordinary conversation are similar in many ways to those skills and insights needed in interviewing. The main difference is the central purpose of interviewing which is not found in other forms of conversation. The exchange of information is the central purpose of the interview, but other functions of conversations are intertwined in interviewing and may be both an asset and a detriment to the success of the interview.<sup>83</sup>

---

<sup>82</sup>Alfred Benjamin, The Helping Interview (Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Co., 1969) p. ix.

<sup>83</sup>Raymond L. Gordon, Interviewing Strategy, Techniques and Tactics. (Homewood, Illinois: The Dorsey Press, 1969) p. 35.

The interview as a tool of research is often employed in historical studies since it is impossible to observe reactions and behavior during events which happened in the past. The interview is useful in reconstructing the event through the memory of the respondent.<sup>84</sup> Data acquired through the interview method is primarily subjective, but many types of information can be secured only through face to face contacts. Examples of this data include personal history, family life, opinions and attitudes. Related objective data is frequently a matter of public record and can be obtained in ways that are more reliable than the interview method. The feelings, goals and attitudes of the persons involved can best be learned in a personal interview.<sup>85</sup>

The interview is not a primary tool of research unless the interviewee is the principal object of the study, but in addition to its function in gathering subjective information, the interview serves as a means of ". . . finding, securing access to and verifying dependable sources of objective data."<sup>86</sup>

---

<sup>84</sup>Good, op. cit., p. 208.

<sup>85</sup>Walter Van Dyke Bingham, et al., How to Interview (New York: Harper and Row, 1959) p. 8.

<sup>86</sup>Ibid., p. 50.

Interviews have two other functions: giving information (informing); and attempting to influence behavior in some way. These functions are primarily confined to counseling or therapeutic situations and as such are not a part of this study.

The personal interview has several advantages over the questionnaire as a research tool. The advantages as listed by Gordon <sup>87</sup> include ". . . more opportunity to motivate the respondent to supply accurate and complete information; more opportunity to guide the respondent in the interpretation of the question; a greater flexibility in questioning the respondent; greater control over the sequence of the questions in instances where subsequent questions might furnish clues that would change or distort the respondent's initial response.

The outcome of any interview is determined by the way in which the participants interact and relate to each other. The techniques and skills of the interviewer, and the motivation and cooperation of the respondent can be evaluated only in terms of the interaction and relationship between the two individuals. Relationships between people are complex and occur at

---

<sup>87</sup>Gordon, op. cit., p. 52.

several levels from the conscious to the unconscious.<sup>88</sup> At all levels of consciousness the reactions of the participants to each other can have a decided effect on the success of the interview. Even the most skillful and experienced interviewer cannot be successful with every respondent because of the variables and complexities inherent in each relationship. Interviewing techniques which have been successful for some famous interviewers are reported in a recent issue of TV Guide. Mike Wallace said "The trick is to conduct it (the interview) in such a way the person forgets it's an interview and has a conversation." Bill Moyers says "My purpose is information and revelation, not confrontation. I get more by establishing a personal friendship." These successful interviewers stress research, preparation and listening as the three factors which make a successful interview. Barbara Walters advises putting the interviewee at ease. Response is aided by constant eye contact, appearing relaxed and ". . . sometimes even touching the interviewee."<sup>89</sup> In the words of Garrett "Interviewing involves a closer and subtler relation between human beings than may at first be

---

<sup>88</sup>Bingham, op. cit., p. 9.

<sup>89</sup>Penelope McMillan, "Some of TV's best interviewers reveal the tricks of the trade," TV Guide, August 13-19, 1977, pp. 6-10.

recognized, and skill in conducting this relationship can be increased through knowledge of the fundamental factors involved."<sup>90</sup>

### Bias

Everyone has some prejudices and preconceptions, but a self-study which identifies areas of conflict and defenses which might interfere with successful interviews must be a part of the training process for the interviewer. Knowing his own personality will aid the interviewer by reducing, if not eliminating, the prejudices and areas of tension which might otherwise bias the data which is collected through the interview.<sup>91, 92</sup> The interviewee may also be a source of biased data. Memories fade as time passes and the most conscientious respondent is subject to dimmed images of past events. The researcher has a duty to verify all objective data provided by an interviewee. Human beings are not always conscious of the motives which prompt their actions and it behooves the interviewer to

---

<sup>90</sup>Annette Garrett, Interviewing: Its Principles and Methods. (New York: Family Service Association of America, 1972) p. 4.

<sup>91</sup>Crawford, op. cit., p. 169.

<sup>92</sup>Bingham, op. cit., p. 67.

recognize the possibility of a strong desire to please, or vanity on the part of the respondent skewing the testimony of the eye witness to a historical event.<sup>93</sup> Even the most truthful and alert observer is subject to the limitations of his own perceptions and perception is a physiological-psychological function influenced by a great many factors.<sup>94</sup> Intelligence, fatigue, hunger and general health are only a few of the physiological factors which affect perception. Psychological differences include sensitivity, motivation, attention, attitude, set and mood.<sup>95</sup> These and other factors influenced the witness at the time of the actual event just as they affect his recall and reporting of the event. According to George:

The value of all human testimony. . . depends on three independent considerations: 1. What was the witness's means of knowing the truth as to the matter in question? 2. What is his capacity for observing fully and accurately, or judging correctly? 3. How far is he to be trusted to tell the truth without bias?<sup>96</sup>

---

<sup>93</sup>Edward Hallett Carr, What is History? (London: McMillan and Company Ltd. 1961) p. 42.

<sup>94</sup>Stephens, op. cit., p. 39.

<sup>95</sup>Elise Blankenship, "A First Primer on Visual Perception," Journal of Learning Disabilities, Vol. 4, No. 10, December, 1971, p. 40.

<sup>96</sup>H. B. George, Historical Evidence. (London: McMillan and Company Ltd. 1961) p. 42.

Stephens adds other considerations: What was the witness's proximity to the event he is reporting? Did the observer possess any special powers of observation? Does the interviewee understand a person or a group belonging to a social class other than his own?<sup>97</sup>

The interview as one of the tools of research has advantages and limitations. The interviewer has the responsibility of reaping the benefits of the interview method while lessening the effects of the limitations. Interviewing is an art, a skill, a technique that can be developed and eventually perfected through continued practice.<sup>98</sup>

The interviews conducted for this study were subject to the pressures and possible biases of all such purposeful conversations. Precautions were taken to minimize any unrecognized bias by using the identical questions in sequence for each interview; by using a tape recorder so that the exact words of the respondents could be repeated in the interpretation and writing of the data; and by verifying all objective data acquired in the interviews which was to be included in the study.

---

<sup>97</sup>Stephens, op. cit., p. 38.

<sup>98</sup>Garret, op. cit., p. 5.

Throughout Chapters IV and V the responses of the interviewees are presented to give the reader the opportunity of visualizing the story of Special Education as it was told by the individuals who were a part of its infancy and growth.

A conscientious effort was made by the writer to report those excerpts which best represent the interviewee's opinions and attitudes at the time of the interview. In the writer's opinion some of the opinions expressed might prove embarrassing or detrimental to the speaker. Rather than delete statements that might at some future time provoke resentment or interfere with the interviewee's performance of his duties the exact words were repeated, but the speaker's name eliminated to protect privacy.

## CHAPTER III

### THE DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION FOR THE HANDICAPPED

#### Introduction

The sequence of events described in Chapter Three begins with the interest in mental retardation and its relationship to education in the public schools. The emphasis shifts to the effects of emotional disturbance on learning, and finally the separation of mental retardation and emotional disturbance from neurological involvement, which allowed for the evolvement of the term learning disabilities.

The first step in the development of Special Education may have been taken in the late eighteenth century in Paris, France, when Dr. Phillipe Pinel was appointed physician to the Salpetriere, an institution for the segment of the population judged to be mentally ill. His first order as physician was the removal of the chains which held his patients to the walls of the building.<sup>1</sup>

Through the centuries those afflicted with mental disturbances or obvious mental limitations have been

---

<sup>1</sup>Frank S. Freeman, Theory and Practice of Psychological Testing (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1962, p. 1.

treated with varying degrees of contempt and cruelty, with few attempts made to determine causes, to cure or to care for those unable to fend for themselves. Often mentally and emotionally disabled adults were regarded as wicked or dangerous people and were contained in prisons. Children whose mental faculties did not measure up to their society's standard of normalcy were kept hidden even from close neighbors and friends.

The first recorded effort to differentiate between the mentally deficient and mentally ill was made by Jean Esquirol in France (1772-1884). Later, Edquard Sequin (1812-1880) while working with Esquirol recognized levels of mental deficiency. Esquirol experimented with the relationship between language and mental ability, and was believed to be the first psychologist to recognize the development and use of language as a valid psychological criteria for differentiating levels of mental deficiency.<sup>2</sup> These results laid the foundation for subsequent research and demonstrated an interest in understanding human behavior and an awareness of individual differences.

#### The Testing Movement

In 1889 in the United States a crude method was

---

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 4.

devised to eliminate the feeble-minded from gaining admission to a school for the deaf. The "test" consisted of showing the child an attractive picture book while the examiner observed the child's response. If the child maintained an interest in the pictures he was assumed to have the intelligence for further training. If, in the opinion of the observer, the child was apathetic he was assumed to be feeble-minded.<sup>3</sup> The method was not infallible, but it did represent another attempt to differentiate causes for observed behaviors, and another step toward accommodating the needs of the handicapped.

The awareness of intellectual limitations and individual differences of children has been in evidence for many centuries, but there was no beginning to what is now known as Special Education until scientific attempts were made to objectively identify and measure individual differences in traits such as intellect, aptitude, talent and emotion.<sup>4</sup> The earliest attempts in the nineteenth century were concerned primarily with the gross differences between mental illness and

---

<sup>3</sup>Marshall S. Hiskey, Hiskey-Nebraska Test of Learning Aptitude Manual (Lincoln, Nebraska: Union College Press, 1966) p. 1.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 2.

intellectual retardation, but many refinements in instruments, techniques, and much of the sophistication of present day diagnosis came out of the massive testing movement of the early 1900's, and according to Anastasia, the work of Esquirol and Sequin to find levels of deficiency was ". . . the single strongest force leading to the testing movement of the 1900's."<sup>5</sup>

Sir Francis Galton, an English biologist, is credited with ". . . launching the testing movement in 1884."<sup>6</sup> Because of his interest in heredity, Galton devised simple tests and statistical methods to be used in identifying the analyzing characteristics among related and unrelated individuals. Tests of sensory discrimination were used by Galton as a means of estimating intellectual ability.

In 1904, Binet developed the first test of intelligence which used verbal content as a means of measuring judgment, comprehension and reasoning which Binet felt were more closely related to intelligence than sensory perception. In 1916, L. M. Terman's revision of the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test resulted in the first test to use ". . . intelligence

---

<sup>5</sup>Anne Anastasi, Psychological Testing (New York: McMillan Publishing Co. 1976) p. 4.

<sup>6</sup>Ibid., p. 8.

quotient (I.Q.) or ratio between mental age and chronological age.<sup>7</sup> The adoption of a standard scale of intelligence and behavioral criteria allowed Binet to differentiate three levels of mental deficiency: moron, imbecile and idiot.

Intelligence testing and the resultant ranking of individuals by numerical description of intellectual ability gained momentum during World War I with the aid of the American Psychological Association. A committee sponsored by this organization developed the Army Alpha and the Army Beta which were tests of intelligence which could be administered to large groups of recruits to simplify the task of selecting candidates for officer training or special assignments. Civilian use of these group tests after the war ended resulted in another rapid spurt and even faster rate of growth for the testing movement. This, in turn, led to increased awareness of mental retardation and a general public who soon ". . . became I.Q. conscious."<sup>8</sup>

#### Mental Retardation

Until 1900 individuals designated as mental defectives were cared for and trained in institutions,

---

<sup>7</sup>Ibid., p. 12.

<sup>8</sup>Ibid., p. 13.

but with the new awareness of degrees of mental retardation, encouraged by the widespread use of intelligence tests, institutions could not be ". . . built fast enough to care for all those classified as mentally defective. . .". At that point institutions were influential in persuading public school systems to organize special classes for mental defectives.<sup>9</sup> School systems complied in the hope of eliminating all delinquency and educational problems by labeling and placing in a special classroom, ". . . every child who deviated from the acceptable norm in behavior or academic achievement."<sup>10</sup> Arbitrary standards of admission to the first special classes did not allow for differences among individuals other than those measured by intelligence tests which, according to Anderson, were ". . . not always expertly administered."<sup>11</sup> The problem of identifying and testing children in need of a special placement was intensified by teachers and administrators untrained in dealing with atypical children.

---

<sup>9</sup>Meta L. Anderson, "The Meaning of Education for the Mentally Retarded." President's address to the American Association of Mental Deficiency; Salt Lake City, Utah, June 1941. Reprint from the American Journal of Mental Deficiency. Vol. XLVI, No. 1, July, 1941, n.p.

<sup>10</sup>Ibid.

<sup>11</sup>Ibid.

In 1918 Henry Goddard offered his staff at the Training School in Vineland, New Jersey, this description:

These children are easily fatigued by mental effort and lose interest quickly. They are not observant. They are often markedly backward in number work. They are especially backward in any school exercise requiring judgment and reasoning powers. They may excel in memory exercises. They usually associate with children younger than themselves. They have weak will-power. They are easily led and influenced by their associates. They are often wilful and disobedient, and liable to attacks of stubbornness and bad temper. The typical "incurable" of the primary grades is often a subnormal child of the excitable type.<sup>12</sup>

The first legislation, in 1911, to deal with special classes for the retarded in public schools was permissive and ambiguous. The law allowed districts to place in a special setting any child ". . . three years or more behind. . ." <sup>13</sup>. The legislation did not differentiate between intellectual ability and academic performance. The effect was the placement of children with a conglomeration of learning and behavioral problems in every special class.

During his years as Director of the Training School (1922-1940) Edgar A. Doll continued the work of his predecessors, Binet and Goddard, which involved

---

<sup>12</sup>Henry H. Goddard, "The Teaching of Children Mentally Three Years or More Below Normal," Unpublished Teacher Training Manual; Vineland, New Jersey, 1918. pp. 1-8.

<sup>13</sup>Laws of 1911, Chapter 231.

untangling the confusion created by the synonymous use of terms such as "mentally deficient, retarded and feeble-minded." Doll attributed the confusion to ". . . indiscriminate use of the mental age type of intelligence tests. . ." and to the ". . . practical difficulties of differential diagnosis with high-grade and borderline feeble-minded subjects."<sup>14</sup> Doll's pleas for a uniform criteria of mental deficiency seem to lay the foundation for a multi-disciplinary approach to diagnosis:

We need instruments for determining degrees or kinds of social competence; we need schedules for gathering and evaluating developmental histories; we need psychological criteria other than intelligence level as measured by Binet. In short we need a synthetic diagnostic scheme . . . . which provides for a consideration of family history, personal history (including educational, occupational, medical and other records), physical condition, educational achievement, social competence, mental status (other than intellectual), and in short, provides a complete and comprehensive study of the individual in all his bio-social aspects.<sup>15</sup>

Doll's advice went unheeded for almost forty years. In that time any child who did not perform at the expected level could be placed in a special class on the word of a psychologist or classroom

---

<sup>14</sup>Edgar Doll, "Criteria of Mental Deficiency," The Psychological Exchange, Vol. III, No. 6, March-April 1935, p. 1.

<sup>15</sup>Ibid.

Teacher. Any variation from the perceived norm in cognitive, affective or academic areas was viewed as cause for special class placement. These special classes, known originally as Opportunity Classes, continued for almost half a century while concerned parents and educators worked to clarify the criteria and concept of mental deficiency.

School authorities were often disappointed when children in these special classes failed to respond or progress in the expected manner and continued to be unsuccessful in meeting the anticipated academic standards. These classes were soon relegated to the category of ". . . necessary evil."<sup>16</sup> There was no curriculum and few materials so teachers were free to emphasize either academics or vocational training and through the years the focus fluctuated between the two extremes according to the teachers' philosophies and interests.

In 1920, J. M. McCallie, who was Supervisor of Defective Classes in Trenton, compiled a list of equipment needed in a special class. Included were tools for Manual Training, Cooking, Sewing, Weaving and basketballs, dumbbells, wands and bean bags for

---

<sup>16</sup>Ibid.

Physical Training. McCallie's opening paragraph revealed the status of special classes in the first quarter of the century:

Mentally defective children are the most helpless of our school population, and because they are the most helpless, instead of placing them in small, poorly lighted, poorly heated, and poorly ventilated rooms with meager equipment, they should have the best of rooms and these should be appropriately equipped.<sup>17</sup>

The list of the needs of the mentally retarded, as suggested by McCallie included ". . . even heat a degree or two above that required for a normal class," 25 square feet of floor space allotted to each pupil, a classroom on the first floor, and small, medium and large-size desks which are adjustable since ". . . each special class usually has pupils of several sizes."<sup>18</sup>

The New Jersey Commission on the Care of Mental Defectives made public its findings in 1914.<sup>19</sup> At that time 1,677 children in New Jersey were in special classes for the mentally deficient. Fifty years later there were

---

<sup>17</sup>J. M. McCallie, "Physical Properties and Equipment of a Special Class." Unpublished paper submitted to State Department of Education, Trenton, New Jersey, 1920, n.p.

<sup>18</sup>Ibid., n.p.

<sup>19</sup>Report of the New Jersey Commission on the Care of Mental Defectives; submitted to the State Department of Education, Trenton, New Jersey 1914.

985 classes (with approximately 15 children in each) for Educables in the state.

The report of the Commission advised that:

. . . the kind of education adequate to subnormal children . . . must be chiefly sensory and motor. Such children have little capacity for intellectual training and limited practical use for what they may be able to acquire. The best results are found in the development of their capacity for useful and productive work.<sup>20</sup>

The report also recommended that the mentally subnormal should be separated from their normal peers. The attitude of the Commission toward the subnormal is reflected in the report:

The majority of them (the retarded) after adolescence are troublesome. They are awkward, headstrong, and difficult to manage in the schools. No matter what their years they cannot go beyond the primary grades. Outside of school they are in mischief and crave a noteriety accompanied by wrong doing. They are oversexed and practice indecencies or worse. They become the big, awkward misunderstood, pitiable and dangerous companions of little children.<sup>21</sup>

The ensuing forty years found many changes in the attitudes toward, and the treatment of "subnormal" children. The surge of research in the early twenties confirmed degrees of retardation and allowed for earlier diagnosis and intervention. Parents of retarded children banded together to share information and to

---

<sup>20</sup> Ibid.

<sup>21</sup> Ibid., p. 24.

encourage legislators to mandate and fund appropriate educational programs for all levels of intellectual ability. More sophistication in diagnostic devices and more stringent certification requirements for diagnosticians combined to enable the mentally retarded to be differentiated from the emotionally disturbed, deaf, brain injured, or learning disabled individuals. Curricula and instructional materials designed to meet specific needs of retarded individuals increased in number and quality and became easily accessible. Teacher training programs multiplied in number as standards and certification fell under state law. Passage of the Beadleston laws in 1954 and 1959 gave impetus to the development of programs for the retarded and guaranteed every retarded child a suitable education. With the 1959 guidelines the diagnosis and program planning for the mentally retarded children in public schools became the responsibility of the newly formed Child Study Team.

#### Emotional Disturbance and Social Maladjustment

Until the time of Jean Esquirol few attempts were made to differentiate between mental deficiency and mental illness. His efforts laid a foundation for the testing movement of the early 1900's, and widened

to include evaluations of the non-intellectual traits. Personnel problems during World War I provided impetus in the development of rating scales, inventories, aptitude tests and projective tests. Efforts were made to differentiate among various mental disorders, and to measure the affects of personality traits on intellectual abilities.

Theories of personality were popularized by Freud, Jung, Rorschach, and tests designed to identify and analyze specific traits of personality in individuals and sub-groups of society were widely used. Differences between cultural, natural and racial groups were discussed in terms of the personality traits which had presumably been isolated by these personality tests.

The need for psychological testing grew as the need for information about individuals grew. Opportunities for higher education, a large increase in the type and number of available occupations and a trend toward specializations within occupations were some of the factors which combined to create a demand for psychological tests. With the increased demand came a growth in research, knowledge and understanding of the psychological make-up of individuals and groups.

In spite of this flurry of activity among psychologists and the popularity of psychological tests

in business, industry and colleges, very little attention was given to the personality traits and emotional stability of school children.

Many children with behavioral problems severe enough to interfere with learning in a public school setting were kept out of school and isolated. Others were placed in the special class designed for the retarded. Doll pioneered in separating mental deficiency from other causes of ". . . social inadequacy".<sup>22</sup> He stated:

There are many types and degrees of social incompetencies of which mental deficiency is but one. Our society includes many persons of low estate who are indolent, illiterate, criminal, unskilled, frustrated, impoverished. Those who are socially dependent in these groups owe their estate chiefly to physical or social circumstances or to mental attitudes which fall outside the field of feeble-mindedness because such social inadequacy is due to causes other than developmental deficiency of intelligence.<sup>23</sup>

Although Doll was primarily interested in the area of mental retardation, the results of his research opened the way for research into other of the learning handicaps. He isolated mental deficiency as a cause of school failures and in doing so encouraged educators to look elsewhere for causes of learning problems not related to

---

<sup>22</sup>Edgar A. Doll, "Notes on the Concept of Mental Deficiency," The American Journal of Psychology. Vol. 54, No. 1 January 1941, p. 117.

<sup>23</sup>Ibid.

retardation. In 1941, Doll wrote:

Aside from the vagaries of environmental misfortune, physical anomalies, physiological deficiencies, sensory handicaps, ill health, special disabilities, emotional disorders, and the like which produce conditions simulating feeble-mindedness in children, we must recognize children of constitutionally slow maturation or delayed development.<sup>24</sup>

Subsequently each of the limitations listed by Doll received the attention of researchers and educators, and each, in turn, was assigned its share of responsibility as a possible cause for emotional instability in school children. It was not until 1959 that legislation was enacted allowing the emotionally disturbed child to attend public schools in programs designed to accommodate his particular disability regardless of its etiology. Recent revisions of standardized psychological tests designed to evaluate functional levels and identify the personality traits of children aided in an accurate classification, and in the development of appropriate teaching techniques. Following the emphasis on mental retardation in the first quarter of the century, the types and causes of emotional disorders in children did not receive much attention until the late 1940's and early 1950's.

---

<sup>24</sup>Ibid., p. 118.

According to Jordan, children who are handicapped by their feelings cannot learn efficiently, and their classroom behavior may become ". . . at once the source, the symptom, or the symbolic representation of a problem."<sup>25</sup> The number of children whose learning is significantly disrupted by emotional handicaps has been estimated between eight to ten percent.<sup>26, 27, 28, 29</sup> Causes for emotional disorders in children were found in organic and environmental factors, and in the interaction between the factors.

A relationship between low socio-economic status and pre- and para- natal abnormalities was found by Pasamanick in 1954.<sup>30</sup> This relationship was manifested

---

<sup>25</sup>Thomas E. Jordan, The Exceptional Child (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1965) p. 235.

<sup>26</sup>J. C. Glidewell, et al. "Behavior Symptoms in Children and Adjustment in Public School," Human Organism, Vol. 18, 1959, pp. 123-130.

<sup>27</sup>C. A. Ullman, "Identification of Maladjusted School Children," Public Health Monthly, No. 6, July 1952.

<sup>28</sup>E. M. Bower, "A Process for Identifying Disturbed Children," Children, Vol. 4, 1957, pp. 143-147.

<sup>29</sup>J. D. Cummings, "The Incidence of Emotional Symptoms in School Children," British Journal of Educational Psychology, Vol. 14, 1944, pp. 151-161.

<sup>30</sup>B. Pasamanick, et al., "Socioeconomic Status and Some Precursors of Neuropsychiatric Disorder" American Journal Orthopsychiatry, No. 26, 1954, pp. 594-601.

in childhood years as behavior and academic problems, usually reading deficits. The nature of the child, his sex and age, along with salient features of home and number of siblings were identified as causes of emotional disorders by Hunt, Roach and Burrslin in 1960.<sup>31</sup> Birth order of individuals was found to be related to schizophrenia by Schooler in 1961.<sup>32</sup> Pressure to achieve in school and other forms of school phobia were found to be related to families with a high incidence of neurosis and also to disorders such as irritability, sleep disturbances, nausea and anxiety.<sup>33</sup>

Organic causes for emotional disorders in school children were studied by Driellien who found evidence of premature births producing traits such as lack of concentration, insecurity, immaturity, nervousness, passiveness, and aggressiveness.<sup>34</sup> Levy found cases of

---

<sup>31</sup>R. G. Hunt, et al., "Social-Psychological Factors and the Psychiatric Complaints of Disturbed Children" cited by Thomas Jordan, The Exceptional Child, op. cit., p. 261.

<sup>32</sup>C. Schooler, "Birth Order and Schizophrenia" General Psychiatry, Vol. 4, April 1961, pp. 91-97.

<sup>33</sup>L. A. Hersov, "Refusal to Go to School," Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, January 1960, pp. 137-145.

<sup>34</sup>C. M. Driellien, "The Incidence of Mental and Physical Handicaps in School Age Children of Very Low Birth Weight," Pediatrics, Vol. 27, March 1961, pp. 452-464.

behavioral-emotional problems following attacks of encephalitis in children between the ages of four and twenty-one.<sup>35</sup> Gibbs determined measles as a cause of emotional disorders in some school children.<sup>36</sup>

Autism, a juvenile form of schizophrenia, was often disguised in children as mental retardation, deafness, aphasia or delayed speech.<sup>37</sup> Traits of compulsiveness, narcissism, immaturity and emotional detachment were often shared by the autistic child and his or her mother.<sup>38</sup> The rapport which is necessary in all instruction was lacking in autistic children and educational progress unlikely. Some experts felt that schizophrenia, while there may be childhood regressions, was a life-long problem.

---

<sup>35</sup> Samuel Levy, "Post-Encephalitic Behavior" American Journal of Psychiatry, Vol. 115, 1959, pp. 1062-1067.

<sup>36</sup> F. A. Gibbs, et al., "Electrocephalographic Abnormality in 'Uncomplicated' Childhood Diseases" Journal of American Medical Association, Vol. 171, 1957, pp. 1050-1055.

<sup>37</sup> Loretta Bender, "Schizophrenia in Childhood" American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, Vol. 26, 1956, pp. 449-506.

<sup>38</sup> J. L. Despert, "Some Considerations Relating to the Genesis of Autistic Behavior in Children" American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, Vol. 21, 1951, pp. 335-350.

In 1962, Jordan recommended that special class placement is essential for many children with emotional disorders to prevent disruption of the regular classrooms and to provide a proper milieu for learning for the disabled child.<sup>39</sup> Improvement in mental health through chemotherapy or psychotherapy was not within the realm of the public school at this time, so emotional and social maladjustments in school children were usually referred to guidance counselors whose ". . . level of competence is . . . adequate only for the simplest problems."<sup>40</sup>

Another candidate for special class placement as a means of defensive segregation was the delinquent whose patterns of hostility, and disregard for conventions may stem from a psychopathology.<sup>41</sup> These children differed from the emotionally disturbed child in their freedom from anxiety, worry and compulsions. Theirs was a character disorder, not a manifestation of internal emotional stress. Very little research on the Socially Maladjusted child in public school was available at this time, but there was a wealth of

---

<sup>39</sup>Jordan, op. cit., p. 252.

<sup>40</sup>Ibid., p. 251.

<sup>41</sup>Ibid., p. 253.

information on adults whose anti-social and criminal actions are a pattern of behavior. This has been the sequence in which many learning problems of children have been researched with findings from adult populations serving as a foundation for research into disorders of children with similar symptoms.

### Learning Disabilities

There are many definitions of learning disabilities and no real agreement among those who work in the field. In general, agreement has been reached only as to what cannot be regarded as a learning disability. Most experts concur that learning disabilities are not primarily the result of sensory, motor, intellectual or emotional handicap, or lack of opportunity to learn.<sup>42</sup> Definitions of learning disabilities from a number of sources include:

. . . one or more significant deficits in essential learning processes requiring remediation through special education techniques;

. . . a significant discrepancy between expected and actual achievement in one or more areas such as language, mathematics and spatial orientation;

---

<sup>42</sup>National Conference on Exceptional Children, Learning Disabilities Division, St. Louis, Missouri, April, 1967.

A learning disability refers to a retardation, disorder or delayed development in one or more of the processes of speech, language, reading, spelling, writing, or arithmetic resulting from a possible cerebral dysfunction and/or cultural or instructional factors.<sup>43</sup>

. . . we use the term psychoneurological learning disorders to include deficits in learning, at any age, which are caused by deviations in the central nervous system and which are not due to mental deficiency, sensory impairment or psychogenicity. The etiology might be disease and accidents, or it might be developmental.<sup>44</sup>

Children who have learning disorders are those who manifest an educationally significant discrepancy between their estimated intellectual potential and the actual level of performance related to basic disorders in the learning processes, which may or may not be accompanied by demonstrable central nervous system dysfunction, and which are not secondary to generalized disturbance or sensory loss.<sup>45</sup>

A child with learning disabilities is one with significant intra-developmental discrepancies in central-motor, central-perceptual, or central-cognitive processes which lead to failure in

---

<sup>43</sup>Samuel A. Kirk, Educating Exceptional Children. (Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Co. 1962) p. 261.

<sup>44</sup>H. R. Myklebust, "Psychoneurological Learning Disorders in Children." Conference on Children with Minimal Brain Impairment, ed. Samuel Kirk and Wesley Becker (Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois, 1963) p. 27.

<sup>45</sup>Barbara Bateman, "An Educator's view of a diagnostic approach to learning disorders," Learning Disorders (Seattle: Seattle Sequin School, 1965) p. 220.

behavioral reactions in language, reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, and/or content subjects.<sup>46</sup>

In 1947, Strauss and Lehtinen, who are regarded as the forerunners of the experts in the field wrote:

A brain-injured child is a child who before, during, or after birth has received an injury to, or suffered an infection of, the brain. As a result of such organic impairment, defects of the neuro-muscular system may be present or absent, however; such a child may show disturbances in perception, thinking, and emotional behavior, either separately or in combination. These disturbances can be demonstrated by specific tests. These disturbances prevent or impede a normal learning process.<sup>47</sup>

A Seminar on Brain Injured Children was attended by twenty-seven experts from a variety of disciplines in 1955. Agreement on the terminology and definition was one of the prime concerns, but after a full day of debates and controversy, the participants agreed only that a definition was needed for each of three levels:

(a) etiology, (b) classification, (3) education.<sup>48</sup> The term learning disabled, while not unanimously accepted,

---

<sup>46</sup>Corrine Kass, Address at Conference on Learning Disabilities, Lawrence, Kansas, 1966.

<sup>47</sup>Alfred Strauss and Laura Lehtinen, Psychopathology and Education of the Brain-Injured Child (New York: Grune and Stratton, 1947) p. 17.

<sup>48</sup>Daniel Hallahan and William Cruickshank, Psychoeducational Foundations of Learning Disabilities. (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1973) p. 71.

is the most commonly used. Other terms included: developmental imbalance, educationally handicapped, brain injured, neurologically impaired, perceptually impaired, special learning disabilities.

The State Department of Education in New Jersey presently recognizes and labels 13 classifications, each of which represents a learning handicap. Differentiation and classification of characteristics of these learning disorders has been the focal point of research-oriented educators and psychologists for many years. The field of learning disabilities evolved from a series of studies within the general field of mental retardation, and gave rise to a totally new concept in public school education.<sup>49</sup>

#### Pioneers in Education of the Handicapped

The steps in the development of Special Education in New Jersey cannot be accurately related or interpreted without acknowledging the impact of events and individuals who have been instrumental in the evolution of learning disability theory and research. Hitler's rise to power was responsible for the emigration of Alfred Strauss, a psychiatrist, and Hans Werner, a psychologist, to the United States. Their individual

---

<sup>49</sup>Ibid., p. 58.

theories and research on brain injured, mentally retarded children were of little note, but their collaborative efforts in the United States in the late 1930's became the foundation upon which the field of learning disabilities was constructed.<sup>50</sup>

Werner and Strauss, while working with children, based their research on the results of Goldstein (1927) and Head (1926) who had studied the results of head injuries sustained by soldiers during the war.<sup>51</sup> Mentally retarded children were classified as exogenous, if retardation was due to neurological defects, or as endogenous, if retardation was due to familial factors. Evidence was presented that within the total population of mentally retarded there exist subgroups which display certain kinds of behavior. Among the contributions of Werner and Strauss was evidence that exogenous children reflected a general impairment of sensory modalities while endogenous childrens' responses to visual-motor and auditory-motor tasks were similar to those of normal children. These findings encouraged the further separation of the characteristics of the mentally retarded from

---

<sup>50</sup>Ibid., p. 65.

<sup>51</sup>Kurt Goldstein, "Die lokalisation in der grosshirn rinde" Handbook of Normal Pathology and Psychology (Berlin: J. Springer, 1927).

the learning disabled in later studies by Strauss and Kephart<sup>52</sup> (1940) and Strauss and Lehtinen<sup>53</sup> (1947). In their investigations of personality characteristics of exogenous children, specific behaviors, which are now synonymous with hyperactivity, were differentiated and found to be peculiar to the children with a neurological impairment. These symptoms, since known as the Strauss Syndrome, were originally claimed to be a way of designating children with learning disabilities.<sup>54</sup> More recent investigators suggested that the Strauss classification is limited, and applied to only a small segment of the population, but the importance of the findings was not disputed. The contributions of Werner, Strauss and their collaborators to the learning disability theory included: recognition of (a) specific learning disabilities and techniques to deal with them; (b) perceptual-motor difficulties and training to modify them; and (c) the psychological characteristics of hyperactivity and distractibility, and educational

---

<sup>52</sup>A. A. Strauss and N. C. Kephart, "Behavior Differences in Mentally Retarded Children," American Journal of Psychiatry, Vol. 96, 1940, pp. 1117-23.

<sup>53</sup>Strauss and Lehtinen, loc. cit.

<sup>54</sup>Doris Johnson and Helmer Myklebust, Learning Disabilities (New York: Grune and Stratton, 1969) p. 6.

procedures to minimize them.<sup>55</sup> Strauss and his associates found evidence that differentiated mental retardation from learning disabilities, and laid the groundwork for many later investigators. Among the most valuable of their contributions was the influence they exerted in shaping the philosophies of their students and followers.

One of these followers was William Cruickshank. Under his direction numerous studies were conducted which applied Werner and Strauss's conceptions of exogenous mental retardation to children of normal intelligence. Cruickshank and Bice (1957) explored the perceptual abilities of cerebral palsied children with average intelligence and found the same psychological characteristics displayed by exogenous, mentally retarded subjects.<sup>56</sup> Through the 1950's Cruickshank and his graduate students studied various aspects of cerebral palsey, exogenous mental retardation, and epilepsy. Cruickshank extended the ideas of Werner and Strauss to intellectually normal children. His subjects were cerebral palsied brain injured children with varying intellectual abilities. Cruickshank also found

---

<sup>55</sup>Hallahan, op. cit., p. 65.

<sup>56</sup>William Cruickshank and Harry Bice, Perception and Cerebral Palsy (Syracuse: Syracuse University Press, 1957).

many children who were not mentally retarded, and did not have central nervous system impairment, but who displayed perceptual-motor problems, distractibility, hyperactivity, and perseveration which were behavioral characteristics of Werner and Strauss's exogenous group, and Cruickshank's cerebral palsied group.<sup>57</sup> These children in the 1950's were known as "minimally brain injured;" presently they are called learning disabled.<sup>58</sup> Cruickshank found the ". . . requisite link. . ." and in later studies adopted and refined the educational methods suggested in 1947 by Strauss and Lehtinen, and suggested teaching materials and a reduction of classroom stimuli.<sup>59</sup>

Cruickshank is also credited with organizing the 1965 conference of experts from many disciplines which focused on defining "brain injured" and called attention to the inappropriateness of the label. The Teacher of Brain Injured Children is a collection of papers submitted to Cruickshank for discussion at the conference.<sup>60</sup>

---

<sup>57</sup>Hallahan, op. cit., p. 67.

<sup>58</sup>Ibid.

<sup>59</sup>Cruickshank, op. cit., p. 47.

<sup>60</sup>William Cruickshank, The Teacher of Brain Injured Children (Syracuse: Syracuse University Press, 1966).

Another of Werner and Strauss's disciples was Newell C. Kephart, whose collaboration with Strauss resulted in the updating of the 1947 Strauss and Lehtinen volume. In 1955, Strauss and Kephart included information on the brain injured child of normal intelligence. Kephart's theory revolved around his belief that learning to adapt to the environment is the primary challenge faced by every living organism.<sup>61</sup> The higher the level of the organism, the more complex are the behavioral capabilities. Kephart's most valuable addition to the field of learning disabilities is his emphasis on the perceptual-motor facet of child development. He stressed the integration of input (stimulus) and output (response). ". . . we cannot think of perceptual activities and motor activities as two different items; we must think of the hyphenated term perceptual-motor."<sup>62</sup>

A collaborator of Kephart's in the 1950's and eventually a leading figure in his own right in the field of learning disabilities is Gerald Getman. As an optometrist, Getman was interested in visual

---

<sup>61</sup>Newell C. Kephart, The Slow Learner in the Classroom. (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1960).

<sup>62</sup>Ibid., p. 63.

performance upon total performance. His association with Arnold Gesell, a developmental psychologist, affected his theories and gave him a strong developmental orientation. Getman and Kephart collaborated to develop means of assessing perceptual-motor abilities, primarily visual-motor, and training techniques designed to remediate deficits in visual-motor abilities. In 1964, Getman wrote The Physiology of Readiness, which described perceptual-motor training activities which are similar in concepts and ideas to those suggested earlier by Strauss and Kephart.

Another of the learning disability theorists whose work reflects the influence of Strauss, Kephart and Getman is Ray Barsch. Barsch, while also concerned with management of stimuli in the environment, is primarily known for his theory of Movigenics.<sup>63</sup> Moviegenics is described as the study of the development of spatial movement patterns. In 1967, Barsch constructed a Moviegenics Curriculum of perceptual-motor training activities which stressed the development of motor movement and spatial awareness. The components of Barsch's curriculum

---

<sup>63</sup> J. J. McCarthy and J. F. McCarthy. Learning Disabilities. (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1969).

which he considered important for all learning are muscular strength, dynamic balance, spatial awareness, body awareness, visual dynamics, auditory dynamics, bilaterality, rhythm, flexibility and motor planning.

The creation of a Developmental Test of Visual Perception in the early 1960's won Marianne Frostig recognition as a leader in the field of learning disabilities. Frostig, a developmentalist, although her major contributions were perceptual-motor theory and training techniques, was also influenced by the earlier works of Werner and Strauss.

Kephart, Getman, Barsch, Frostig, and to some extent, Cruickshank, reflect the thinking of Werner and Strauss in their similar concern for the perceptual-motor aspects of development, and in their variations on the training techniques first suggested by Strauss. Another point of similarity is their agreement on the sequence of development: motor development precedes perceptual; perceptual precedes conceptual. Any break or weakness in the sequential development negatively affects the development of the remaining areas.<sup>64</sup>

---

<sup>64</sup>P. I. Myers and D. D. Hamill, Methods for Learning Disorders (New York: John Wiley, 1969) p. 286.

In contrast to theorists who focused on behavioral changes, Glen Doman and Carl Delacato believed they could treat and remediate damage to the central nervous system. In 1959, their theory of "neurological organization" met with criticism from the medical, psychological and educational professions, and with acceptance, even popularity, from the general public.<sup>65</sup> The controversy produced by Doman and Delacato continues unresolved even today.

Doman, a physical therapist, and Delacato, an educational psychologist, based their concept of neurological organization and patterning on the work of Temple Fay, a neurosurgeon. The elements of their theory are (a) placing the child on the floor for training activities in order to remediate damaged areas of the brain; (b) externally manipulating the child into body patterns characteristic of the level of the damaged brain, (c) imposing hemispheric dominance and unilaterality, (d) administering carbon dioxide therapy (Fay, in 1953, hypothesized that carbon dioxide increased the size of the small vessels of the brain and resulted in better

---

<sup>65</sup> Carl Delacato, The Treatment and Prevention of Reading Problems (Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1959).

blood circulation to the brain), and (e) stimulating the senses to improve body awareness.<sup>66</sup>

In 1968, in an unprecedented move, seven professional organizations, including one which Fay had helped to found, adopted an official statement objecting to the Doman-Delacato theory and treatment procedures.

The statement is summarized by Robbins and Glass:

The Institutes for the Achievement of Human Potential (founded by Doman, Delacato and Fay) appear to differ substantially from other groups treating developmental problems in (a) the excessive nature of their undocumented claims for cure and (b) the extreme demands placed upon parents in carrying out an unproven technique without fail.

Advice to parents and professional workers cannot await conclusive results of controlled studies of all aspects of the method. Physicians and therapists should acquaint themselves with the issues in the controversy and the available evidence. We have done this and concur with the conclusions of Robbins and Glass (1969).

There is no empirical evidence to substantiate the value of either the theory or practice of the neurological organization. . . . If the theory is to be taken seriously. . . its advocates are under an obligation to provide reasonable support for the tenets of the theory and a series of experimental investigations, consistent with scientific standards, which test the efficacy of the rationale.

To date we know of no attempt to fulfill this obligation. Our examination of these assumptions indicates that the tenets are either unsupported

---

<sup>66</sup>R. J. Doman, et al., "Children with severe brain injuries." Journal of the American Medical Association, Vol. 174, 1960, pp. 257-262.

or overwhelmingly contradicted when tested by theoretical, experimental, or logical evidence from the relevant scientific literature. As a scientific hypothesis, the theory of neurological organizations seems to be without merit.<sup>67</sup>

In spite of the controversy and heated arguments surrounding the Doman-Delacato methods and the absence of conclusive evidence of their success, Hallahan believed they have made a major contribution to the field of learning disabilities: they caused other learning disability theorists to reevaluate their own philosophies in terms of differences from, and similarities to, Doman and Delacato.<sup>68</sup> The theory of neurological organization and the controversies it precipitated resulted in a clarification, strengthening and, in some cases a unification of the ideas of various other theorists and of the field of learning disabilities as a whole.

#### Language Theorists

Early in the 1930's while Werner and Strauss and their disciples were investigating the perceptual-motor aspects of development, Samuel Orton, a neuropathologist, was studying the effects on language of brain

---

<sup>67</sup>M. Robbins and G. V. Glass, "The Doman-Delacato rationale: A critical analysis; Educational Therapy, ed. J. Hellman (Seattle: Special Child Publications, 1969) p. 346.

<sup>68</sup>Hallahan, op. cit., p. 100.

injured children.<sup>69</sup> Orton postulated an inherited base of reading disabilities, and like Delacato, believed that mixed dominance was a strong negative influence on learning to read.<sup>70</sup> Orton insisted that mixed dominance is hereditary. He was opposed to the sight method of reading instruction and urged that reading disabled children be taught through an auditory, phonetic approach. Orton's method required the tracing of letters for kinesthetic cues.<sup>71</sup> Orton's investigations are historically significant primarily because of the time period in which they occurred. At the same time Werner and Strauss were forming their theories regarding mental retardation and perceptual-motor development, and were setting a framework for their many followers to evolve a theory of learning disabilities as a handicap separate from mental retardation, Orton was concentrating on language disturbances in children who would fit the present day description of learning disabilities. In spite of his foresight, Orton's theories did not achieve popularity or acquire many followers. However, some of his ideas and beliefs have

---

<sup>69</sup>Myers and Hammill, loc. cit.

<sup>70</sup>Samuel Orton, Reading, Writing and Speech Problems in Children (New York: Norton, 1937).

<sup>71</sup>Myers and Hammill, loc. cit.

since been adopted and expanded by other language theorists.

Katrina deHirsch was one who initially accepted some of Orton's theories, but as her own ideas broadened she was influenced by Myklebust, Bender, Strauss and Werner also. deHirsch accepted Orton's definition, but not the name, strephosymbolia:

. . . a disorder of the child who is theoretically, at least, bright and reasonably well adjusted. . . (but) runs into trouble when he is first exposed to the printed word.<sup>72</sup>

deHirsch's name for this condition is "specific dyslexia"<sup>73</sup> She determined that these children had both receptive and expressive language deficits, difficulty in processing verbalization, trouble with formulating sentences, dysnomia, tendency to cluttering, disorganized verbal output and failure to cope with spatial and temporal categories.<sup>74</sup> These deficits plus an inability to anticipate sentence meaning, in deHirsch's opinion limited the reading comprehension of these children.

---

<sup>72</sup>Katrina deHirsch, "Specific dyslexia or strephosymbolia" Folia Phoniatica, Vol. 4, 1952, pp. 231-48.

<sup>73</sup>Ibid., p. 231.

<sup>74</sup>Katrina deHirsch, "Two categories of learning difficulties in adolescents." American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, Vol. 33, 1963, pp. 87-91.

Because of the influence of Strauss and Werner, deHirsch extended her investigations to include the perceptual-motor functions of these dyslexic children and found dysfunctions in spatial disorientation, visual-motor and figure-ground problems, hyperactivity, and primitive motility patterning. In 1952, deHirsch also reported on non-language disturbances which she associated with specific dyslexia: (a) visual-perception, recall of details, problems in reproducing spatial configurations in spite of adequate visual acuity, (b) many aspects of visual-motor functioning, (c) figure-ground disturbance, (d) symptoms of brain injury as described in 1847 by Strauss and Lehtinen such as hyperactivity, distractibility, disinhibition, disorganization.<sup>75</sup> In remediation techniques deHirsch preferred an eclectic approach tailored to the individual child's specific needs. This is a departure from Orton and other language pathologists who have each prescribed one particular method for all areas that need remediation.

As a graduate student and resident instructor in the early 1930's, in an institution for retarded boys, Samuel A. Kirk was successful in teaching a ten year old

---

<sup>75</sup>deHirsch, 1952, loc. cit.

boy, who had been classified as word blind, to read. This experience aroused Kirk's interest in the functioning and non-functioning of the brain, at a time when research on the brain injured and mentally retarded was receiving considerable attention. His teaching success also made him aware of the need for remediation techniques. Years later, in 1949, Kirk established an experimental nursery school for "so-called mentally retarded" children.<sup>76</sup> There he observed first hand the language disabilities of children who would presently be classified as learning disabled. During this period Kirk extended his earlier interest in remediation to include testing devices when he recognized the importance of accurate diagnosis.

To be able to analyze the communication problems of younger children at the outset or before remediation, it became necessary for us to develop tests to isolate some of these abilities and disabilities.<sup>77</sup>

Through the next 15 years Kirk studied for himself and guided his graduate students' studies into the area of test writing in an effort to identify and

---

<sup>76</sup>Samuel Kirk, Lecture appearing in Final Report, United States Office of Education, Advanced Institute for Leadership Personnel in Learning Disabilities; Department of Special Education, University of Arizona, 1970.

<sup>77</sup>Ibid., p. 108.

measure discrete communication abilities. The culmination of their efforts, the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities, (ITPA) was produced in 1961, revised in 1968, and has become a landmark in the field of learning disabilities. Ironically this test which is identified with learning disabilities, was originally devised in the area of mental retardation.

The ITPA is designed for use with children from two to ten years of age to assess intraindividual psycholinguistic abilities and disabilities which produce specific causes of academic problems. A total of 12 subtests tap three areas:

- (1) Channels of communication, which emphasize the modalities most relevant to education, through which sensory information is received and expressed in a response. Auditory stimuli call for a vocal response and visual stimuli for a motor response.
- (2) psycholinguistic processes which are involved in language; a. reception, which is the decoding and understanding of words, pictures, or gestures; b. organization, which refers to internal manipulation or concepts and linguistic skills;
- (3) expression, which is the encoding process and represents the ability to express ideas vocally or with gestures.<sup>78</sup>

The ITPA purports to be a test of language

---

<sup>78</sup>John Paraskevopoulos and Samuel Kirk, The Development and Psychometric Characteristics of the Revised Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities. (Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1969) pp. 25-49.

abilities, but there are subtests which require perceptual-motor performance, and Kirk, who is known as a language theorist, has designed many of his remediation techniques so that they also fall into the area of perceptual-motor performance.

Another of the language theorists who focused on the language disabilities of learning disabled children was Helmer Myklebust. His interest in language and in learning disabilities developed after his studies of deafness and aphasia produced subjects who were unable to develop receptive (auditory) language in spite of adequate auditory acuity. In 1967, Myklebust identified five types of learning disabilities and suggested means of diagnosing and remediating deficits in auditory language, arithmetic, reading, writing and nonverbal skills. Myklebust disagreed with many of his predecessors in the field, in his emphasis on etiology rather than behavioral characteristics of the learning disability.<sup>79</sup> He developed the term "psychoneurological learning disability" as a compromise but he continued to focus on etiological diagnosis.<sup>80</sup>

---

<sup>79</sup> Helmer Myklebust, Lecture appearing in Final Report, U.S.O.C. Contract, Advanced Institute for Leadership Personnel in Learning Disabilities, Department of Special Education, University of Arizona, 1970, p. 112.

<sup>80</sup> Hallahan, op. cit., p. 115.

Myklebust also developed the concept of a learning quotient in an attempt to ". . . quantify the extent of a child's learning disabilities by comparing his expected potential to his actualized performance."<sup>81</sup> The formula for the learning quotient first derives an expectancy age which is then divided into the year level obtained on an achievement test. An arbitrary cut-off point of the quotient determines the presence, or absence, of a learning disability. The popularity of the learning quotient was greatly diminished when calculations proved the quotient did not accomplish the end for which it was designed: i.e. the differentiation between the mentally retarded and the learning disabled child.

Concurrent with the Strauss and Werner investigations of behaviors of neurologically impaired children, Ward Halstead, only three hundred miles away, was studying the psychological effects of brain injury in adults. His studies in 1935 resulted in the development of Halstead's Neuropsychological Test Battery which was designed to distinguish the brain damaged from the non-brain damaged adult. Halstead found evidence ". . . that (1) brain functions are such that the effects of a lesion in one location are different from those if

---

<sup>81</sup> Ibid.

it were in another location and (2) that a lesion can be detected only by use of a conglomerate of neuropsychological tests that tap as many brain functions as possible."<sup>82</sup> Later research has not corroborated all of Halstead's findings, but Halstead set a pattern of cooperation among psychologists, physicians, neurosurgeons, neurologists, and neuropsychologists which gave needed impetus to a multi-discipline, team approach to diagnosis and remediation of learning deficits.

Ralph Reitan worked with Halstead before he modified and extended the original Halstead battery for use with children. Reitan emphasized sensorimotor comparison of the two sides of the body so that the individual provides his own basis of comparison to lateralize a dysfunction if it is present. Reitan's purpose was to explore as thoroughly as possible the psychological characteristics of brain injured individuals, not to construct a test for the diagnosis of brain injury.<sup>83</sup>

Another pioneer in the investigation of psychological efforts of neurological dysfunction was Arthur

---

<sup>82</sup> Leonard Small, Neuropsychodiagnosis (New York: Brunner/Mazel, 1973) p. 251.

<sup>83</sup> Hallahan, op. cit., p. 120.

Benton. He focused on the neuropsychological factors in educational failures and examined behavioral characteristics in terms of the locus of the cerebral lesion. Benton's main contribution to the field of learning disabilities is the Benton Visual Retention Test normed for eight years of age and above, which was published in 1963.<sup>84</sup>

The list of theorists who have contributed to the field of learning disabilities as it is known today, is endless. Those chosen for mention here represent a cross section of theories and emphasis, but all have been concerned primarily with remediation and educational methods, and all have been influenced by the early work of Strauss and Werner. The accomplishments of the individuals described are merely the outstanding achievements which have been most significant.

There are many other theorists of national and international prominence who deserve recognition for their continuing investigations which promote growth in the field, but the focus here has been historical and no attempt has been made to include more than a sampling.

---

<sup>84</sup> Small, op. cit., p. 188.

## CHAPTER IV

### INFORMATION FROM INTERVIEWS

#### Introduction

Fifty individuals were referred for interviews because of their professional activities in the field of Special Education. Six of the 50 interviewees began their training and careers as psychologists. Of the 33 who began as teachers, 11, after spending some time in the classroom, pursued their education and careers as psychologists. The remaining six included two social workers, a psychiatrist, a nurse, one senator and five parents.

Each of the 50 informants responded to the question, "How did you originally become interested in Special Education?" Thirty-four began their work with the handicapped because of some exposure to a handicapped child or group of handicapped children. Five learned about learning handicaps when they became parents of a handicapped child. One had a younger sister who was retarded from birth. One woman whose professional contributions have been directed toward education of the blind, was punished as a very young school child by being sent to spend her recess time in the area of the playground reserved for blind children.

Her decision to work with the blind was made during that period of punishment. Two individuals entered the field of education from the medical profession; one after years as an operating room nurse became a school nurse and social worker. The other learned about orthopedic handicaps, including cerebral palsy in pre-medical school and changed her allegiance. She is now a Professor of Special Education in a state college.

The most widely known of the interviewees developed a long-lasting interest in the education of handicapped children when two of his employees brought their handicapped children to his office. Another interviewee who made many worthwhile contributions to the field of research in the area of cerebral palsy, began his career in a church school in North Carolina. His job there entailed clearing land, making furniture for the school, and transporting problem children 70 miles each way to the State University for diagnosis and counseling. He claims to have completed his doctorate in psychology to avoid the long trip without depriving the handicapped children of professional services.

The remaining individuals whose interest in Special Education was caused by exposure to a handicap began their careers as school teachers or principals.

In some cases teaching positions in their original areas of interest were scarce but "temporary" positions as teachers of the handicapped were readily available, and no special training was required. Others found handicapped children in their regular classrooms and became interested in aiding them. Several interviewees had once been school administrators who, in the course of their duties, dealt with discipline problems which were later recognized as undiagnosed learning deficits. Their efforts to alleviate the problems included establishing special classes where the discipline (learning) problems would be isolated from normal children.

Three of the interviewees described their initial contacts with the education of the handicapped in terms of "drifted into it;" "by mistake;" "fell in love with them (handicapped children)". Thirteen of the 50 interviewees originally entered the field of Special Education for monetary reasons. Their performance in their original field, teaching, psychology, social work, led to promotions or job changes which directed them toward areas of Special Education. Two were social workers when they were offered positions at county or state levels. One was forced to work with the retarded when the depression prevented employment in his chosen field. The remaining 10 members of this group

accepted a position involving some area of education of the handicapped as a prerequisite for advancement, or as a means of financial gain.

Only three of the 50 people interviewed began their education and professional lives with the intention of working with the handicapped. Two were primarily interested in speech and hearing defects and one was a psychologist who was trained to work with the mentally retarded.

Each of the 50 individuals interviewed was referred by peers or associates as an important person in the development of Special Education in New Jersey. More than two thirds (68%) became interested in education for all handicapped children because of an unplanned encounter or relationship with a handicapped child. Thirteen of the 50 (26%) who made equally important contributions entered the field unintentionally because it meant improving their financial or employment situation. Three of those interviewed (6%) planned a career and set a course that prepared them to work with the handicapped from the onset of their professional lives, and those three did not anticipate their involvement with public school education for the handicapped.

## Significant Contributors

The story of the growth of Special Education must be told through the contributions of individuals who initiated and encouraged that growth. This representative list was compiled in interviews with individuals who themselves had been named as significant forces in the field. Each of the interviewees named individuals who had made significant contributions to the development of Special Education. Forty-one contributors were named by the interviewees and 18 were named in five or more interviews. Twenty-eight of the 50 people interviewed were among the 41 named as significant contributors. The names of all those interviewed are included in Appendix A. The names of the contributors and those who referred them can be found in Appendix B.

The following information was presented in response to the questions: "In your opinion, who were the most valuable contributors to the development of Special Education in New Jersey?" "What were the contributions?"

Meta Anderson - In 1908, the Vineland Training School held summer classes for ". . . teachers of backward children. . ." <sup>1</sup> Years later, Henry Goddard

---

<sup>1</sup>Henry Goddard, Training School Bulletin, Vol. 40 Vineland Training School, March 1943, p. 2.

remembered Miss Anderson as an exceptional student. In 1910 Dr. Anderson accepted a position with the Newark Board of Education to form and teach a Binet class, which was a class for retarded children. There were to be two such classes in Newark that year. Over the next 32 years, Meta Anderson made Newark's program for the handicapped a model for cities all over the country.<sup>2</sup> Newark had the only public school classes for the deaf, although the permissive legislation of 1911 encouraged such classes, ". . . she was the only one who did anything about it."<sup>3</sup> She translated the concept of teaching the handicapped into actual classes.<sup>4</sup> By 1937, Dr. Anderson was Director of Special Services and had established classes for more than 1500 retarded children. Later in 1937 she coordinated all divisions of Special Education in Newark and supervised classes which served over 2000 handicapped children; not only the retarded, but the deaf, hard of hearing, blind, partially sighted, orthopedic, cardiac, undervitalized, homebound, socially

---

<sup>2</sup>Personal interview with Dr. Merrell Hollinshead, December, 1977.

<sup>3</sup>Personal interview with Dr. James Jan-Tausch, November, 1976.

<sup>4</sup>Personal interview with Dr. Maurice Kott, August, 1977.

maladjusted and speech defectives.<sup>5</sup>

In addition to her duties in Newark, Dr. Anderson was on the staff of New York University. In this position she recruited talented young people to serve as teachers and receive in-service teacher training in Newark.<sup>6</sup> It is not coincidence that three people on the list of significant contributors were employed in Newark during, and just after the time of Meta Anderson. The curriculum which Dr. Anderson emphasized was "Child Centered"<sup>7</sup> She believed that to understand a child you must know his abilities, limitations, strengths and weaknesses. This concept became well known 20 years after her death with the advent of the Team approach to diagnosis.

Senator Alfred Beadleston - When Alfred Beadleston was elected to office in 1951, he set up a small office in his home town to be available to his constituents. His newly hired secretary cried at times for reasons not apparent to the Senator. With questioning he learned that his secretary's mongoloid daughter had

---

<sup>5</sup>Goddard, op. cit., p. 14

<sup>6</sup>Personal interview with Dr. Elizabeth Kelly, August, 1977.

<sup>7</sup>Goddard, loc. cit.

been refused admission to public school, and that institutionalization was not possible because of the cost and the long waiting lists. About the same time, the woman who cleaned the office brought with her a very bright and alert child who was suffering with cerebral palsy. Again the senator learned of the shortage of space in institutions and the lack of facilities for the handicapped in public schools.

The Senator remembers going to the Commissioner of Education and to the Governor to ask why handicapped children were not being educated in public schools. He was interested in this problem and readily agreed to sponsor the legislation that parents of handicapped youngsters had been requesting for some time. The result was the Beadleston legislation of 1954 which is now famous. For the next 15 years Alfred Beadleston maintained his interest in the handicapped and continued to sponsor legislation for their benefit. By the end of the first decade in office, Republican Alfred Beadleston was a powerful force. When Democratic Governor Richard Hughes wanted a sales tax passed as a bipartisan act he enlisted the cooperation of Senator Beadleston. In exchange for Beadleston's support and the six Republican votes which Beadleston could guarantee, Governor Hughes offered to support the Education for the Handicapped

Bill which Beadleston was then sponsoring. Both bills passed on the same day within a few hours of each other.<sup>8</sup>

In June, 1976, Senator Beadleston offered his opinions on the future of Special Education in New Jersey: (1) Pre-school education for children whom the Commissioner determined will benefit must be mandatory; (2) A statewide Risk Register must be established so pediatricians and obstetricians can report all birth problems to give educators advance notice of ". . . what we're going to get... ." <sup>9</sup> Earlier vocational training should be considered for these "risks." (3) Better rehabilitation programs with regional centers for the most difficult children to be taken out of public schools would enable lesser handicapped children to gain more acceptance.

Vincentz Cianci - After graduating from college Miss Cianci taught at Totwa School for the Mentally Retarded in 1941 because she could not find a teaching position elsewhere. Later she became head teacher at

---

<sup>8</sup>Personal interview with Dr. James Jan-Tausch, November, 1975.

<sup>9</sup>Personal interview with Senator Alfred Beadleston, June, 1976.

the Woodbine Institution. In these positions she became aware of the number of retarded children whose applications for admittance to the institutions were rejected because of the lack of room. While the names of these children were placed on waiting lists they received no training. Miss Cianci went to the Department of Institutions and Agencies with the suggestion that these children could be trained, and their parents counseled, in their own homes. Miss Cianci was employed by the Department, under the supervision of Dr. Lloyd Yepsen to implement her idea of home training. As she traveled around the State in performance of her duties, Miss Cianci was instrumental in making parents of the handicapped aware of the services being offered by the New Jersey Association for Retarded Children, and she and Dr. Yepsen served as volunteer counselors for that organization for many years and greatly contributed to its rapid growth and eventual strength.<sup>10</sup>

In 1955, Miss Cianci became one of the first Child Study Supervisors at the county level, and served in that position until she was appointed as Coordinator of Pre-School for the Handicapped in the Bureau of Special Education and Pupil Personnel Services in the

---

<sup>10</sup>Personal interview with Miss Cianci, April, 1977.

early 1970's.<sup>11</sup>

George Boone - Dr. Boone's teaching career began in a one-room country school. Later as principal of a Junior High School he became aware of the problems of slow learners and completed his graduate studies in Special Education at New York University. In 1942, Dr. Boone was Assistant Superintendent of Schools in Passaic, New Jersey, where his duties included directing a Children's Clinic, which under his direction became internationally famous. The staff included a psychiatrist, police officer, three attendance officers, a policewoman, and three detectives. These professionals working as a Team dealt with any child who became a learning problem in the school, or a delinquency problem in the town.

During this period, Dr. Boone was active in the Conference on the Handicapped and aided in drafting legislation which mandated education for the handicapped in the early 1950's. In 1954 George Boone presented a television show which dealt with problem children. His co-panelists were Governor Robert Meynor and Dr. Boyd Nelson. The following year Dr. Nelson was appointed as the first Director of Special Education

---

<sup>11</sup>Telephone interview with Miss Cianci, February, 1978.

and a few years later recruited George Boone to serve as the first Director of Education for the Handicapped on the first Child Study Team in the State of New Jersey. In this position his responsibilities included the education of the mentally retarded, physically handicapped, emotionally disturbed and brain-injured. His duties consisted of setting up programs for the handicapped, and recruiting and supervising county level Child Study Teams in their dealings with the handicapped. He served in that position from 1960 until his retirement in 1968.<sup>12</sup> In the opinion of Dr. Boyd Nelson, it was George Boone who was responsible for the formation of the first Child Study Team.<sup>13</sup>

Anne Hoppock - After teaching in an elementary school in Hunterdon County, Miss Hoppock became a Helping Teacher in Warren County in 1941. Several years later she was hired as an assistant in the Division of Elementary Education where a portion of her salary was paid by funds which had been budgeted for use in some unremembered Special Education purposes. Because of this her position entailed dealing with Special

---

<sup>12</sup>Personal interview with Dr. George Boone, January, 1977.

<sup>13</sup>Telephone interview with Dr. Boyd Nelson, February, 1977.

Education concerns. The Assistant Commissioner suggested to Miss Hoppock that she become acquainted with people in the state who were involved in teaching or evaluating handicapped children. In performing her duties Miss Hoppock met Elizabeth Kelly in Newark, Kirk Seaton in Elizabeth, George Boone in Passaic, and Charles Jochem in the State School for the Deaf. These people were at that time already involved in Special Education. Under Miss Hoppock's leadership they, and members of their staffs made up the nucleus of an organization known as the Conference on the Handicapped which was active in promoting the welfare of handicapped children until the middle of the 1950's.<sup>14</sup>

By bringing together this group of people Miss Hoppock made an immeasurable contribution to the development and growth of Special Education in New Jersey. She retired in 1969 as Director of Elementary Education for the State Department of Education.

James Jan-Tausch - In 1959, Dr. Jan-Tausch was Director of Reading at Newark State College and school psychologist in Springfield, New Jersey, when he was offered the position of Clinical Psychologist on the first Child Study Team which Boyd Nelson was forming.

---

<sup>14</sup>Personal interview with Anne Hoppock, August, 1977.

He accepted the position for monetary reasons, but before he could assume his duties Dr. Nelson asked him to accept the newly created position of Director of Remedial Instruction which was more difficult to fill than that of Director of Psychology. Professor Lenore Vaughn-Eames, who was also on the faculty of Newark State College persuaded Dr. Jan-Tausch to accept the position, which he did with some misgivings.

Until this time individuals in local school districts who were functioning as remedial instructors had no leadership or uniformity in name, duties or type of students. They had no training as diagnosticians because there were no standards, certification requirements or training institutions. In many districts a classroom teacher or the reading teacher assumed the role of remedial instructor, or learning disability specialist as they were soon labeled. Dr. Jan-Tausch held meetings with these remedial instructors and gave them "on the job" training.<sup>15</sup> He devised easily administered tests to be used in diagnosing causes for the learning problems, and he campaigned vigorously for adequate training and state certification for the new profession known as learning disability

---

<sup>15</sup>Personal interview with Rosemary Berkey, March, 1977.

specialists.

Dr. Jan-Tausch was not in favor of using reading teachers in the newly created position of Learning Disabilities Specialists. He wanted reading teachers kept available for all children. In spite of his efforts many reading teachers became learning disability specialists as a safety measure since the position of Learning Disabilities Specialist was mandated by the 1959 legislation while reading teachers had no such guaranteed employment.<sup>16</sup>

It was Dr. Jan-Tausch who shaped the concept of the Learning Disability Specialist to its unique role as an important part of the basic Child Study Team. He ". . . developed a whole new profession. . ." and tried to enlarge the basic team to include a nurse, attendance officer and guidance counselor.<sup>17</sup> His efforts created some contention among administrators and Team members. ". . .The Child Study Team is a complex issue. . . Jim Jan-Tausch took abuse for it, but he was right"<sup>18</sup>

---

<sup>16</sup>Personal interview with Dr. James Jan-Tausch, November, 1975.

<sup>17</sup>Personal interview with Eleanor Englebrecht, March, 1977.

<sup>18</sup>Personal interview with Dr. Daniel Ringelheim, August, 1977.

Much of the controversy over the use of reading teachers and former classroom teachers as diagnosticians on the Child Study Team stemmed from the fact that the concept of the Learning Disability Specialist had been introduced long before colleges were prepared with suitable programs. A much publicized and heated series of discussions began concerning the abilities of reading teachers to perform as Learning Disability Specialists. The leaders of these discussions were Dr. Jan-Tausch, who was in favor of keeping reading teachers available for all children and creating a new position of Learning Disability Specialists, and Dr. Edward Fry, Chairman of the Reading Department in the Graduate School of Education at Rutgers University, who felt that adequately trained reading teachers could function as efficiently as a Learning Disability Specialist, and the role of the LDS on the Team could be eliminated. Dr. Jan-Tausch argued that the reading teacher's role was to work on relieving the symptoms, while the LDS probed for causes. A debate was scheduled to take place at Rutgers University and members of the New Jersey Reading Teachers Association and the Association of Learning Disability Specialists, both of which were founded by Dr. Jan-Tausch, were publicizing the planned debate in their publications and scheduled

meetings. Shortly before the scheduled debate Dr. Jan-Tausch called together a group of approximately 12 Learning Disability Specialists, whom he had trained, to meet with Commissioner of Education, Carl Marburger, to defend the position of the LDS on the Child Study Team. Most of the 12 had been reading teachers and were well able to discuss the difference between the treatment of symptoms and the diagnosis of causes. The Commissioner agreed and the Jan-Tausch - Fry debate was cancelled.<sup>19,20</sup>

Charles Jochem - In 1953, Dr. Jochem was appointed by Governor Driscoll to conduct a survey to determine the number and types of handicapped children in New Jersey, and the extent and kinds of educational facilities available. The survey was prompted by 1953 proposed legislation aimed at providing education for the handicapped, which was vetoed by the Governor with a recommendation that more information was needed. The results of Jochem's survey were published by the State Department of Education in a booklet named Found.

---

<sup>19</sup>Personal interview with Rosemary Berkey, March, 1977.

<sup>20</sup>Personal observation of Jan-Tausch - Fry Planning at NJRTA Executive Board Meeting, New Brunswick, 1968.

Before his appointment Dr. Jochem served as Superintendent of the State School for the Deaf. He secured a leave of absence to complete the study, and returned to his position in 1954, as Director of the Marie Katzenbach School for the Deaf, which is the name by which the former State School is presently known.

Dr. Jochem was an active member of the Conference on the Handicapped and contributed to the Commissioner of Education's Commission on the Education of the Handicapped in 1964. The recommendations of the Commission led to the 1966 recodification of all legislation pertaining to the education of the handicapped.

Elizabeth Kelly - After teaching in an elementary school from 1926 to 1931, Miss Kelly was asked to teach a class for exceptional children. Her interest in special children was so aroused she enrolled in courses at New York University. Her instructor was Dr. Meta Anderson, who was then Director of Special Services in the Newark Public Schools. Miss Kelly accepted Dr. Anderson's invitation to teach special children in Newark, which she did while she pursued her graduate studies and served as adjunct faculty at Newark State College. Dr. Kelly's graduate work enabled her to function as a school psychologist and eventually to

succeed Dr. Anderson as Director of Special Services in 1942. Dr. Kelly retired from Newark as Assistant Superintendent of Schools in 1963, and continued her professional interests in several universities until her retirement in 1970.<sup>21</sup>

Among Dr. Kelly's contributions is the rapid growth in the number and kinds of special services offered by the Newark public schools under her direction. She is credited, by Anne Hoppock, with planting the idea for the first meeting of teachers of the handicapped, which grew into a large and powerful organization known as the Conference on the Handicapped. Dr. Maurice Kott described Dr. Kelly as a ". . . very fine, knowledgeable person with a sense of mission and purpose, plus the technology." Dr. Kelly was instrumental in drafting the legislation which mandated an appropriate education for the mentally retarded and physically handicapped in 1954. She worked with Dr. Elizabeth Boggs in coordinating the efforts of the Conference on the Handicapped and the New Jersey Association for Retarded Children, and thereby aided the growth of both organizations. Dr. Kelly was named 16

---

<sup>21</sup>Personal interview with Dr. Elizabeth Kelly, August, 1977.

times in interviews as one of the most influential individuals in the development and growth of Special Education in New Jersey.

Edythe Knipe - As an auxillary teacher just beginning a teaching career, Mrs. Knipe was assigned to teach a class of mentally retarded boys. She continued her graduate studies with Dr. Marion Little at Glassboro State Teachers College in 1950, after being appointed as Helping Teacher in Gloucester County. In this role she was helpful to Dr. Jochem in completing the statewide survey which was done in preparation for the 1954 Beadleston legislation. The new Director of Special Education, Dr. Boyd Nelson, visited Gloucester County in 1954, and was dismayed by the lack of facilities for the handicapped. He appointed Mrs. Knipe as Child Study Supervisor to cover six counties from Camden to Cape May. Mrs. Knipe was one of the first four Child Study Supervisors who handled the rapid expansion of programs for the handicapped after the 1954 mandate and supervised one of the four regions in the State.

After completing her doctorate in Special Education in 1960, Dr. Knipe served as Director of Childrens' Sea Shore House from 1962 until the late 1960's when she became principal of an elementary school in Willingboro.

From 1970 until her retirement in 1976, she was the school psychologist for Bancroft School, a school for the handicapped in Haddonfield, New Jersey. Dr. Knipe was also an active member of the Commissioner of Education's Commission on the Education of the Handicapped in 1965 and aided in drawing up the recommendations which served as a basis for the 1966 legislation which revised all previous legislation dealing with the education of the handicapped.<sup>22</sup>

Maurice Kott - From the late 1940's until 1953, Dr. Kott was a clinical psychologist in a traveling clinic which was supported by the State. He was accompanied by a psychiatrist and a social worker in the bus-like clinic which followed a prearranged route to Somerville, Hackettstown, Trenton, and Camden, among other cities. The children referred to the mobile clinic were those whose personality problems were beyond the skills of the local school psychologists.

In 1953, Dr. Kott became the chief psychologist for the State of New Jersey, and was assigned to the Division of Mental Retardation in the Department of Institutions and Agencies. Presently he is Director of

---

<sup>22</sup>Personal interview with Dr. Edythe Knipe, April, 1977.

that Division. As a member of the Conference on the Handicapped in the mid 1940's and the Commission on the Education of the Handicapped in 1964, Dr. Kott's contributions to the development of Special Education span a period of more than 30 years.<sup>23</sup>

Elizabeth Boggs - After receiving a degree in Mathematical Chemistry, Elizabeth Boggs retired from her chosen profession at the birth of a profoundly retarded son in 1945. She devoted her time to investigating opportunities for training of the mentally handicapped, and as a citizen became concerned about the lack of facilities for the handicapped. Mrs. Boggs returned to college to learn all she could about mental retardation. The only college in the area in the late 1940's which emphasized courses for the handicapped was Newark State College, and on that campus Mrs. Boggs became a student and friend of Dr. Elizabeth Kelly.

Dr. Boggs served as Education Chairman of the New Jersey Association of Retarded Children and set up classes for trainable children. She was instrumental in organizing the National Association of Retarded Children and aided in writing its constitution. She was

---

<sup>23</sup>Personal interview with Dr. Maurice Kott, July, 1977.

a member of the first Board of Directors and later served successively as Chairman of the Committee on Organization and Standards, Education Chairman, Vice President and President. After her term as President she served as Chairman of Governmental Affairs.

Dr. Boggs' contributions to the development of education for the handicapped in New Jersey are numerous. She supported and helped to draft the Shannon Bill (A414) which advocated public school education for the handicapped. She was ". . . of great help. . ." <sup>24</sup> to Senator Beadleston in all facets of his work for the education of the handicapped. In 1964 she organized and led the still active Inter-Agency for the Handicapped as a means of urging legislators to carry out the recommendations of the 1964 Commissioner of Education's Commission of the Education of the Handicapped of which she was also a member. Dr. Boggs, as a member of both the Conference on the Handicapped and the New Jersey Association for Retarded Children served unofficially as a liaison between the two organizations and was instrumental in uniting these groups in support of specific legislation.

---

<sup>24</sup>Personal interview with Senator Alfred Beadleston, June, 1976.

Her personal files which were made available to this writer contain memoranda, letters, documents and publications which reveal the extent of her knowledge and interests in all areas of Special Education. Comments from those individuals who named Dr. Boggs as a significant contributor to the field of Special Education reveal the impact she has had on the field:

. . . Without her there would be no Beadleston legislation.<sup>25</sup>

She organized parents' groups which pushed for legislation.<sup>26</sup>

She was adept at working with others and really did her research.<sup>27</sup>

. . . very significant in ARC movement.<sup>28</sup>

It wouldn't have happened without her.<sup>29</sup>

Of all the many achievements for which Dr. Boggs is credited, she herself is most proud of her work with the National Association for Retarded Children<sup>30</sup> and her

---

<sup>25</sup>Personal interview with Dr. Merrell Hollinshead, December, 1977.

<sup>26</sup>Personal interview with Elizabeth Dilks, August, 1977.

<sup>27</sup>Telephone interview with Dr. Frederick Raubinger, February, 1977.

<sup>28</sup>Personal interview with Dr. Maurice Kott, July, 1977.

<sup>29</sup>Telephone interview with Dr. Boyd Nelson, February, 1977.

<sup>30</sup>Personal interview with Dr. Elizabeth Boggs, February, 1977.

appointment to the President's Council on Mental Retardation. Her associates and many admirers in New Jersey who named Dr. Boggs as a major contributor to the development of Special Education recognize her primarily for her work with parents' groups and legislators on local and state levels.

Edla Morton - In the mid 1940's Mrs. Morton was a classroom teacher in Westfield, New Jersey. In a class of 30 children she identified five who were retarded. The school psychologist verified her diagnosis, but the district had no special class for the retarded so those who attended school remained in regular classes. Mrs. Morton moved to New York City in 1947 and accepted a position as a Special Education teacher. When she returned to New Jersey six years later she was one of a very few teachers with experience in teaching the mentally retarded in public school.

With the passage of the 1954 Beadleston legislation which mandated a public school education for the mentally retarded, Mrs. Morton was chosen to be one of the first four Supervisors of Child Study to function on the county level. She remained in that position in Monmouth County until her retirement in 1969.<sup>31</sup>

---

<sup>31</sup>Telephone interview with Edla Morton, March, 1977.

Boyd Nelson - Dr. Nelson does not remember ever being interested in any field of endeavor other than the education of the handicapped. He was a speech correctionist in 1937, and served at the New Jersey State School for the Deaf before he became Superintendent of Utah Schools for the Deaf and Blind. He returned to New Jersey in 1955, and was appointed as the first Director of Special Education where he served until his retirement in 1968.

His first responsibility in 1955 was the formation of a committee to study the needs of the Emotionally Disturbed and Socially Maladjusted, two of the handicaps which had not been covered in the 1954 survey. Dr. Nelson selected representatives from the Department of Education and from the Department of Institutions and Agencies. The committee was deemed necessary because with the passage of the 1954 legislation which allowed the mentally retarded and physically handicapped a public school education, ". . . everybody was going into classes for the retarded. . ."32

Ralph Brancle, Director of the Menlo Park Diagnostic Center, and Maurice Kott, Director of Mental Retardation for the Department of Institutions and Agencies

---

<sup>32</sup>Telephone conversation with Dr. Boyd Nelson, February, 1977.

collaborated with Dr. Nelson in drafting guidelines and standards for the 1959 legislation which advocated special classes for the emotionally disturbed and socially maladjusted. As an outgrowth of that collaboration the need for adequate diagnosis of handicaps to separate the retarded from the disturbed was evident, and to aid in this Dr. Nelson created the first Child Study Team in 1960. He recruited Dr. J. Kirk Seaton as Director of School Psychology, Dr. Robert Rowen as Director of School Social Work, Dr. George Boone as Director of Education of the Handicapped, and Dr. James Jan-Tausch as Director of Remedial Instruction. Under the direction of Dr. Nelson this first Team sought out the handicapped who were not attending school ". . . by going from door to door. . . ." <sup>33</sup> They trained the county and later the local Child Study Team members and shaped the role of the Child Study Team as it now functions. <sup>34</sup>

Dr. Seaton met with Boyd Nelson in an informal meeting before the passage of the 1959 legislation and before his appointment as Director of Psychology, and

---

<sup>33</sup>Personal interview with Dr. James Jan-Tausch, November, 1975.

<sup>34</sup>Telephone interview with Dr. Boyd Nelson, February, 1977.

watched while Dr. Nelson listed on a yellow lined pad, the categories of work such as social worker, psychologist, and created a name for a group that did not exist, learning disability specialist.<sup>35</sup> The list was based on Dr. Nelson's observations during the 1955 survey of emotionally disturbed and socially maladjusted. He translated his list of categories and areas to be diagnosed into the first Child Study Team.

Robert Rowen - As a school social worker after his graduation from college, Robert Rowen was aware of the needs of handicapped and deprived children. His concern grew in his next position with the Recreation Department in Madison, Wisconsin. In 1952, Mr. Rowen earned his Master's degree by developing and directing a settlement house. By 1955, he was doing probation and parole work for the State of Wisconsin. At the end of 1955 he completed his doctorate and moved to New Jersey where he was recruited as Director of School Social Work by Boyd Nelson. He served in this position until 1966. Presently Dr. Rowen is an Associate Professor at the University of Tennessee.

Dr. Rowen remembers the function of the first

---

<sup>35</sup> Personal interview with Dr. Kirk Seaton, July, 1976.

Team on state level as ". . . trouble shooting. . .," not as concern for the individual child. Dr. Rowen also served as Assistant Director of Special Education in addition to his other duties.<sup>36</sup>

Josephine Taylor - As a child in a boarding school Miss Taylor was punished by being sent to the section of the playground reserved for blind children. This experience was responsible for her very early and lasting decision to become a teacher of blind children. During and after her training as a psychologist, Miss Taylor worked as house mother in a nursery school for blind children. In the 1930's she developed a system of training itinerant teachers to work with blind pre-schoolers.

In 1942, Miss Taylor came to New Jersey to work for the Commission for the Blind with blind pre-schoolers and their parents. She remained in that post until 1967 when she returned to Washington, D. C. to become Director of Personnel Preparation for the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped in the Department of Health, Education and Welfare. While in New Jersey Miss Taylor served on the 1964 Commissioner of Education's Commission on the Education of the Handicapped and was active in the

---

<sup>36</sup>Telephone interview with Dr. Robert Rowen, July, 1977.

Conference on the Handicapped. She is remembered by her former associates for her many contributions to those two groups, but she is most proud of her efforts toward legislation which allows for funded supplemental instruction of handicapped children.<sup>37</sup>

J. Kirk Seaton - Kirk Seaton was a teacher of Social Studies in Elizabeth, New Jersey in 1927, with no particular interest in Special Education. He ". . . inherited a Guidance program. . ." when Merrell Hollinshead left his position as Guidance Director in Elizabeth, so Mr. Seaton did graduate work in guidance and psychology. Special Education classes in Elizabeth were a part of the Guidance program and led Mr. Seaton to seek a doctorate in Psychology so that he would be able to function as Director of Guidance and Special Education, a position he held in Elizabeth until 1960. His interest in Special Education and the proximity to Newark, which was a leader in the state in the field of Special Education were factors in the rapid growth of the Elizabeth programs for the handicapped. Dr. Seaton was active in the Conference on the Handicapped and worked with Dr. Elizabeth Kelly, his counterpart in Newark, in the Conference.

---

<sup>37</sup> Personal interview with Josephine Taylor, August, 1977.

In 1960 Dr. Seaton was chosen by Dr. Boyd Nelson, to serve as Director of School Psychology on the first Child Study Team in the State. He held this position until 1966, and in this capacity Dr. Seaton was a member of the Commissioner of Education's Commission of the Education of the Handicapped. Dr. Seaton retired in 1968, two years after he left the State Department of Education, as Director of the Center for Psycho-Social Studies.<sup>38</sup>

Lenore Vaughn-Eames - Dr. Vaughn-Eames was Professor of English at Newark State College in the early 1930's. In that position she received many inquiries from parents and administrators about the availability of teachers to teach the handicapped in public and private schools. Because of these inquiries Dr. Vaughn-Eames became aware that the needs of handicapped children were not being met, partly because there were no trained teachers to work with these children. She was instrumental in setting up a program at Newark State College to train teachers in working with the handicapped. Her particular interest was with the deaf and hard of hearing, but her association at Newark State College, which was a forerunner of training

---

<sup>38</sup>Personal interview with Dr. Kirk Seaton, July, 1977.

programs for teachers of the handicapped, gave her access to the expertise of Elizabeth Kelly, George Gens, Vincentz Cianci, Kirk Seaton and James Jan-Tausch, all of whom were on the faculty of Newark State College.<sup>39,40</sup> The early Conference on the Handicapped, of which she was a member, furthered Dr. Vaughn-Eames' interest in Special Education. She was also a member of the Commission on the Education of the Handicapped in 1965.

The influence and persuasiveness of Dr. Vaughn-Eames was responsible for Dr. Jan-Tausch's acceptance of the position as Director of Remedial Instruction.<sup>41</sup>

#### General Contributors<sup>42</sup>

Significant contributions were made by countless individuals at all levels. Others remembered by the interviewees include:

Henry Goddard, who translated the Binet Intelligence

---

<sup>39</sup>Personal interview with Dr. George Gens, June, 1977.

<sup>40</sup>Personal interview with Dr. James Jan-Tausch, November, 1975.

<sup>41</sup>Personal interview with Dr. Lenore Vaughn-Eames, March, 1977.

<sup>42</sup>The contributors in the following section were referred by at least one of the interviewees.

Test in 1904, and J. Wallace Wallin, who worked with Goddard in drafting the permissive legislation in 1911, which allowed school districts to accept deaf, blind and educationally handicapped children. Goddard and Wallin both served at the Vineland Training School in the first decade of the twentieth century.

Edgar Doll, whose Vineland Test of Social Maturity is still used as part of a Child Study Team Battery was also influential in drawing attention to the needs of the mentally retarded in his position as successor to Goddard at the Vineland Training School.

Samuel Kirk, Helmer Myklebust, and William Cruickshank were named as contributors through their research into causes and kinds of learning problems.

Dr. Harry Bice was active in the 1965 Commission on the Education of the Handicapped, and collaborated with William Cruickshank in a study of cerebral palsy. Dr. Bice worked with Lloyd Yepsen of Institutions and Agencies in 1946. The Vineland Crippled Children's Commission insisted that each child seen by a medical doctor must also be evaluated by a psychologist. Dr. Bice was employed by the Commission for the purpose.<sup>43</sup>

---

<sup>43</sup>Personal interview with Dr. Harry Bice, March, 1977.

Dr. Fitzhugh Boggs was referred as a leader in Special Education because of his interest in the New Jersey Association for Retarded Children. He and his wife, Elizabeth Boggs, were active in the organization and growth of parents' groups after the birth of their retarded son in 1945.

Richard Byham is the present Supervisor of School Psychology for Region III Child Study Team. Mr. Byham began his career as a classroom teacher in Mount Holly in 1952. He was the first elementary Guidance Director in Burlington County in 1954, and in that position became interested in the needs of handicapped children. He worked with Mary Symonds and Charlotte Graisbury on the County Team through the 1950's and 1960's as they implemented the new Beadleston laws.<sup>44, 45</sup>

Orlando Campesi is presently functioning as Supervisor of Child Study in Bergen County. His interest in handicapped children resulted from the birth of a retarded sister. Mr. Campesi began teaching in a parochial school immediately after graduating from high school, and was encouraged by the principal to continue

---

<sup>44</sup> Personal interview with Richard Byham, July, 1977.

<sup>45</sup> Personal interview with Mary Symonds, July, 1977.

his education in the field of Special Education. At the time of the interview with Mr. Campesi he had recently succeeded John Mangan who retired in the spring of 1977 after serving at county and state levels for many years.<sup>46</sup>

Dr. Joseph Clayton was appointed Deputy Commissioner of Education, a position created by the 1959 Beadleston legislation. He worked with Beadleston and others to develop and implement the new laws. Dr. Clayton contributed to the political process, and to the interpretation of the political process.<sup>47</sup> He is remembered for his insistence on the hiring of ". . . quality people. . .".<sup>48</sup>

Eleanor Englebrecht is presently a State Consultant in School Social Work, and Coordinator of Non-Public School Eligibility, a position which she has held since 1969. After working as a psychiatric social worker, Miss Englebrecht was assigned in 1964 to one of the earliest County Teams with Edla Morton and Margaret Whiting. Monmouth County had only three social workers

---

<sup>46</sup> Personal interview with Orlando Campesi, April, 1977.

<sup>47</sup> Personal interview with Dr. Maurice Kott, July, 1977.

<sup>48</sup> Telephone interview with Dr. Boyd Nelson, February, 1977.

and a few psychologists so the county team members filled in as needed, and served as demonstrators when new Teams were added in local districts.<sup>49</sup>

Professor Roland Esbjornsen began his teaching career in Massachusetts in 1922. In 1929 he was hired to the faculty of Glassboro State Teachers college where he became Chairman of the Physical Education Department and served in that position until his retirement in 1955. Professor Esbjornsen worked with Dr. Marion Little in the establishment of classes in a clinic situation which led to the formation of one of the first classes for the orthopedically handicapped in the State. The class and the organization which sponsored it are discussed in Chapter V.<sup>50</sup>

Charlotte Graisbury was a member of one of the first County Teams and was instrumental in the formation of a class for the Communications Handicapped in Burlington County in 1956. Miss Graisbury was a teacher, a remedial instructor and one of the first Learning Disability Specialists.<sup>51</sup>

---

<sup>49</sup>Personal interview with Eleanor Englebrecht, March, 1977.

<sup>50</sup>Telephone interview with Professor Roland Esbjornsen, February, 1976.

<sup>51</sup>Personal interview with Mary Symonds, July, 1977.

Dr. Marietta Gruenert became interested in working with children with cerebral palsy from a medical viewpoint during her training as a pre-med. student. To further this interest she took electives in education at New York University where Dr. Elizabeth Kelly was one of her professors in 1951. Dr. Gruenert's interest in the education of the handicapped resulted in the establishment of a teacher training program at William Paterson College where she is now Professor of Special Education. For the past 15 years Dr. Gruenert has spent summers at the University of Nova Scotia conducting classes and organizing programs for the education of the handicapped. Her interest has resulted in vocational training for the handicapped in several areas, and in training teachers and establishing programs of vocational training for the handicapped since 1970.<sup>52</sup>

Dr. Muriel Gardiner's original interest was in education and she completed her Master's degree in 1920 in education. Her interest continued after she completed her psychiatric training. She worked as a psychiatric consultant in Bucks County, Pennsylvania, until she read a newspaper article in 1959 which

---

<sup>52</sup>Personal interview with Dr. Marietta Gruenert, December, 1977.

described the new Office of Education in New Jersey. She telephoned Dr. Boyd Nelson and offered to share the Bucks County guidelines. This led to her appointment as New Jersey psychiatric consultant. In this role, Dr. Gardiner traveled anywhere in the State until she became the psychiatrist on the combined Gloucester and Salem County Child Study Teams. As a Team psychiatrist, Dr. Gardiner was unique because she insisted on seeing the child in the classroom situation, and she worked directly with the referring teacher before and after she met with the child. Dr. Gardiner retired in 1970.<sup>53</sup>

When Mrs. Sophie Ghagan began her teaching career she taught classes which nobody else wanted. Those were the "three years below normal" classes which were often a mixture of handicaps. In 1958 when classes for the handicapped were opened in Vineland public schools in compliance with the 1954 legislation, Mrs. Ghagan took an emergency supervisory position as Supervisor of Child Study. She was one of the first Supervisors of Child Study in the State, and continues to hold that position in Cumberland County. The number of

---

<sup>53</sup>Personal interview with Dr. Muriel Gardiner, July, 1977.

special classes and Child Study Teams has increased greatly since Mrs. Ghagan took that office.<sup>54</sup>

Dr. Archie Hay was Superintendent of Schools in Wykoff from 1944 to 1956, and in that position began a class for trainable children in 1954 in accordance with the Beadleston law. In 1956, as County Superintendent of Bergen County, Dr. Hay found he was giving an inordinate amount of time to Special Education to meet the State's requirements. Between 1956 and 1963 the number of special classes increased in Bergen County from 14 to 330. His interest in Special Education grew through exposure to it. By 1963 local superintendents were having trouble in placing certain students in appropriate classes and met with Dr. Hay in Round Table to coordinate placement and transportation. This was the beginning of the Special Services School Districts. Dr. Hay did a survey and found approximately 145 students in the county with unusual disabilities who were not being served by public schools. He proposed the adoption of a County Board to provide centralized facilities for low incident handicaps.<sup>55, 56</sup> The idea became

---

<sup>54</sup> Personal interview with Sophie Ghagan, Fall, 1977.

<sup>55</sup> Personal interview with Dr. Archie Hay, December, 1977.

<sup>56</sup> Personal interview with Orlando Campesi, April, 1977.

popular because of the cooperation and support of local superintendents. Three other counties have since followed the lead of Bergen County and now educate children with unusual handicaps in County Special Services Districts in Cape May, Burlington, and Mercer Counties.

Merrell Hollinshead believes he ". . . drifted into Special Education." The depression was responsible for his firing as a Psychology Instructor at the University of Pittsburgh. From 1929 to 1932 he worked with delinquents in the Massachusetts Prison Colony and took Correction Officer courses at New York University. The Department chairman arranged for Dr. Hollinshead to become school psychologist in Elizabeth, New Jersey in 1936. A local judge had been ". . . giving them hell about so many delinquents and school dropouts. . ." <sup>57</sup> Dr. Lloyd Yepsen of the Department of Institutions and Agencies suggested to Elizabeth school administrators that they should have a school psychologist to work on the delinquency and drop out problems. By 1938, Dr. Hollinshead was Supervisor of Special Services in Elizabeth and supervised school nurses, speech therapists and special classes for the deaf, blind, crippled

---

<sup>57</sup> Personal interview with Dr. Merrell Hollinshead, December, 1977.

and mentally retarded. In 1940 when Dr. Elizabeth Kelly became a principal in Newark, she offered her former position as school psychologist to Dr. Hollinshead, and this led in 1960 to the title and duties of Director of Child Guidance and Special Education, which was the position he held until his first retirement in 1968. Between his first retirement and his second retirement in 1972, Dr. Hollinshead served as Professor Emeritus of Educational Psychology at New York University.

Dr. Russell Layden was unable to find a job in public schools after completing his teacher training in 1954. He was hired by Dr. Lloyd Yepsen of the Department of Institutions and Agencies to teach at Lisbon State Colony. After one year he transferred to Vineland Training School and then to Bordentown Reformatory. In 1965 he became a member of the Commission on the Education of the Handicapped. Dr. Layden is presently Superintendent of the Bergen County Special Services School District which was the first district of its kind in the state.<sup>58</sup>

Dr. Marion Little, as a resident of Vineland was interested in the field of mental retardation as a very young girl. She graduated from teacher training in 1920,

---

<sup>58</sup>Telephone interview with Dr. Russell Layden, November, 1976.

and taught handwriting and did office work in Glassboro State Teachers College as part of her first job. When she retired in the late 1960's she was a Professor and School Psychologist for several local school districts. Her contributions to Special Education are discussed in Chapter V where she is mentioned as a founder of the Glassboro Clinical Reading Association. Although the organization was short-lived and confined to South New Jersey, it was of great significance in the development of a Team approach to diagnosis of learning problems.<sup>59</sup>

Dr. Daniel Ringelheim was a classroom teacher in East Orange, and a graduate student in clinical psychology from 1958 to 1964. He served for four years as a school psychologist, and in 1969 became Deputy Assistant Commissioner of Education for the Branch of Special Education and Pupil Personnel. Dr. Ringelheim is credited with the opening of all school records to parents in New Jersey, which has been a controversial issue in the past, but which now is written in federal legislation. As Deputy Commissioner, Dr. Ringelheim implemented the legislation concerning the education of the handicapped and wrote the Rules and Regulations in 1970 which clarified and implemented the Beadleston

---

<sup>59</sup>Personal interview with Dr. Marion Little, January, 1976.

Acts.<sup>60, 61</sup> He has been responsible for establishing the ". . . prestige of Special Education."<sup>62</sup> As Deputy Commissioner, Dr. Ringelheim devoted much attention to the area of Early Childhood Education, but legislation for educating three to five year olds was not passed. During his tenure in New Jersey all his other objectives were successful, including placing the handicapped in the "least restrictive environment," and the Resource Room concept.<sup>63</sup> At the time of his death in February, 1978, Dr. Ringelheim was writing the Rules and Regulations for P.L. 94:142, which he felt would be on the federal level very close to the New Jersey Rules and Regulations which he wrote several years ago. In 1976, he left New Jersey to accept the post of Director of Division of Assistance to States; Bureau of Education for the Handicapped; U. S. Office of Education; Department of Health, Education and Welfare in Washington, D.C.

Miss Mary Symonds began her career as a Registered Nurse, became an Operating Room Supervisor and

---

<sup>60</sup>Personal interview with Joseph Capella, September, 1977.

<sup>61</sup>Personal interview with Eleanor Englebrecht, March, 1977.

<sup>62</sup>Personal interview with Dr. Merrell Hollinshead, December, 1977.

<sup>63</sup>Personal interview with Dr. Daniel Ringelheim, August, 1977.

and later a Public Health Nurse. She became a school nurse in the days when nurses were used as school social workers.<sup>64</sup> Miss Symonds remembers that from the early 1920's nurses were doing social work including the social work of the public schools. By 1940 Miss Symonds was a Home and School Instructor and held this post until the legislation in the early 1950's necessitated the use of school social workers to locate students in need of special classes. In 1956, Miss Symonds was instrumental in setting up a class for trainables in the Beverly Road School in Burlington. After the legislation in 1959, Miss Symonds became Supervisor of School Social Work for Burlington, Hunterdon and Mercer Counties. She held this position until her retirement in 1968.<sup>65</sup>

As an undergraduate Lloyd Yepsen was persuaded by a psychology professor who recognized his ability, to major in psychology. The professor guaranteed Yepsen an internship at the Vineland Training School in New Jersey, under Dr. Edgar Doll. Yepsen stayed in Vineland for two years, until 1923, and then returned to Ohio

---

<sup>64</sup>Telephone interview with Dr. Robert Rowen, August, 1977.

<sup>65</sup>Personal interview with Mary Symonds, July, 1977.

State College to seek a Master's Degree under the same professor, Arthur Goddard, who had preceded Doll at Vineland. Following the completion of this degree, Yepsen returned to Vineland Training School in 1924 and stayed until 1929 when he traveled to Santiago, Chile to set up the first clinic and special classes for the handicapped in Chile's public schools. In 1930 Yepsen returned to Ohio State College and completed his Ph.D. under Goddard. This degree allowed him to accept a position as psychologist at Greystone Park Mental Hygiene Clinic, and enabled him to teach at New York University where he met Meta Anderson, Elizabeth Kelly, and others who were already active in New Jersey's education of the handicapped. From 1933 until 1952, Dr. Yepsen served as Director of Mental Deficiency for the Department of Institutions and Agencies. During this period he devoted much of his professional and leisure time to the cause of the many parents' groups, especially the New Jersey Parents' Group for Retarded Children, which later was known as the New Jersey Association for Retarded Children. He served as a volunteer counselor to this group and was instrumental in the growth of the organization. He was active in the Conference on the Handicapped, and aided in drafting guidelines for special classes, and legislation which mandated

education for the handicapped.<sup>66</sup>

In 1952, Dr. Lloyd Yepsen was appointed to the position of Superintendent of the New Lisbon School, and served in that capacity until his death in 1955. In the opinion of Mrs. Yepsen, her husband was most proud of his volunteer work with the parents' groups, and enjoyed this phase of his professional life more than any other.<sup>67</sup> Dr. Yepsen was a strong influence on the lives of several of the individuals mentioned as significant contributors to the development of Special Education in New Jersey, and was responsible in part for allowing these individuals to make contributions. Among those he hired are the names of Vincentz Cianci, Russell Layden, Merrell Hollinshead and Harry Bice.

### Organizations

In response to the question, "What organizations or groups have had a significant influence on Special Education?" the term "nameless parents' groups" or an equivalent term was used by 15 of the 50 interviewees.

On national, state and local levels there were

---

<sup>66</sup> Telephone interview with Vincentz Cianci, February, 1978.

<sup>67</sup> Telephone interview with Mrs. Lloyd Yepsen, February, 1978.

parents looking for help with their handicapped children.<sup>68</sup> If it were not for them (groups of parents) we would not have any Special Education in New Jersey.<sup>69</sup> Groups of parents were the prime movers who got to the legislators.<sup>70</sup> The many nameless parent groups were the critical variables.<sup>71</sup> It is hard to identify one group. In general, it was the parents of the handicapped.<sup>72</sup> They were unorganized and there were no special groups.<sup>73</sup> Groups of parents usually came to petition the Commissioner in clusters.<sup>74</sup>

The story of these parents' groups who gave such impetus to the growth of Special Education has been lost for all time because there are no names or written records to trace. In two cases the name of an involved

---

<sup>68</sup> Personal interview with Dr. Marion Bickley, October, 1977.

<sup>69</sup> Personal interview with Dr. Marietta Gruenert, December, 1977.

<sup>70</sup> Personal interview with Dr. Archie Hay, December, 1977.

<sup>71</sup> Personal interview with Dr. Daniel Ringelheim, August, 1977.

<sup>72</sup> Telephone interview with Dr. Robert Rowen, August, 1977.

<sup>73</sup> Personal interview with Carmine DeSopo, July, 1977.

<sup>74</sup> Telephone interview with Dr. Frederick Raubinger, August, 1977.

member was remembered, but further investigation determined there were no written records of the organizations. If there ever had been they had been long since passed on from one member to another, and misplaced or discarded when the organization disbanded. The consensus of opinion among those interviewed was that organizations were active only as long as there was a need for them. When they ". . . won their battles. . ." <sup>75</sup> and the legislation they wanted was passed the organization disbanded. Without written records there are no remaining traces of their contributions. Educators who were interviewed remember receiving requests from individual parents or small groups requesting help for their handicapped children. Some parents' groups whose handicapped children were refused admission or were unsuccessful in public schools held classes for these children in private homes or donated buildings. Dr. James Jan-Tausch offered an example of the import of parents.

A nameless parents' group set up Forum School in Passaic County and the parents of the emotionally disturbed (children) ran the school, so they went to Senator Grossi to get a law passed allowing public schools to send E.D. (emotionally disturbed) children to that school. In 1963 the law was permissive but the parents won the permission. <sup>76</sup>

---

<sup>75</sup> Personal interview with Dr. Daniel Ringelheim, August, 1977.

<sup>76</sup> Personal interview with Dr. James Jan-Tausch, November, 1975.

The effectiveness of another group, the New Jersey Parents' Group for Retarded Children, is discussed in Chapter V, as is the organization known as the Conference on the Handicapped which was named by 16 of the interviewees as an organization of significance in the early days of Special Education in New Jersey. The events leading to the formation of these groups, and their contributions are part of Chapter V.

Twenty-one interviewees credited the New Jersey Parents' Group for Retarded Children and Elizabeth Boggs as a significant force in the establishment of special classes and in gaining the cooperation of legislators. This group, now known as the Association for Retarded Citizens has available a 170 page unpublished history of the organization through the year 1969. This seems to be the only organization of its kind which accomplished its goals of education of the handicapped, and maintained its strength and numbers to continue its efforts in new directions. Other groups which were recognized by interviewees can be found in Appendix C.

#### Landmarks in Special Education in New Jersey

"What do you consider a notable landmark in the development of Special Education in New Jersey?" was the fourth question in each interview. To most of the

respondents the legislation mandating an appropriate diagnosis and education for handicapped children stands out as a landmark in bringing the field of Special Education to its present level of development.

Thirteen interviewees mentioned the 1954 legislation, popularly known as the Beadleston Act, which provided for the physically handicapped and mentally retarded in public schools. Twelve individuals did not specify any of the Acts sponsored by Beadleston, but regarded all legislation concerning public school education for the learning disabled as equally important. Eleven responses dealt only with the Team approach to diagnosis of handicaps, and to the establishment of the Child Study Team. This concept was part of the 1959 legislation, also sponsored by Alfred Beadleston.

Four people regarded the 1966 revision of all previous legislation dealing with the education of the handicapped as most significant in the development of Special Education.

Many other responses reflect the results of legislation. The Advisory Council to the Commissioner was permitted by legislation, as was the creation of the Department of Special Education and the Commissioner's Commission on the Education of the Handicapped. The Jochem survey was a reflection of the controversy

surrounding proposed legislation in 1953. Vocational programs for the handicapped were part of the law for almost five years before they became commonplace.<sup>77</sup>

Two replies mentioned Helping Teachers who were a part of the early public education scene, originally as a means of providing guidance and supervision for teachers in rural areas which did not support principals or superintendents for each school building. These Helping Teachers were in a position to evaluate the available facilities in comparison to the number of handicapped in each district.

The 1911 and 1918 legislation regarded by Senator Beadleston as landmarks are discussed in Chapter VI. Other events regarded as landmarks refer directly to legislation. Groups of individuals, the Association for Retarded Children, and the Conference on the Handicapped were influential in persuading law-makers to serve the needs of the handicapped. The rubella epidemic in the 1950's caused thousands of pre-school children to be handicapped by hearing defects by the time they went to school.<sup>78</sup> Public schools were unprepared for the influx of learning disabled children,

---

<sup>77</sup>Personal interview with Alfred Beadleston, June, 1976.

<sup>78</sup>Personal interview with Dr. Lenore Vaughn-Eames, March, 1977.

which led to emergency measures and, in part, to the subsequent interest in pre-school education for the handicapped which in the opinion of some will be mandated in the near future. "It will come."<sup>79</sup>

All responses to the fourth question concerned events except for two. Elizabeth Boggs was mentioned in connection with the Association for which she is most well known, and Dr. George Boone's response was "The landmark was a person, Alfred Beadleston."<sup>80</sup> No attempt was made to limit responses to one landmark in instances where interviewees felt that several events were equally important in the sequential series of developments. "There was no one landmark. Each one built on each of the previous ones."<sup>81</sup>

#### Location of Special Classes

In response to the fifth question, "Do you remember the location of the first special class you knew about?" fifteen informants remembered special classes in Newark, Elizabeth, Passaic, Haddonfield and Atlantic

---

<sup>79</sup>Personal interview with Dr. Daniel Ringelheim, August, 1977.

<sup>80</sup>Personal interview with Dr. George Boone, January, 1977.

<sup>81</sup>Personal interview with Joseph Capella, September, 1977.

City in the 1920's; two had heard of special classes for the mentally retarded and blind in Newark, Elizabeth and Paterson as early as 1911. Millville, Trenton and Montclair began classes for the retarded in the 1930's and Jersey City and Hawthorne in the 1940's. Three of the interviewees were instrumental in beginning classes for trainables in Mount Holly, Washington Township and Essex County before the 1954 legislation mandated such classes.

Eight individuals volunteered information about the mixture of handicaps in the early classes. In the 1920's the classes were called Binet classes since the youngsters were placed there on the basis of their score on the Binet Intelligence Test. By the 1930's the name had been changed to Opportunity Classes, but the make-up of the class had not changed. These classes were intended primarily for educables, but there were trainables, emotionally disturbed, brain-injured, and many others who were three or more years behind normal.<sup>82</sup> The learning styles and educational needs typical of these handicaps differ, but the instruction was the same. Teachers interpreted these classes as

---

<sup>82</sup>Personal interviews with Berkey, DeSopo, Symonds, Cianci, Ghagan.

". . . can't teach any academics; just had to give them (students) something to do."<sup>83</sup> These classes actually created problems when the law was passed in 1954 because some who remembered the old Opportunity Classes refused to have their child placed in special class.<sup>84</sup> Students were placed in these early classes on the word of the teacher or principal until psychological evaluation could be scheduled. The waiting period could take two or three years because of the shortage of school psychologists, and in some areas when the waiting list grew too long, a group test, which was supposed to measure intellectual ability, was administered and the results used to determine the need for special placement.<sup>85</sup>

The law was ambiguous since it did not specify academically retarded or mentally retarded and diagnosis was difficult. There were too few psychologists and often they were hired on the basis of the number of Binet tests they could administer in one day. A few applicants could boast of eight tests completed

---

<sup>83</sup>Personal interview with Sophie Ghagan. October, 1976.

<sup>84</sup>Ibid.

<sup>85</sup>Personal interview with Joseph Capella, September, 1977.

each day, but at least five were expected.<sup>86</sup>

Until 1954 the law stated that a child should be ". . . three years behind to get in (into a special class), but he had to be caught up to get out. It was a life sentence."<sup>87</sup> There was no provision made in the law for determining when a child was "caught up".

Eleven of the interviewees knew of special classes in large cities housed in regular school buildings which offered opportunities for integration and mainstreaming in the 1930's.

Seventeen individuals told of classrooms for the handicapped in abandoned buildings, converted coal bins, basements, rented church school rooms, garages or firehouses. The descriptions of these rooms included ". . . not very nice. . ." <sup>88</sup> "some were terrible. . ." <sup>89</sup> ". . . deplorable." <sup>90</sup>

In Atlantic City classes for the handicapped in the 1920's were quartered on the first floor of a

---

<sup>86</sup>Personal interview with Caroline Kirschner and Dorothea Partch, November, 1977.

<sup>87</sup>Ibid.

<sup>88</sup>Personal interview with Margaret Whiting, July, 1977.

<sup>89</sup>Personal interview with Anne Hoppock, August, 1977.

<sup>90</sup>Telephone interview with Dr. Robert Rowen, July, 1977.

school building. Partitions were used to divide ordinary sized classrooms in half. Several of the divided rooms were denied heat by the partitions, and others without windows or ventilation were unpleasantly near the faulty plumbing in the boy's lavatory. Non-retarded students had much larger, evenly heated rooms with good ventilation on the second floor.<sup>91, 92</sup> This description is typical of the situations provided for the handicapped before standards were set by legislation.

The "Beadleston Act" passed in 1954 changed the criterion for special class placement, mandated a test of intellectual ability by a qualified school psychologist, and forced every school district to provide instruction for all mentally retarded, educables and trainables. It necessitated expansion and the creation of many additional classrooms. School districts, particularly in rural areas were unprepared and ". . . set up classes in firehouses - wherever they could find a room"<sup>93</sup> As late as 1977 some special

---

<sup>91</sup>Personal interview with Caroline Kirschner, November, 1977.

<sup>92</sup>Personal interview with Dr. Dorothea Partch, November, 1977.

<sup>93</sup>Personal interview with Vincentz Cianci, April, 1977.

classes were still in old abandoned schools, rented church rooms, and in some places in a trailer in the parking lot. Standards for the housing of these classes were part of the mandate.

The geographical location and nature of the earliest classes for the handicapped will never be accurately reported since many local schools in the first half of the century routinely segregated slower learners, behavior problems and chronic absentees without recording the "special class" or labeling these children as handicapped. Often the segregation of the difficult students was a matter of convenience for the teacher. There was no state certification for teachers of the special classes, and no state funding for handicapped students so no special records were needed. Documented proof of the special classes which did reach the state level may have been among the documents and files which were lost or misplaced when the newly formed branch of Special Education was moved into new quarters in 1960.<sup>94</sup> Among the materials that had been housed in the Division of Elementary Education office when Anne Hoppock was Director were her personal library and her records of the special classes from the

---

<sup>94</sup>Personal interview with Anne Hoppock, August, 1977.

days when all Special Education matters were part of her duties. These records are missing.<sup>95</sup>

### Trends in Special Education

Forty-six interviewees responded to the question, "Which of the newest trends in Special Education will be the most important?" Twenty-seven named mainstreaming or referred to Resource Room placement as a significant development in recent years. Of the 27, seven were retired, one each in the years 1963, 1966, 1967, 1969, 1972, 1976, indicating that mainstreaming has been an issue in Special Education for several years.

Under present legislation and common practice the child who has been classified by a Child Study Team as retarded or learning disabled is assigned to a small group of children with similar disabilities, to be taught by a teacher who has been trained to work with the atypical child and is certified by the State of New Jersey as a Special Education teacher. Within that small class each disabled learner's instructional program is individualized to accommodate his specific needs and handicap. The special child is segregated from his "normal" peers and spends his school day with children of like disabilities. The advantages of this arrangement

---

<sup>95</sup>Ibid.

are primarily within the area of academics. The handicapped child can develop each skill, and progress in each subject area at his own rate without competition. In the opinion of some educators the disadvantages are in social development. Handicapped children who are isolated from their more typical peers do not develop the social skills necessary to meet the demands of society which they will encounter when they leave the protective atmosphere of the school, and there is a stigma attached to special classes which often remains with the individual into his adult life.

Mainstreaming is the process of integrating special education students into regular, age-level appropriate classrooms for some part of each school day. The proponents of mainstreaming claim that this integration removes the stigma of the handicapped label, and permits the disabled child to learn from his normal peers. In theory mainstreaming further individualizes the handicapped child's instructional program by exposing him to grade-level appropriate instruction in areas where he is talented, or unhindered by his handicap. Mainstreaming may be limited to one or more non-academic areas or a scheduled number of periods per day or week in an academic class. The student is assigned to a self-contained class and enters the mainstream for

a pre-scheduled period of time at the discretion of the special class teacher or on the advice of the Child Study Team.

The concept of the Resource Room is an out-growth of the trend toward mainstreaming, and developed as an alternative to full time self-contained class placement or full time regular placement for the handicapped child, or the child who needs some supplemental instruction. The Resource Room is defined as "A school room used by a special education teacher to provide individual and small group instruction, assessment and guidance to pupils who come for short periods of time from regular classes for Special Education."<sup>96</sup>

Dr. James Richardson was responsible for writing guidelines for the Resource Room in 1974.<sup>97</sup> The number of students in the room at a given time is limited to four, with a total of 20 students per teacher and room. No child may spend more than a maximum of two hours each day in the Resource Room with the remainder of the day spent in regular classes.

A total of 12 respondents, including the seven

---

<sup>96</sup>Arthur Rainer, Resource Room Approach to Mainstreaming, Educational Improvement Center, Pitman New Jersey, Undated, p. 3.

<sup>97</sup>Interview with Dr. James Richardson, August, 1977.

retirees offered no strong opinion of the mainstreaming process. In general they agreed that mainstreaming is beneficial because it prepares handicapped children for their adult life when they must eventually be exposed to society, and mainstreaming handicapped children complies with the trend toward "least restrictive environment" which is written into the federal legislation, P.L. 94:142, passed in 1975. No beginning for the mainstreaming trend was determined but Dr. Hollinshead remembers that mainstreaming was common in Newark, and in other areas before it became a popular trend.<sup>98</sup>

Fifteen of the 27 who named mainstreaming were opposed to it either in theory or practice. All 15 who oppose it are still active in the field of Special Education. Their concerns range from a ". . .wait to see if it works" attitude to a strong and angry opposition of theory and practice; ". . .mainstreaming is a farce." Two of the 12 who favored mainstreaming and all of those who opposed it cited the unwillingness and lack of preparation of the regular class teacher to accept a handicapped child into a regular class. Opponents of mainstreaming question the validity of the

---

<sup>98</sup>Personal interview with Dr. Merrell Hollinshead, December, 1977.

socializing theory and the ability of a regular classroom teacher, who has not been trained to teach handicapped children, to individualize the instruction to accommodate the handicap without penalizing the other members of the class. The opponents of mainstreaming agreed that it is not used properly and ". . . school boards jump on it because it's cheaper, but there's not enough preparation"<sup>99</sup>

In addition to staff members' reluctance to deal with a handicapped child, a shortage of ancillary personnel ranked second in the misuses of mainstreaming. Child Study Team members are used primarily as diagnosticians and have little time to devote to classroom problems in most areas, and few regular classrooms have teacher aides.

Mainstreaming was named as a new trend in Special Education, but in 1960, Dr. Edythe Knipe's doctoral study found a significant difference in reading and arithmetic achievement, and between the means of social competence scores, in favor of the retarded students in special classes as opposed to the control group in the mainstream.

Six other responses related to the mainstream/

---

<sup>99</sup>Personal interview with Faye Holmes, Spring, 1977.

Resource Room controversy included the trend toward normalization. This was described as a trend toward ". . . bringing out as many normal traits as they (handicapped children) have. . .", and putting less emphasis on the handicap.<sup>100</sup> The proponents of normalization argue that there is ". . . too much structuring and categorization of students. . ."<sup>101</sup> and too much concern with labeling the handicap and placing students in the right kind of class. Others were concerned that the trend toward normalization and integration would rob handicapped children of the special help they need. "Normalization is oversold and overbought. It's beginning to convince people there is no such thing as mental retardation."<sup>102</sup>

The third major trend mentioned by six interviewees concerned federal legislation (P.L. 94:142) passed in 1975, which mandates ". . . a committee structure. . ."<sup>103</sup> comparable to the Child Study Team

---

<sup>100</sup>Personal interview with Dr. Edythe Knipe, Spring, 1977.

<sup>101</sup>Personal interview with Dr. Kirk Seaton, July, 1977.

<sup>102</sup>Personal interview with Dr. Norman Hafe-meister, April, 1977.

<sup>103</sup>Personal interview with Dr. Daniel Ringelheim, August, 1977.

in New Jersey and appropriate educational programs for the handicapped and learning disabled in every state. Daniel Ringelheim, who was influential in preparing Rules and Regulations to implement the 1966 revisions of all New Jersey legislation pertaining to Special Education, left New Jersey for Washington, D. C. in August, 1976, to perform similar duties on the federal level so that P.L. 94:142 would be in full effect by October, 1977.

Present concern in New Jersey is due to the necessity of revising State legislation to conform to the federal law.<sup>104</sup> The federal law has advantages in the form of available funding for special programs<sup>105</sup> and monies for training Special Education teachers.<sup>106</sup> It has produced concern, even alarm among some educators by giving parents access to all school records pertaining to their child. Child Study Team reports in the past have been held in strict confidence, excluding in some districts even the classroom teachers. Some Team members are concerned now that parents will

---

<sup>104</sup>Personal interview with Eleanor Englebrecht, March, 1977.

<sup>105</sup>Personal interview with Dr. Dominic Flamini April, 1977.

<sup>106</sup>Personal interview with Josephine Taylor, August, 1977.

read reports which include the child's I.Q., or place the home environment in an unfavorable light.

The new federal legislation also mandates the written notification of parents in the language of the home to inform them of their right to be involved in the education of the child, and to encourage the parents to participate in the educational planning which follows the evaluation and classification procedures.

There was no criticism of the "parents rights" by any of the five interviewees who named this as a new trend. In general, they were enthusiastic about the advantages of P.L. 94:142, including parents' rights. None of the five are presently employed on the local level where they would have any contact with the parents of handicapped children.

Two respondents named the trend toward regionalization as a significant factor in Special Education. In the late 1960's, the Superintendent of Bergen County, Dr. Archie Hay, devised a plan to provide appropriate educational facilities for the many children with low-incident type of handicaps, which could not be accommodated in local school districts. Dr. Hay wrote a proposal to organize a County Board of Special Services as:

a kind of public facility that is envisaged as having the capability of providing desperately needed services and programs to children with

unusual disabilities and severe handicaps. It can also be a major vehicle to fetch back into public sector services and programs being provided in private schools and centers operated by non-government organizations, associations, individuals, and parent groups.<sup>107</sup>

The County facilities were intended to expand the services available in local districts, and not to relieve local districts of the responsibility of educating all handicapped children. Local school districts continue to be responsible for identification, evaluation, classification and placement of handicapped children in keeping with the New Jersey Statutes. Local districts apply to the Board of Special Services on a sending-receiving basis when suitable programs are not available in the child's resident school district.

Dr. Russell Layden was appointed as Superintendent of the Bergen County Special Services School District which was the first of its kind in New Jersey.<sup>108</sup> Burlington County Special Services School District followed a few years later, organized and led by Carmine DeSopo, Superintendent.<sup>109</sup> Two other

---

<sup>107</sup> Archie Hay, County Boards of Special Services Bergen County Board of Education, March, 1971, p. 5.

<sup>108</sup> Telephone interview with Dr. Russell Layden, November, 1976.

<sup>109</sup> Personal interview with Carmine DeSopo, July, 1977.

counties, Cape May and Mercer have recently organized a Special Services District, and with federal monies becoming increasingly available for Special Education, other counties may soon follow.

The other trends each mentioned by a single individual were: vocational training for the handicapped, work-study programs, and the growth and development of Child Study Teams at local and county levels.

In the area of mental retardation, a trend toward maximal stimulation of the severe and profoundly retarded, and the working out of a life plan in group homes, in place of isolation in institutions (normalization) was regarded as a major trend by Maurice Kott and Herbert Kahn. Dr. Kott claims that public schools are now doing for the retarded what was previously done in institutions.<sup>110</sup> Presently public schools have no further responsibility when a retarded individual reaches the age of 20. Mr. Kahn, among others, believes that education must be continuing and the public schools must become involved in the life plan for all retarded individuals.<sup>111</sup> The trend toward providing for the

---

<sup>110</sup> Personal interview with Dr. Maurice Kott, July, 1977.

<sup>111</sup> Telephone interview with Herbert Kahn, November, 1977.

retarded adult while not yet in the scope of public schools, is seen in the increasing numbers of Sheltered Workshops and Occupational Training Centers, and was begun by the Association of Retarded Citizens (New Jersey Association for Retarded Children) in the early 1960's when they shifted their focus from securing public school admission for retarded children to workshops and sheltered employment for retarded adults.

#### Future of Child Study Team

Forty-two responses to the question, "What do you see as the future of the Child Study Team in New Jersey?" divided into five categories: additions to the present Team; changes in functions or in types of services provided by the Team; the need for an imposed ratio; and criticisms of present Teams.

Eight individuals suggested increasing the number of disciplines represented on present Teams. Speech therapists and audiologists should be included because the Learning Disability Specialist isn't a specialist in those areas in the opinion of Dr. Gens, who is himself a speech clinician. Dr. Gardiner, a retired psychiatrist, recommended the addition of a psychiatrist, the family physician, school nurse as full time members, and a consulting neurologist for each Team. Professor Sobolovitch

agreed to the addition of other professionals to the Team if it would be on a full time basis. He related "horror stories" regarding psychiatric consultants writing reports from the notes of a classroom teacher without ever seeing the autistic or emotionally disturbed child they are classifying.<sup>112</sup>

To Mrs. Holmes who deals with local school districts as a County Supervisor, the expectation of full time physicians, psychiatrists and neurologists on local Teams is not realistic or necessary if the school nurse is available to interpret medical or specialist reports.<sup>113</sup> Senator Beadleston disagrees and wants every Team to include a neurologist, and a school doctor trained as a pediatrician.<sup>114</sup>

The only areas of agreement were in the addition of the classroom teachers who work with the child daily and know his strengths and weaknesses, and in the participation of parents on the Team. Federal law (P.L. 94:142) requires the presence of parents at a Team staffing unless they forego the right to attend.

---

<sup>112</sup>Personal interview with Professor Serge Sobolovitch, July, 1977.

<sup>113</sup>Personal interview with Faye Holmes, October, 1977.

<sup>114</sup>Personal interview with Senator Beadleston, June, 1976.

An interesting suggestion from Carmine DeSopo, whose school population is vocationally oriented would welcome the addition of a prespective employer or a community representative at a Team staffing when a child's future is being discussed.<sup>115</sup>

Eight people agreed that in the future the Child Study Team must be available to all children. Teams should be taken out of Special Education and involved in the evaluation and total curriculum of every child. They must also be involved in preventive measures, early intervention, and Early Childhood Education in the opinion of four of those interviewees who favored a change in functions. Four others are eager to see gifted and talented children receive the services of the Child Study Team in the planning of an individualized program. The parent of a handicapped child would like to see two Teams in each district; one for Special Education Children, and one to deal with drug users, juvenile delinquents and the general population problems that presently consume much of the Team's time.

Seven interviewees were concerned that local Team members are presently confined to diagnosis and

---

<sup>115</sup>Personal interview with Carmine DeSopo, July, 1977.

paperwork, and have no time to focus on instruction and educational programs. These seven people want Team members to work directly with children and support teachers in the classroom. Two others want Team members involved in vocational programs so that vocational training can be emphasized early in the schooling of the handicapped child.

A major concern for the future in the opinion of six interviewees is the lack of a base level or population ratio. The passage of the State income tax in 1975 gave rise to the hope that added revenue would enable local districts to increase the number of specialists and a state ratio could be imposed.

"Present discrepancies in the State (in Child Study Team-population ratios) are incredible, and we must have a base level."<sup>116</sup> A ratio of 1500 students to one Team is the popular opinion for such a ratio. Individuals involved with Child Study Teams on local levels unanimously agree that the number of Teams must increase if Child Study Teams are to have time to do everything presently required, and more extensive training of its members is necessary if Teams are to become involved with normal, gifted, and pre-school children.

---

<sup>116</sup> Personal interview with Joseph Capella, September, 1977.

The majority of interviewees agreed that the basic Child Study Team has been a positive addition to the education of the handicapped and will continue to improve in quality and format, but five people offered the opposite view. Senator Beadleston feels that Child Study Teams try to be doctors, and should not intervene in medical problems.<sup>117</sup> Presently, many of the classifications of handicaps recognized by the State Department of Education involve a medical etiology. Dr. Maurice Kott claims that one individual can do as well (in diagnosing a handicap) as a full Team and this would save in time and money while improving the accuracy of diagnosis. The Team approach, in Dr. Kott's opinion, results in compromises especially if two members of the Team are both sure of their own positions and results.<sup>118</sup> Dr. Kelly believes the concept of the Team approach is very good, but she questions the credibility of the people on the Team, and doubts they can do what they are expected to do.<sup>119</sup>

Some anger and disappointment was evident in

---

<sup>117</sup>Personal interview with Senator Beadleston, June, 1976.

<sup>118</sup>Personal interview with Dr. Maurice Kott, August, 1977.

<sup>119</sup>Personal interview with Dr. Elizabeth Kelly, August, 1977.

responses which claim that the future of Child Study Teams is threatened by the lack of funds which limit services and qualified personnel. Two people question the attitude of administrators in trying to provide services for the handicapped at the least cost possible.

Six informants volunteered candid comments about the attitudes of Team members, specifically the psychologist. The comments are repeated verbatim without being assigned to a specific person to avoid prejudicing the current position of the interviewee:

Psychologists must change their attitude and become a part of the Team. The psychologist should interpret behavior, not just score tests.

The factionalism and differential in terms of training of all three members has all but disappeared. Each is now equal to the others.

Too many psychologists have no background in clinical psychology and no direct classroom contact with kids.

A lot of psychologists don't believe in Special Education. They are too far removed from the curriculum.

Newer psychologists don't know much and have never been in a classroom.

The psychologist's attitude must change. He doesn't run the ship. Each member is a specialist.

These opinions are understandable in view of the psychologist's role in the past. For many years only the psychologist was needed to determine a child's placement and future. His was the only recognized

profession among the present Team, for which appropriate training was available. Social workers were often school nurses and Learning Disability Specialists were classroom teachers with a new title and different responsibilities.

In summary, the forty-two individuals who responded to this question concerning the future of the Child Study Team in some part agreed that the Team must expand in numbers if they are to fulfill duties other than diagnosis. Additional professionals such as psychiatrists, neurologists, pediatricians and nurses should become active members of each Team, and as a Team they should focus less on diagnostic procedures and more on classroom instruction and educational procedures. Parents and teachers must participate in Team staffings and in planning for each child's education.

In the future Child Study Teams must be taken out of Special Education and made available to all students, especially the gifted or talented children to set up individualized programs for all students. Child Study Teams should intervene earlier to prevent certain learning problems before they reach the public schools and should work toward the pre-school and Early Childhood Education.

All Team members must learn to work as equals with equal expertise in their own discipline; and with a cohesiveness that will eliminate compromises in a child's educational program and future.

## CHAPTER V

### ORGANIZATIONS

Progress in any field often results from the efforts of groups of individuals with similar interests and concerns. The growth in the number and kinds of educational services provided for the handicapped in New Jersey since the early 1900's has been due to the concerted efforts of parents and professionals who devoted their time and talents to serving the needs of handicapped children throughout the state.

#### Conference on the Handicapped

In the mid 1940's, approximately fifteen hundred dollars in the budget of the State Department of Education was unspent near the end of the fiscal year. Additional funds for the coming year could not be requested if a surplus was discovered. The money was used to hire a much needed assistant in the understaffed Elementary Education Division. Among her other duties, Miss Anne Hoppock was to informally investigate the number and kinds of special education facilities in public schools as she traveled around the state. At this time there were very few classes for handicapped children in public schools, and even fewer materials

and teachers trained in dealing with children with learning problems. Those who worked with handicapped children depended almost totally on their own creativity for instructional aids and materials. A chance remark to that effect by a frustrated teacher led Miss Hoppock to arrange a meeting in her Trenton office for six or seven teachers of the handicapped. The purpose of the meeting was to give these educators opportunities to share their ideas and concerns. The meeting was so successful a second meeting was scheduled and participants were invited to bring an equally interested guest. Within a few months the number of interested professionals from a variety of disciplines grew to hundreds. At the first meeting Miss Hoppock labeled her notes Conference on the Handicapped, and thereby named what was to become one of the most influential forces in the state in the development of Special Education in New Jersey. In later documents and reports the name, Conference for the Handicapped, was used interchangeably with the original label, perhaps because no name was ever chosen by the group at large.<sup>1</sup>

The purposes of the organization developed as the organization expanded and eventually included the

---

<sup>1</sup>Personal interview of Anne Hoppock, Belvidere, New Jersey, August, 1977.

dissemination of information, formulation of legislation, education of legislators to the needs of the handicapped, setting standards and guidelines for special classes and services to the parents of the handicapped. To achieve its many goals, committees were formed to meet independently of the main group. A survey of the minutes of meetings of the organization disclosed reports from the following committees: Membership, Statewide Conference Planning, Standards, Standards for the Severely Retarded, Public Relations, Legislation, Publications and Certification of Teachers for the Handicapped.<sup>2</sup>

Among the many tangible contributions of the organization was a handbook prepared by members of the Public Relations Committee, published by the State Department of Education in 1947, and revised in 1958. The report, The Classroom Teacher Can Help the Handicapped Child<sup>3</sup> provided information about the problems associated with each of the disabilities that can be served in public school classrooms, the characteristics

---

<sup>2</sup>New Jersey Conference on the Handicapped, Unpublished minutes of meetings, October 5, February 2, 1954.

<sup>3</sup>The Classroom Teacher Can Help the Handicapped Child, Trenton, New Jersey: State Department of Education, 1947.

of the handicap, symptoms to aid in identification of the disability, methods and approaches which had been used with success in instructing children with each specific disability, and additional references for teachers.

A Directory of Special Services for Handicapped in New Jersey was published in 1951. The forward explains the organization:

The New Jersey State Conference on Handicapped is a group of people whose interests center about those individuals who are physically, mentally, or emotionally handicapped. It has representation from the State Department of Education, State Department of Institutions and Agencies, State Board of Child Welfare, Public School Systems, Special Schools, County Superintendents of Schools, Commission for the Blind, Crippled Children's Commission, The National Society for Crippled Children and Adults, State Mental Hygiene Clinics, New Jersey Tuberculosis League, New Jersey Congress of Parents and Teachers, State Department of Health, League for the Hard of Hearing and other interested organizations. The Conference, initiated by the State Department of Education, has grown during the past four to five years through the cooperative effort of these representative people who serve voluntarily in the interest of the handicapped. This Directory is the second bulletin published by the Conference. The first, entitled "The Classroom Teacher Can Help the Handicapped Child" was published in 1947 and distributed by the State Department of Education. The Conference functions through its various committees working in the fields of legislation, reading, standards, and public relations. It is this last mentioned committee that took as its task the publication of the Manual of Services for the Handicapped.<sup>4</sup>

---

<sup>4</sup>Directory of Special Services for Handicapped in New Jersey, Trenton, New Jersey: Conference on the Handicapped, 1951.

Members of the Legislations Committee of the Conference were instrumental in drafting the original legislation in 1954 which mandated the acceptance of the mentally retarded and physically handicapped in public schools.<sup>5</sup> The Director of Special Education for the State Department of Education issued this communique in June, 1954:

The New Jersey Conference on the Handicapped is in the process of preparing standards in areas of special education. These will serve to assist the State Department of Education in developing rules, regulations and recommendations for the administration of special services throughout the State...

The Second Annual Institute of the New Jersey State Conference on the Handicapped was held at Rutgers University in March, 1954. The morning session was devoted to a report by Dr. Charles Jochem, Superintendent of the New Jersey State School for the Deaf. Dr. Jochem had earlier been commissioned by Governor Driscoll to survey the state to determine the needs of the handicapped and the available facilities throughout the state. His report later served as a basis for legislative actions. Participants in the panel discussion which followed Jochem's report illustrated the diverse backgrounds of the Conference members:

---

<sup>5</sup>Personal Interview with Dr. Elizabeth Kelly, Washington, Connecticut, August, 1977.

Roland Esbjornsen, Professor of Education,  
Chairman of Physical Education  
State Teachers College, Glassboro

George Gens, Chairman of Curriculum for  
Training Teachers for the Handicapped  
State Teachers College, Newark

Charles Jochem, Superintendent  
State School for the Deaf, Trenton

Elizabeth Kelly, Director of Special Services  
Board of Education, Newark

Anne S. Hoppock, Assistant in Elementary  
Education  
State Department of Education, Trenton

Guy Marchisio, Councilor  
New Jersey State Commission for the Blind

Sanford Bates, Commissioner  
Department of Institutions and Agencies

George Boone, Chairman  
New Jersey Conference for the Handicapped

Discussion leaders for the afternoon session of the same program included teachers of the mentally handicapped, school psychologists, a county superintendent, a librarian, an education consultant for the State School for the Deaf, the Director of the Hoffheimer Speech and Hearing Clinic and administrators of Special Services from all over the state. Their topics included: Hard of Hearing and Deaf; The Gifted Child; The Severely Retarded Child; and The Educable Retarded Child. Sample programs from subsequent years up to the Tenth Annual Institute in 1962 indicated that the

organization maintained its policies of multi-discipline approach and cooperation with far-reaching results. The Exchange,<sup>6</sup> published by the Office of Special Education credited the Conference with stimulating interest in the preparation and enactment of the legislation providing for the education of the physically handicapped and mentally retarded, and for directing interest to the area of the emotionally maladjusted.

By the middle of the 1960's the work of the Conference seemed to be complete and the organization disbanded. Many changes in Special Education had taken place since its inception. Legislation mandating an education for every child was being enforced and Special Education programs were being funded by the State. Those who chose to work with the handicapped found appropriate training in a number of colleges throughout the state. Information about the handicapped, and instructional aids and materials designed for the handicapped were becoming plentiful. A Bureau of Special Education and Pupil Personnel Services had been established within the State Department of Education, and a Director of Special Education had been appointed. The members of the Conference on the Handicapped, which began with a

---

<sup>6</sup>The Exchange. Office of Special Education Newsletter, Vol. 5, No. 2, Sept. 1960, p. 1.

small number of interested teachers, were instrumental in effecting many of those changes.

#### New Jersey Association for Retarded Children

The national organization presently known as the Association for Retarded Citizens began in Teaneck, New Jersey in 1946, when the mother of a nine year old retarded boy wrote a letter for publication in the local newspaper. Her letter invited other parents of retarded children to "...get together and form what may well prove to be the first chapter in a nationwide organization."<sup>7</sup> This open letter followed several years of frustration for Mrs. Laura Blossfield, during which she had tried in vain to find a nursery school that would accept her hyperactive, retarded son, or a residential school near enough to permit weekend visits.

Response to her letter was rapid and two months later the first meeting of a small number of parents took place in the Blossfield home. At the first meeting the parents resolved to find professional help to work with them, and contacted Dr. Lloyd Yepsen, Director of the Division of Classification and Education in the State Department of Institutions and Agencies. While waiting for Dr. Yepsen's reply, another member of

---

<sup>7</sup>Bergen Evening Record, (Teaneck, New Jersey) October 12, 1946.

the group independently contacted Miss Vincentz Cianci, Supervisor of Home Training for the Department without knowing of Miss Cianci's professional association with Dr. Yepsen. Miss Cianci, as a member of Dr. Yepsen's division was serving as a teacher for retarded children who were unable to attend public schools or find a placement in institutions. Dr. Yepsen and Miss Cianci became volunteer professional counselors for the parents, and in the course of performing their duties for the State made other parents of handicapped children aware of the newly formed organization.<sup>8</sup> By October, 1947, the organization was named New Jersey Parents' Group for Retarded Children, and was ready to elect officers and appoint committees. Judge Morris Dobrin of Fair Lawn, who had been the first to respond to Mrs. Blossfield's letter was elected president, and under his direction, attendance at the monthly meetings increased, and drew members from all over the state.<sup>9</sup>

In the summer of 1948, Henry W. Gould, Chairman of the Expansion Committee, whose goal was to develop a statewide organization, planned a meeting in Newark

---

<sup>8</sup> Personal interview with Vincentz Cianci, Trenton, New Jersey, July, 1977.

<sup>9</sup> Mrs. John R. Clark, A Study in Progress. Trenton, New Jersey: New Jersey Association of Retarded Children, 1969, p. 11.

for September 14, 1948. The two hundred parents who attended later formed the Essex County Unit of the NJARC. The following March, Mr. Gould, with the help of members of the Essex Unit arranged for the first statewide meeting which was held in Rutgers University. Dr. Yepsen, Miss Cianci, Irene Sheppard, and other representatives of the State Department were invited to participate. One hundred and thirty-five parents from fourteen counties met at Rutgers and made plans to call meetings and form units in their home counties.

The New Jersey Parents Group for Retarded Children was incorporated by the State of New Jersey in May, 1949. A State Council was organized and the first president, elected for 1950, was Lee Marino. The Council, which consisted of three representatives from each local unit was to provide general direction and leadership, although the chief activities were to be carried out by local units. In 1969, the State Council was replaced by a Board of Directors and a Delegate Assembly.

In April, 1953, the name of the state organization was changed to encourage participation by professionals and others interested in the welfare of the handicapped, and to conform with the name of the National Association for Retarded Children which had

been formed in 1950.<sup>10</sup>

The early leaders of the New Jersey Units evolved and categorized reasons for the formation of the organization.

Because of:

- Unmet needs of retarded children and problems of their parents;
- Lack of diagnostic facilities;
- Exclusion of these children from public school;
- Lack of adequate institutions;
- Lack of information concerning care, training, and treatment;

In order to:

- Educate parents to come out of their shells;
- Educate parents to share experiences and work together in solving their problems;
- Aid children in institutions, particularly those who are forgotten;<sup>11</sup>

By August of 1950, the NJARC had an estimated membership of 3000. In 1964, President Grace Barrand noted that by totaling the memberships of the local units, "...we would easily have 10,000 individuals who participated in one form or another."<sup>12</sup> The organization and the services it provided grew as "...concomitant developments. The purposes for organizing

---

<sup>10</sup>Personal interview with Dr. Elizabeth Boggs, Trenton, New Jersey, February, 1977.

<sup>11</sup>New Jersey Association for Retarded Citizens, New Brunswick, New Jersey, Unpublished History, p. 11.

<sup>12</sup>Ibid., p.21.

that moved the founders to action were needs demanding immediate attention. There was no time to postpone vital services until complete organization could be achieved."<sup>13</sup>

Services provided by the various units and committees covered a wide range: publications, holiday gift bags for institutionalized children, monies for projects, equipment and classrooms in institutions, establishment of comprehensive diagnostic and guidance clinics, and group counseling for the parents of the handicapped.<sup>14</sup>

The most far-reaching service of this organization began in Ridgewood in 1948 with the establishment of a class for trainable retarded children, which was supervised by Dr. Yepsen and Miss Cianci. The success of this first class prompted other units to begin similar programs in other areas. These classes proved that retarded children could benefit from training and publicity about these classes made communities aware that retarded children could be helped. Much of the success of the classes was due to the efforts of Elizabeth Boggs who became Education Chairman for the State Council, and later for the National Association.

---

<sup>13</sup>Ibid., p. 17.

<sup>14</sup>Clark, op. cit., p. 20.

The Plan of Operation set up by Dr. Boggs and her committee for the first few classes is very similar to the plan released five years later by the State Department of Education. The original plan by Dr. Boggs suggested:

no more than eight children per teacher;  
teachers with permanent certification,  
several years experience, and a willingness  
to serve an internship at a State Training  
School;  
no more than a four year range in chronological  
ages of students in a class;  
diagnosis by a Guidance Clinic to insure ade-  
quate physical and mental ability to benefit from  
the program;  
immunization against communicable disease;<sup>15</sup>

The plan also covered school year, hours,  
transportation, teachers' salary, program, curriculum,  
physical plant, supervision, and reports to parents.  
The objective of these classes was "To demonstrate the  
practicability of educating mentally retarded children,  
and development of a program that will be beneficial  
and practical."<sup>16</sup>

During Mrs. Boggs' tenure as Education Chair-  
man for the NJARC State Council, the Education Committee  
submitted a report to the State Commission to Study the  
Problems and Needs of Mentally Deficient Persons.

---

<sup>15</sup>Elizabeth Boggs, "A Plan of Operation."  
Unpublished, July, 1950.

<sup>16</sup>Ibid.

This report entitled For Every Child A Fair Chance<sup>17</sup> proposed revision of the existing school laws, administrative changes in the State Department of Education, and state aid for programs for the handicapped. It was a comprehensive summary of all legislation pertaining to education for the handicapped, and suggestions for changes and revisions needed. The suggested revisions included setting standards for the education of the handicapped and changing the "three years below normal" previously used as a criteria for classification.<sup>18</sup> Another suggestion involved expanding the definition of "handicapped children" to mean, not only the physically and mentally handicapped children but also "...any child suffering from physical, motor, sensory, intellectual, neurological, pathological, articulatory, perceptual or emotional disabilities or abnormalities, or any combination there."<sup>19</sup> A proposed change in the report that was to become of great

---

<sup>17</sup>For Every Child a Fair Chance. A report with Recommendations on the Public Education and Training of Mentally Retarded Children in the State of New Jersey. Submitted to: State Commission to Study the Problems and Needs of Mentally Deficient Persons. Education Committee, State Council New Jersey Parents Group for Retarded Children, December, 1951.

<sup>18</sup>Ibid., p. 3.

<sup>19</sup>Ibid., p. 5.

importance to the education of the handicapped indicated:

We strongly advocate the establishment by law (amending R.S. 18:3-2) within the State Department of Education of a Division of Special Education, headed by an Assistant Commissioner.<sup>20</sup>

On September 12, 1953, Mrs. Boggs released a five page Report of Activities, 1950-1953, in which a meeting with the State Commission to Study the Problems and Needs of Mentally Deficient Persons was discussed. The parents and members of the NJARC Education Committee presented their philosophy and wishes to the Commission and the need was felt for "... a detailed and self consistent report...with explicit suggestions in the present law"<sup>21</sup> For Every Child a Fair Chance is the tangible result of that felt need.

In the same report, Mrs. Boggs informed the general membership about her efforts to enlist the aid of the Steering Committee of the New Jersey Conference on the Handicapped, of which she was also a member, in drafting a bill to be introduced into the 1953 Legislature by John R. Shannon, Chairman of the Education Committee of the Assembly. The Shannon Bill

---

<sup>20</sup>Ibid., p. 1.

<sup>21</sup>Elizabeth Boggs, Report of Activities, 1950-1953, New Jersey Association for Retarded Children, Unpublished, September, 1953, p. 1.

was one of many examples of cooperation between the NJARC which was composed primarily of parents of handicapped children, and the members of the Conference on the Handicapped, a group "...which incorporates the most experienced professionals in the field of special education in New Jersey..."<sup>22</sup>

Other early committees of the NJARC were equally active establishing pre-school classes for trainable children, Day Care Centers for the severely and profoundly retarded who were not eligible for special education programs, Activity Centers and independent living programs for retarded adults, and recreation facilities for the retarded including camping, scouting, swimming, social affairs and holiday parties for the retarded and their families. These committees, which are not directly concerned with public school education for the retarded, have assumed an even greater importance since public schools have assumed the responsibility of providing education for all handicapped children.

In recent years the Association has shifted much of its emphasis to sheltered workshops which provide a "...work oriented environment in which evaluations and

---

<sup>22</sup>Ibid., p. 2.

training can take place...and...long term sheltered employment to persons capable of doing productive work of economic value but not at the pace required in competitive industry."<sup>23</sup>

In personal interviews with individuals who were in some way associated with this organization in its early years and who have followed its progress through the years, the following comments were recorded:

...still one of the best in country in support of legislation;

...overcame reluctance of the education establishment regarding the trainable group in school;

...effective in case finding. Parents were encouraged to bring their children out from under the back porch. They (ARC) moved their time and money to adult retardation when schools accepted retarded children.

...parents were prime movers...got to legislators;...not much for them to do now, they have achieved their objectives;

...made biggest contribution; originated many of the present developments;

...all but stopped when services increased sufficiently to satisfy the needs of their child;

...their goals now merely supplement and support school programs

---

<sup>23</sup>Clark, op. cit., p. 23.

## Association of Brain-Injured Children

The birth of a son in 1953 to Philip and Ann Berkley in New York was an important factor in the establishment and growth of what became part of a national organization. At the age of 3, Steve Berkley was diagnosed by New York doctors as having "mild brain damage," and his parents were warned that he would function as if mentally retarded.<sup>24</sup> The family moved to Paramus, New Jersey in 1957 to take advantage of "special schools...and the right neighborhood"<sup>25</sup> After a successful year in public school kindergarten, Steven was placed in a class for the retarded on the recommendation of only the school psychologist. His parents believe that this was a babysitting class with a mixture of retarded, brain-injured, and emotionally disturbed children with a teacher who was not qualified. After two years in that class the doctors who had originally diagnosed Steve's condition and cared for him for several years claimed he had regressed and was also having emotional problems. His mother, in an effort to find out why Steve hated school, went to observe the class. She found a chaotic situation with materials

---

<sup>24</sup>Personal communication from Mr. and Mrs. Philip Berkley, December, 1977.

<sup>25</sup>Ibid.

and equipment being thrown across the room, children crying and fighting and a teacher who seemed to have lost all control. Mrs. Berkley's surprise visit found the teacher outside the room smoking a cigarette and ignoring the chaos in the room.

The Berkleys enlisted the aid of other parents and requested the separation of the behavior problems from the handicapped children in Steve's classroom. They remember the educators as uncooperative and resentful of the parents' interference, but there were no alternatives open to the parents except to send their handicapped children to that class in that school.

After inviting parents of Steve's classmates to meet with them and with the support of three other couples, the Berkleys put an advertisement in the newspaper to invite other interested and concerned parents of brain-injured children to join them. There was "unbelievable interest" and many people attended the first meeting held at a local church which had been donated for the occasion. The name New Jersey Association for Brain-Injured Children was chosen in 1958, and goals for the organization agreed upon. The primary and immediate goal was to get classes in the public school for these children. The parents agreed

that existing schools were not adequately equipped and "...teachers were not qualified or properly trained."<sup>26</sup>

The members of the new organization prepared themselves to achieve their goals by reading all they could find and sharing among themselves all available information about brain damage. They used personal finances to pay knowledgeable professionals, such as Barbara Bateman, to speak at their meetings, and at their own expense they traveled to conferences and seminars all over the country, and visited clinics such as the Doman-Delacato Institute. Information acquired by any member was shared with all at the next meeting of the organization. In spite of many invitations the principal and teachers refused to attend these evening meetings, so the parents arranged for tape recordings of the lectures to be made available so that local educators could benefit from the meetings without being inconvenienced. When the tapes were not requested by the teachers the parents hand carried them or had them sent to the school addressed to the special class teachers.

With the hope of getting legislative support, members of the organization wrote to their representatives and met with them in Trenton, but in spite of all

---

<sup>26</sup>Ibid.

efforts the Berkleys feel they "...failed miserably in getting the kids into the public schools."<sup>27</sup>

A chance meeting with a new neighbor allowed the Berkleys an unexpected opportunity to reach local educators. They cultivated the friendship of the new neighbor and won his support of their cause. As the new principal of the local school, the new friend of the parents was soon able to convince his teachers to participate in the meetings of the organization, and to cooperate with the parents in their efforts to improve the program of the handicapped children. Exposure to the parents' problems and active membership in the organization soon aroused a real interest among educators, which eliminated the hostility of the parents and promoted a mutual understanding. With the added interest and strength of the professionals the organization grew and spread to other counties, and eventually was chartered by the State of New Jersey. During these years of early growth Mrs. Berkley functioned as secretary of the organization. Her records were passed on to her successors and over the years have been misplaced.

On April 6, 1963, representatives of the organization known as the Association for Brain-

---

<sup>27</sup>Ibid.

Injured Children met in Chicago with members of 14 similar organizations at a symposium sponsored by the Fund for Perceptually Handicapped Children of Evanston, Illinois. The purpose was to "...obtain information, share ideas and open channels of communication with all groups who are interested in the perceptually handicapped...and to move toward investigation of the child who has average, or above average intelligence, but is not learning."<sup>28</sup> Another purpose of the conference was the formation of a national association and the determination of a mutually acceptable name. Of the 15 organizations represented at the symposium, seven used the term "brain-injured" in their name. Represented at the symposium were:<sup>29</sup>

Alabama Foundation to Aid Aphasoid Children  
Minnesota Association for the Brain-Injured  
Children  
Milwaukee Society for Brain-Injured Children,  
Inc.  
Tulsa Education Foundation and Oklahoma Council  
for Children with Learning Disabilities, Inc.  
Fund for Perceptually Handicapped Children,  
Louisville, Kentucky.  
Fund for Perceptually Handicapped Children,  
Evanston, Illinois  
Hamilton County Committee for Crippled Children  
and Adults, Chattanooga, Tennessee

---

<sup>28</sup> Samuel Kirk, Learning Disabilities, Selected ACLD Papers. (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1975) p. 4.

<sup>29</sup> Ibid., p. 3.

The Memphis and Shelby County Association for  
 Brain-Injured Children  
 Maryland Association for Brain-Injured Children,  
 Inc.  
 Fund for Perceptually Handicapped Children of  
 Central Kentucky, Inc.  
 Michigan Children's Neurological Development  
 Program  
 Parent Teachers Council for Exceptional Children  
 Canada  
 New Jersey Association for Brain-Injured Chil-  
 dren  
 New York Association for Brain-Injured Children  
 National Association for Brain-Injured Children

After a discussion of the advantages of label-  
 ing and classification it was Samuel Kirk who suggested  
 "learning disabilities" as the least objectionable term  
 for this type of handicap.<sup>30</sup>

The symposium in 1963 became the first annual  
 conference of the Association for Children with Learn-  
 ing Disabilities. The functions of this organization  
 in New Jersey varied from county to county. There  
 were private schools for youngsters who could not profit,  
 or were too young for public school placement; individual  
 and group counseling for parents; and clinics for com-  
 prehensive diagnostic services.

The opinions of the professionals who, in inter-  
 views, volunteered ACLD as a significant factor in the  
 development of special education are reflected in their  
 comments:

---

<sup>30</sup> Ibid., p. 4.

...NJACLD is new, but active and has specific educational interests

...only active in the last few years; very good at publicizing their Saturday programs, but totally missing in other areas;

...All these groups have an axe to grind and are pushing their part of it. Their contributions are in getting appropriations of money and getting legislation.

...ACLD is the most recent past. It grew out of public schools' inability to serve needs. Presently private schools are spinning off from parent groups.

...ACLD has been strong in influencing legislation. They pushed parents to suitable sources of help.

This national organization in contrast to its earliest components expended its efforts on direct services to parents and their handicapped children since many of the battles have been won by its predecessors.

The Council of Organizations in Schools for Emotionally Disturbed Children

COSED is an example of a local parents' group which developed from a national society, and revealed a situation in which public school placement was not forthcoming on a wide spread basis in spite of parental efforts, because autism is a form of emotional disturbance which goes beyond the scope of most public schools.

In 1965, a group of approximately 50 parents of

autistic children met in a private home in Teaneck. These parents were brought together by Bernard Rimlen, author of a book, Autism, which they had all read. Each of the parents in that group had written to Dr. Rimlen after reading his book to request more information about autism, and information about available organizations. Dr. Rimlen telephoned one of the parents, Herbert Kahn, and suggested that a meeting be arranged in a centrally located place where he could speak to all the parents who had requested his help. The meeting was held in the Kahn home and was attended by parents from all over the East coast. They were directed by Rimlen to the National Society for Autistic Children, and the following spring they sent representatives to Washington, D.C. to a meeting of the Board of Directors. The New Jersey representatives were not pleased with what they found, and believed the national group was run by one individual and a small group of her friends. "As a result statewide chapters never got off the ground."<sup>31</sup> When the Kahns returned from Washington they called together a few parents from the New Jersey area to suggest ways of setting up their own local organization. The result was COSED.

---

<sup>31</sup>Personal communication from Herbert Kahn, December, 1977.

Five New Jersey parents of autistic children met in the Kahn home in January, 1965. Their immediate concern was to educate legislators to the need for funding for these special cases of emotional disturbance. To accomplish this they arranged for a panel meeting on the Rutgers campus which brought together parents and professionals. The planned annual meetings after that never came about, but attention had been drawn to their problem and funding for all handicapped children to attend appropriate schools was part of the 1966 recodification of laws concerned with the education of the handicapped.<sup>32</sup> There are still very few areas where public school classes for autistic children are available. Those few classes which were formed were disbanded because autism was a low incident handicap, and there were rarely enough children in any one district or area for a special class. Also autism required specially trained teachers and aides and few school districts could afford the expense for such a small number of children. It was less expensive for the district, and often more beneficial for the autistic child if private placement was arranged.

---

<sup>32</sup>Ibid.

Professor Sobolovitch was one of the five parents who met in early 1965 to found a parent organization. His case was typical of many. His autistic child as a pre-schooler attended a Child Guidance Clinic, at the expense of the parents, and necessitated two thirty mile round trips daily since transportation was also the responsibility of the parents. During this period the child was examined by various medical specialists who were of little help in diagnosing his handicap, since the diagnosis of autism was then unfamiliar to most professionals. In 1965 there were no schools available for autistic or schizophrenic children. Parents were advised to place their autistic children in institutions for the retarded. Representatives of the agencies and professions who gave this advice were frank to admit that in such institutions very little could be done other than to keep the child alive.<sup>33</sup> The nature of this handicap in many cases defeated attempts to provide appropriate help for the afflicted child. Parent sponsored organizations did not grow large enough to become strong because of limited numbers in any one area; and unsophisticated

---

<sup>33</sup>Personal interview with Serge Sobolovitch New Brunswick, New Jersey, July, 1977.

methods of early diagnosis prevented early intervention. The progressive nature of the affliction often resulted in early institutionalization which caused parents who were once active in an organization to lose interest and "cut themselves off sharply when their child is institutionalized."<sup>34</sup>

Of the five parents who met in the Kahn home in 1965, only two are still involved, and those two are in different counties and are active primarily in running the private schools for autistic children which they established when public school placement failed.

Since 1966 local school districts have contributed to the autistic child's placement in private schools or to the educational cost of residential placements. Local Child Study Teams often accepted medical or agency diagnosis of autism, which was usually made before the child became of school age or school responsibility. The Team served only as a liaison between the private institution and the public school district in the case of most autistic children. The parents' groups which did function seemed to be those which were sponsored by the private school or institution, and were in the nature of a parent-teacher association.

---

<sup>34</sup>Ibid.

### Clinical Reading Association

Throughout the years many individuals through local organizations have unintentionally given great impetus to the development of Special Education in ways that cannot always be traced or identified. In the case of handicapped children it has often been necessary to draw attention to their plight and to prove they can profit from the resultant attention in order to get more comprehensive and permanent help.

Dr. Marion Little, an Assistant Professor of Education in Glassboro Teachers College instituted a five week course in Remedial Reading in the summer of 1935. Under her direction, six student teachers instructed six children who had demonstrated an inability to read. There were few materials available and even less equipment, so teachers were forced to resort to outside sources for help. Professional contacts with staff members, including Edgar Doll, at the nearby Research Department of the Vineland Training School led to the employment of a psychologist, Alice Whiteman Goodman, to administer the Binet Intelligence Test and Doll's Vineland Social Scales to all the children in the Reading Clinic.

At the end of the five week period the student

teachers elected to continue tutoring the children who had been assigned to them, and to open the Saturday classes to others in need of remedial instruction. By fall many of the student teachers had achieved graduate status, but they continued to return to Glassboro's campus every Saturday morning to tutor children with reading problems.

The clinic and its services expanded rapidly with the continued aid of Dr. Doll and Dr. Edgar Bunce, President of the Glassboro State Teachers College. Many of the former student teachers continued their studies and extended their field of interest at the Psychological Clinics of the University of Pennsylvania, and at Temple University, but still they continued their affiliation with Glassboro. Dr. Little and Mrs. Goodman, with the support of Dr. Bunce, served as faculty sponsors of an organization of these teachers of reading. At the first meeting in October, 1940, the name Glassboro Clinical Reading Association was chosen. From a beginning of five interested student teachers, the organization grew rapidly, and its membership increased with each semester's class of student teachers and graduates.

The first annual conference brought attendance of over 400 interested individuals. Publication of a series of bulletins began during the war years as a

substitute for the conferences and consistently required a mailing list of close to 300 people. By 1944, the membership included nurses, optometrists, psychologists, and institution workers, with the clinical services at Glassboro increasing as the scope of operation widened through services of individuals associated with the organization increased.

Plans to reorganize were discussed in 1946 to incorporate the term "Children's Clinic" since new services offered at the Clinic included Speech, Mathematics, Reading and Physical Therapy. Many dedicated classroom teachers and student volunteers were devoting their Saturday mornings to providing remediation in these areas to handicapped children.

In those days reading problems were "respectable" in the eyes of parents and gave the teachers reason to go beyond the reading problems to investigate the causes for the problem.<sup>35</sup> It was not surprising that the Glassboro Reading Clinic with its connections at Vineland Training School would be among the first to "...go beyond...to investigate causes." Much of the original research in the first quarter of the twentieth century was initiated by the

---

<sup>35</sup>Personal interview with Dr. Marion Little, Vineland, New Jersey, January, 1976.

Research Department of Vineland Training School.

"Everybody who was anybody (in education of the handicapped)...came through Vineland."<sup>36</sup>

The handicapped children who had been served at the clinic totaled near 700 by early 1946, and came from the seven southern counties of the state.<sup>37</sup>

Another contribution which grew from the Reading Clinic were the services to the physically handicapped children in the area. Dr. Little and Dr. Roland Esbjornsen, who was Chairman of the Physical Education Department combined their two classes of student teachers for what was to be one class period to observe a demonstration of techniques which could be utilized in working with orthopedically handicapped children. Dr. Esbjornsen addressed the combined classes and before the end of the class period many of the student teachers in the group had volunteered to work with these orthopedically handicapped children in a special class within the Clinic on Saturday mornings. Dr. Esbjornsen believed this was the first class of its kind for this handicap in the state. In a clinic situation, the emphasis was

---

<sup>36</sup>Personal interview with Dr. George Gens, Union, New Jersey, February, 1977.

<sup>37</sup>Henry Goddard, The Training School Bulletin, Vol. 40, 1946, p. 5.

on motor skills, reading skills and arts and crafts.<sup>38</sup>  
The class was publicized over a local radio station,  
with brochures sent to various school districts, and  
by word of mouth with the college students from all  
departments as spokesmen.<sup>39</sup>

Since the class was organized and developed by  
Glassboro students who had contacts with professionals  
and educational leaders in the Clinical Reading Asso-  
ciation, which was affiliated with the Vineland Train-  
ing School, the success of the Saturday classes was  
soon common knowledge. Many of the educational leaders  
in New Jersey at that time had come through the Train-  
ing School at Vineland, (Goddard, Doll, Myklebust and  
others) and they and their followers were influential  
at state levels.

In the field of education in New Jersey it was  
often necessary to prove something could be done before  
it got any support.<sup>40</sup> Examples of this attitude could  
also be found in interviews with the parents who  
sponsored classes for the retarded "...to prove it could

---

<sup>38</sup>Personal interview with Rosemary Berkey,  
Monroe Township, April, 1977.

<sup>39</sup>Personal communication from Dr. Roland  
Esbjornsen, November, 1976.

<sup>40</sup>Little, loc. cit.

be done."<sup>41</sup>

With the passage of legislation mandating public school education for all children, the voluntary clinic and the organization which had grown from it were no longer needed. In a personal interview in 1977 with Dr. Little, she suggested that after her retirement from Glassboro the organization known as the Glassboro Clinical Reading Association may have become the first southern New Jersey chapter of the Council for Exceptional Children but no confirmation of that affiliation has been found.

---

<sup>41</sup>Little, loc. cit.

## CHAPTER VI

### LEGISLATION

All public education in New Jersey stemmed from an Act passed in October of 1903, which called for . . . a thorough and efficient system of free public schools, and to provide for the maintenance, support, and management thereof.<sup>1</sup>

Article IX states that

Public schools shall be free to all persons over five and under twenty years of age who shall be residents of the school districts.<sup>2</sup>

In 1911, an amendment to this act authorized the Governor, with the approval of the State Board of Education, to appoint a Commissioner of Education for a five year term at an annual salary of ten thousand dollars. Among the specified duties of the Commissioner, under the heading of "Subnormal Children" was to

Prescribe such method as to him may seem best for use in ascertaining what children are three years or more below the normal.<sup>3</sup>

This is the first reference in New Jersey Statutes to atypical or handicapped children in public schools. Chapter 234, a supplement to the 1903 Act took effect on April 17, 1911:

---

<sup>1</sup>Laws of 1903, Chapter 1.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Laws of 1911, Chapter 231.

Each board of education in this State shall ascertain what children, if any, there are in the public schools who are three years or more below the normal. In each school district in this State in which there are ten or more children, three years or more below the normal, the board of education thereof, shall establish a special class or classes for their instruction, no class however, to contain more than fifteen children. In each school district in this State where there are ten or more blind or deaf children who are not now cared for in an institution a special class or classes shall be organized for their education.<sup>4</sup>

In effect if not intent, this law was directed toward large cities since few rural areas had ten "subnormal" children in any one school district. In 1911 even large cities often did not identify ten subnormal children that were eligible for schooling under this law since these children were often a source of embarrassment to their families and were kept close to home, not registered in public schools.

The first legislative provision for a Supervisor of Child Study appeared in Chapter 88 of the Laws of 1917. This law required a survey of every county ". . . setting forth facts and conditions regarding juvenile delinquency and deficiency among children of school age. . .". If in the judgment of the Commissioner of Education the conditions warranted

---

<sup>4</sup>Laws of 1911, Chapter 234.

it, the law authorized him to establish a department of child study, and to appoint a supervisor for a term of one year at an annual salary of ". . . not more than fifteen hundred dollars. . . ." <sup>5</sup> That amount was increased periodically until it reached three thousand dollars per annum in 1929. <sup>6, 7, 8</sup> The first known Supervisor of Child Study in the State of New Jersey was appointed by the first Director of Special Education in 1959, and no record of a survey to determine the extent of ". . . juvenile delinquency and deficiency . . ." was found until the 1953 ". . . number and nature . . ." survey <sup>9</sup> directed by Charles Jochem. <sup>10, 11</sup>

From 1929 until 1950 there was very little legislative action in the area of Special Education. In 1950 the Legislature appointed a Commission to Study

---

<sup>5</sup>Laws of 1917, Chapter 88.

<sup>6</sup>Laws of 1920, Chapter 102.

<sup>7</sup>Laws of 1921, Chapter 249.

<sup>8</sup>Laws of 1929, Chapter 313.

<sup>9</sup>Personal interview with Senator Beadleston, June, 1976.

<sup>10</sup>Telephone interview with Dr. Elizabeth Kelly, February, 1978.

<sup>11</sup>Telephone interview with Anne Hoppock, February, 1978.

the Needs of Mentally Deficient Children. By August, 1953, nothing but an interim report had been issued. Parents' groups, especially the active New Jersey Association of Retarded Children, which had been mollified by the selection of the commission were impatient for its report.

With the encouragement of the parents' groups, Assemblyman John Shannon, a former school teacher, presented a bill to the Assembly on March 16, 1953, which revised and strengthened the previous laws regarding the education of the handicapped. The Shannon Bill, Assembly Bill No. 414, was drafted by Elizabeth Boggs, and strongly supported by the N.J.A.R.C., and by Elizabeth Kelly and Anne Hoppock, who were recent allies of the parents' groups as well as leaders of the Conference on the Handicapped.<sup>12, 13</sup> The bill passed both the House of Representatives and the Senate, but was vetoed by Governor Alfred E. Driscoll on August 17, 1953. Among his reasons for vetoing the bill were the incomplete report of the three year old Commission and the ". . . united opposition of the Department of Education,

---

<sup>12</sup>Personal interview with Dr. Elizabeth Boggs, February, 1977.

<sup>13</sup>Elizabeth Boggs, Points of Issue Concerning A-414, New Jersey Association Retarded Children, April 1953.

the State Federation of District Boards of Education, and the New Jersey Education Association, as well as numerous Superintendents of Schools throughout the State."<sup>14</sup>

The Governor's letter requested the Commission, the New Jersey Association for Retarded Children, and the Department of Education to work with all other interested groups to ". . . perfect this legislation in time for early action next year. . ." <sup>15</sup>.

Meanwhile, the Commissioner of Education, Dr. Frederick Raubinger, had commissioned a survey of the State, directed by Charles Jochem to ". . . identify individually every child known to the schools or other major agencies who needed special education for reason of physical disability or retarded mental development."<sup>16</sup> The survey, completed in 1954, found ". . . over 31,000 individual children. . . of whom somewhat more than half were deemed to be in need of special education."<sup>17</sup>

The survey also determined that approximately

---

<sup>14</sup>Governor Alfred Driscoll, Letter to the General Assembly, Trenton, New Jersey, August 17, 1953.

<sup>15</sup>Ibid.

<sup>16</sup>Commissioner's Advisory Council, Twentieth Year Report, Trenton, New Jersey, 1974, p. 3.

<sup>17</sup>Ibid.

10 percent of these were not attending any school, and another forty percent were enrolled in a school but were not receiving the type of education which could benefit them. The findings of Dr. Jochem's survey were published in a booklet entitled Found, and added impetus to the popularly called "Beadleston Bills," which were introduced in 1954 and became the foundation for all future legislation designed for the handicapped in public schools. The 1954 Beadleston Bills repealed all former legislation dealing with the education of the mentally and physically handicapped, and instructed public schools to provide some appropriate manner of instruction for each child classified as mentally retarded, whether educable or trainable. A second bill provided for the education of the physically handicapped and included vision and hearing impairments. Both bills offered funding for mandated classes for the mentally retarded and physically handicapped, but there was no mention of the emotionally disturbed or brain-injured child since these handicaps had not been a part of the Jochem survey.

In spite of this omission, children with emotional or neurological handicaps did get into the special classes designated for the retarded and physically handicapped. Neurologically impaired children

were classified as physically handicapped so they would be eligible for state aid and special classes. The effects of combining emotionally disturbed and retarded in one class, with the physically handicapped and neurologically impaired also in one class led to situations not unlike to special classes of the early 1900's. The result was a ". . . slop bucket approach" which was further complicated by the difficulty in diagnosis of brain dysfunction, and an insufficient number of trained diagnosticians on either county or local levels. The need for additional legislation was evident.<sup>18</sup>

The position of Director of Special Education in the State Department of Education was created when passage of the Beadleston Bills was imminent, and Dr. Boyd Nelson was appointed to fill that position. The Commissioner was authorized to appoint a county child study supervisor in each county to assist Dr. Nelson, but only two supervisors were appointed over the next few years, with a total of four by 1960.

Over a period of five years, Dr. Nelson appointed four additional members to the Office of Special Education as he recognized the need for a multi-discipline

---

<sup>18</sup>Personal interview with Dr. Marietta Gruenert, December, 1977.

team approach, and on the advice of the Commissioner's Advisory Council. Dr. Kirk Seaton was appointed as Director of School Psychology. Dr. Robert Rowen became Director of School Social Work. Dr. George Boone assumed the duties of Director of Education of the Handicapped, and Dr. James Jan-Tausch was named as Director of Remedial Instruction. By 1960 these men were serving as a state level Child Study Team and as "trouble shooters."<sup>19</sup> Among their first tasks was the division of the State into regions, which is the organization which is still used today.

Leaders in the mental health field and parents of emotionally disturbed children, along with agencies such as the New Jersey Welfare Council were encouraged by the laws of 1954 and continued their cooperative efforts to serve the education needs of all children. In 1959 they were successful in getting permissive legislation which offered state aid in reimbursement of school districts of the cost of furnishing educational services for emotionally disturbed and socially maladjusted pupils.<sup>20</sup>

The 1959 laws, which were also introduced by

---

<sup>19</sup>Telephone interview with Dr. Robert Rowen, August, 1977.

<sup>20</sup>Laws of 1959, Chapter 104.

Alfred Beadleston, continued the Commissioners' authority to appoint county supervisors of child study, as one member of a county Child Study Team, and ". . . such additional personnel, constituting a Child Study Team as he deems necessary. . ." <sup>21</sup> The law specified the members of the team as a school psychologist, a school social worker, a remedial specialist and a psychiatrist, and lists eight functions of the team including diagnosis, classifications, remedial instructions, and supervision and approval of public school mental health programs. The same law which created the Child Study Team instructed the Commissioner of Education to appoint annually an Advisory Council to implement the Act and to establish qualification for professional personnel.

Two amendments to the laws of 1954 and 1959 made important changes in Special Education programs. Chapter 232 of the Laws of 1962, known as the Haines-Connery-Dumont Legislation, encouraged boards of education to join together on a partnership basis to employ personnel and operate special education facilities, and invited cooperative arrangements such as sending-receiving district relationships.

In 1963, the Grossi Act, Chapter 187, Laws of

---

<sup>21</sup>L.1959, C.18:14-71.37

1963, amended the 1959 Beadleston Laws and permitted public schools to provide payment of tuition to non-public, non-profit schools for providing schooling for handicapped children whose emotional disturbance was too serious to be accommodated in public schools. These two amendments allowed for additional alternatives in the educational programs provided for handicapped children.

In 1964, the Commissioner of Education, Frederick Raubinger appointed a 32 member Commission on the Education of the Handicapped to study the effectiveness of the laws which had been enacted since 1954, and to determine the future educational needs of the handicapped in New Jersey. The report of this Commission was contained in the Education of Handicapped Children in New Jersey 1954-1964, popularly known as "the red book." The report covered Statutory Basis, Administration, Training of Personnel and Finance. The first recommendation dealt with a revision and codification of all laws pertaining to Special Education to provide special services to all handicapped children. A recommendation for a similar revision pertaining to state aid to local districts for Special Education services followed. The first of five recommendations

under the heading Administration, dealt with the organization of an Office of Special Education Services as a Division of the State Department of Education headed by an Assistant Commissioner of Education.

This and many of the Commission's recommendations were included in the 1966 legislation which revised and amended all previous legislation pertaining to Special Education. These amendments and revisions were the basis of the present statutes governing Special Education in New Jersey. It was not coincidental that this legislation was passed and signed on the same day as the State Sales Tax and the revision of the legislation relating to general State aid for local schools. When Senator Beadleston proposed the 1966 Bill he agreed to produce a block of Republican votes to support the Democratic Governor's "bipartisan" sales tax, in exchange for the Governor's support and block of Democratic votes for the Education of the Handicapped Bill.<sup>22</sup>

In 1967, a recodification of all school laws began, and by July of 1970, Title 18 had been replaced by Title 18A, and Chapter 29 had become the new Chapter 46. All Special Education laws are now found in Title

---

<sup>22</sup>Personal interview with Alfred Beadleston, June, 1976.

18A, Chapter 46 of the New Jersey Statutes.

With the reorganization of all Special Education legislation all 13 of the presently recognized learning handicaps were provided for and New Jersey now ". . . boasts of one of the most comprehensive and effective mandates for handicapped children in the nation."<sup>23</sup>

The Vocational Education Act in 1963 was the beginning of a focus on vocational training for the handicapped in New Jersey. Until that time vocational education facilities were limited for all children so handicapped students were often not given opportunities at this type of training. Vocational education for all handicapped students in New Jersey became a reality after the passage of the Federal Vocational Education Amendments in 1968. This law required every state to spend a specified percentage of its federal vocational allotment for handicapped and academically and socio-economically disadvantaged students. In compliance with the federal mandate, New Jersey added a clause to the Rules and Regulations of the New Jersey Administrative Code which granted all Special Education students the right to participate in all offerings in vocational

---

<sup>23</sup> Twentieth Year Report, op. cit., p. 7.

education.<sup>24</sup>

The Office of Special Education became the Branch of Special Education and Pupil Personnel Services in 1969 with the responsibility for implementing the mandates of Special Education legislation. Dr. Daniel Ringelheim was appointed as the first Deputy Assistant Commissioner and supervised the formation of Bureaus and appointment of directors. The Bureau of Special Education has a staff of 21 County Supervisors of Child Study, four Regional Child Study Teams, four Area Coordinators and a Director of Special Education. This Bureau works with local Teams and districts in evaluation, classification and program planning.

The Bureau of Pupil Personnel Services works with colleges and universities to recruit and train qualified personnel and consults with local schools and agencies to improve the functioning of Child Study Teams and ancillary personnel.

The third Bureau of the Branch of Special Education and Pupil Personnel Services is the Bureau of Program Development and Evaluation-Special Education, which deals with evaluation of State and Federal grants to local school districts, and consults in program

---

<sup>24</sup>N.J.A.C. 6:28 - 1.1, Section F.

development of private and public agencies responsible for the education of the handicapped.

Since the 1967 recodification several amendments to Chapter 46 of Title 18A were noteworthy. In 1971 the Commissioner of Education was given the authority to approve the placement of handicapped children in private schools up to 400 miles from Trenton, New Jersey if the needs of the child cannot be met locally.<sup>25</sup> The Commissioner was empowered to cause any Board of Education to accept handicapped students from other districts into suitable existing programs on a tuition basis.<sup>26</sup>

Amendments to Chapter 46 Title 18A in 1973, required local Boards of Education to distribute to the parents of handicapped children copies of Title 18A, Chapter 46, and the Rules and Regulations from the New Jersey Administrative Code pertaining to Special Education.<sup>27</sup> This amendment to New Jersey law preceded a similar federal mandate by two years.

Chapter 62 of the Laws of 1973 allowed any handicapped student who attained the age of 20 during a school year to continue in the Special Education

---

<sup>25</sup>N.J.S.A. 18A: 46-15.

<sup>26</sup>N.J.S.A. 18A: 46-28.

<sup>27</sup>Laws of 1973, Chapter 4.

facility for the remainder of that school year if he so chooses.

An important piece of legislation in 1973 authorized the formation of a County Regional Board of Special Services through the County Board of Chosen Freeholders to provide personnel, classrooms and Special Education services for low-incident handicapped children whose resident district cannot provide an appropriate education.<sup>28</sup> In 1978 there are three such Regional Boards in operation: Bergen, Burlington and Cape May Counties with Mercer County making arrangements for similar programs.

Also in 1973 legislation introduced by Senators Beadleston, Wallwork and Giuliano authorized the issuance of a bond for the construction of five day school facilities operated by the State Department of Education for the severely handicapped, and the expansion of the Katzenbach School for the Deaf.<sup>29</sup>

The Resource Room Bill, #3151, became Chapter 445 of the Laws of 1977 with its passage, and provides local districts with some funding through additional cost factors for the supplemental instruction of

---

<sup>28</sup>N.J.S.A. 18: 46-29.

<sup>29</sup>Laws of 1973, Chapter 149.

handicapped children in the Resource Room situation.

Senators Wiley and Martindell sponsored two bills in January, 1975, which have bearing on all education in New Jersey. The first, known as the Public School Financing Act of 1975, allowed for additional cost factors for handicapped students. The amount of State aid paid to any local district was determined by multiplying the number of pupils in each category of handicap by an "additional cost factor" which ranges from 1.91 for visually handicapped to 0.53 for the educable.

The second of the Wiley-Martindell bills is the now famous "Thorough and Efficient," Chapter 212 of the Laws of 1975.<sup>30</sup> This legislation was precipitated by a suit brought against the State of New Jersey in 1972 which charged that the plaintiff in his community was not receiving educational opportunities equivalent to those available in other communities, and specified the reliance on property taxes as a means of financing schools as the cause of the inequalities. The State Supreme Court found for the plaintiff and directed the State Board of Education to define the phrase "thorough and efficient" which has been part of the legislative

---

<sup>30</sup>N.J.S.A. 18A: 7A-1.

terminology since 1875, and to develop a plan of financing which would meet the Constitutional mandate. The goal of "T and E" is ". . . to provide to all children in New Jersey regardless of socio-economic status or geographical location, the educational opportunity which will prepare them to function politically, economically and socially in a democratic society."<sup>31</sup>

Federal legislative action in 1975 resulted in Public Law 94:142 which may be a cause for great pride on the part of New Jersey lawmakers. P.L. 94:142 mandates the education of all handicapped children in every state, and is believed by many, including Daniel Ringelheim, to be founded on the Special Education legislation of New Jersey. P.L. 94:142 which followed the "Child Study Team" mandate in New Jersey by 16 years suggests that handicapped children be diagnosed by ". . . a committee structure."<sup>32</sup>

Title 6, Chapter 28 of the New Jersey Administrative Code is presently under extensive revision to conform to the federal Rules and Regulations which will implement P.L. 94:142 in each of the states in the

---

<sup>31</sup>State Department of Education, T & E: A Primer for School Improvement in New Jersey, 1975, p. 2.

<sup>32</sup>Personal interview with Dr. Daniel Ringelheim, August, 1977.

United States. The proposed revisions are expected to be finalized by July, 1978.

### Summary

For the first 50 years of legislative action in the area of Special Education the laws were fragmented, open to individual interpretation and often not adequately enforced. This situation was changed with the recodification of laws in 1966, and legislation since that time has been more systematic and precise. However, there are continuing additions and improvements in the laws which govern the education of the handicapped which may necessitate a second recodification in the future.

## CHAPTER VII

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### Summary

The purpose of this study was to identify individuals and events since 1900, which contributed to the growth of educational programs for the handicapped in the public schools of New Jersey. Three questions served as a basis for gathering data:

1. Who were the principal contributors to the development of Special Education in the state of New Jersey and what contributions were made by these individuals?
2. What organizations made significant contributions to the growth of Special Education in New Jersey?
3. What legislation enabled Special Education to be effected in New Jersey?

Fifty individuals who were involved in the education of the handicapped before Special Education was mandated by law were interviewed about their roles in the development of Special Education. Among the interviewees were former classroom teachers, school administrators, psychologists, Child Study Supervisors and members of the first Child Study Team, educators on federal, state and county levels, and parents of

handicapped children. Many of these individuals were instrumental in organizing classes for handicapped children who had been excluded from public schools by the severity of the handicap. Others actively campaigned for the passage of legislation which funded and guaranteed an appropriate education for all children, and cooperated with legislators in the drafting of such legislation. Among those questioned were individuals who wrote and implemented the first training programs for teachers of the handicapped, and those who developed the concept of a Team approach and later defined the roles of the members of the Child Study Team.

Each of the individuals questioned shared with the interviewer reasons for his or her original interest in the education of the handicapped, and many recounted anecdotes from the early days of Special Education which described the difficulties that had to be overcome by parents and teachers of the handicapped in their efforts to serve the educational needs of handicapped children.

A second point of interest for this study in the development of Special Education was the establishment of organizations whose purposes included the dissemination of information about specific handicaps, the formation of special classes or schools for the

handicapped, and the education of legislators and the general public regarding needs of the handicapped and learning disabled. Organizations were formed by professionals who were working with handicapped children, and by groups of parents for specific purposes or for the sharing of common interests. A combination of primary, secondary and tertiary sources were necessary to complete this section of the study.

The third major concern of this research project was the identification of landmark legislation which permits or mandates appropriate public school education for every child who is able to benefit from such training, and the delineation of the events leading to the passage of specific pieces of this legislation in New Jersey. This information was gleaned from interviews with individuals who were responsible for drafting and sponsoring the legislation, and from published New Jersey Statutes and the New Jersey Administrative Code.

### Conclusions

Information from the interviews revealed:

1. Most of the people who made significant contributions to the growth of Special Education did not enter the field by design. The depression which began in 1929,

and a shortage of teaching and administrative positions in public schools forced many individuals into working with retarded children in private schools of institutions, or into teaching public school classes which teachers with a seniority had refused. Others turned to educating the handicapped as a means of professional advancement or monetary gain. Chance encounters with handicapped children in regular classes, or some exposure to a handicapped child was responsible for the interest of many individuals who later contributed to the growth of Special Education. None of the interviewees planned a career in Special Education and none were trained in that field before beginning a career or making a contribution to that field.

2. There were focal points or intersections in the professional lives of many of the interviewees and significant contributors. New York University was one such common ground. Ten of the individuals mentioned taught or pursued graduate studies at New York University in the days before Special Education was established in New Jersey. Vineland Training School was another of the discernible intersections in the lives of many of the individuals who became the founders of Special Education in New Jersey. This institution produced much of the research in mental retardation and was a meeting

place for at least seven of the individuals mentioned. Ten of the interviewees and contributors were on the faculty at Newark State College before and during the time when they were most active in Special Education. As a result, Newark State Teachers College appears to have established a variety of training programs for teachers of the handicapped approximately 20 years before such courses were commonplace.

3. Parents' groups were a major force in the development of Special Education in New Jersey and were responsible for many of the educational programs established for the handicapped. The organizations exerted great influence over school administrators and legislators, and are remembered by many of the interviewees for their efforts. The organizations, which were often nameless, seemed to materialize for a specific purpose and disband when their goal was accomplished. If written records were kept they were passed among the members and misplaced or discarded when individuals lost interest in the cause.

4. No consensus was reached in identifying one event or one landmark in the course of the development of Special Education that was more significant than all others. Special Education in New Jersey resulted from a series of events and forces that built one upon the

other. The absence of any one of these forces might have prevented or delayed the growth of the educational services now provided for the learning disabled.

5. Special classes for the handicapped in public schools in New Jersey are recorded in large cities as early as 1911, but except for classes in Newark no definite sequence of establishment of classes could be determined. Most of the early special classes were established for the mentally retarded, but contained a mixture of undiagnosed handicaps and learning disabilities. Instruction was not individualized and there were no instructional materials designed for the handicapped until after the legislation in 1954. Special training was not required for teachers of special classes and curricula varied according to the individual teacher's interest.

Children were assigned to a special class on the opinion of only a psychologist, and once placed in a special class had little hope of being returned to a regular class. Before standards were set by legislative action special classes were usually isolated from regular classes and often were housed in basements, converted coal bins, abandoned buildings or garages. Accurate records of the number, type and location of special classes were not kept until such classes were funded

✓ by legislation.

6. A majority of the interviewees regarded mainstreaming as a new and important trend in Special Education, although several remembered that mainstreaming was common in the early days of special classes. More than half of those who named mainstreaming offered objections dealing primarily with the reluctance of regular class teachers to accept a handicapped child into a regular class.

The Resource Room was mentioned as an alternative to full time regular class or special class self-contained placement, and is also viewed with misgivings by some because of the lack of readiness on the part of classroom teachers to deal with atypical children, and the overdependence on Resource Rooms by Boards of Education unwilling or unable to provide more suitable instructional programs for handicapped children.

Many of the interviewees see the Child Study Team in the future expanding its services to include all children, increasing the number and kinds of specialists on each Team, and including parents and classroom teachers as members of the Child Study Team in planning instructional programs. Talented and gifted children should receive Team services, and additional Teams must work toward earlier intervention and

Pre-School Education.

### Organizations

There were two organizations whose influence touched all areas of Special Education and affected the legislation which provided for all handicapped children. For approximately twenty years one of the strongest single forces in the growth of Special Education was an organization of professionals known as the Conference on the Handicapped. This group, which came together by chance, eventually represented every agency, council and organization concerned with the handicapped in the State of New Jersey. About fifteen of the interviewees and contributors made up the nucleus of the Conference and under their leadership much of Special Education as it is known today was formulated.

Also noteworthy is the collegiality shared by the founders and early members of the Conference. The close friendship of these leaders had a positive affect on the growth of Special Education by promoting professional placements of specific individuals and maintaining close cooperation between school districts who were pioneering in the field of Special Education. Thirty-five years later these friendships are still very much in evidence, although the participants are

separated by many miles and by years of retirement.

The New Jersey Association for Retarded Citizens (NJARC) as it is now known nationally, began in New Jersey about the same time as the Conference on the Handicapped. It was an equally strong organization composed initially entirely of parents of handicapped children. The strength and contributions of both groups increased greatly when they joined forces. This cooperation came about because of the friendship of two women, one a professional and faculty member at Newark State College, the other her student and the parent of a handicapped child.

The NJARC is unique among the many parents' organizations for several reasons. It became a national organization concerned with all handicaps, and it continued its growth after it had achieved its original goal. Many other parents' groups focused only on one handicap and lost interest or disbanded when public education was provided for children with that handicap.

### Legislation

Legislative emphasis on Special Education has been spasmodic and inconsistent. Between 1903 and 1929 laws concerning the education of the handicapped were ambiguous and ineffective. A survey in every county to

determine the number of delinquent and deficient school age children was recommended in 1917, but was not enforced. Provision for a Child Study Supervisor in every county is also part of the 1917 legislation with salary increases for these Supervisors as part of the laws of 1921, 1924 and 1929, but there is no record of any county level Child Study Supervisor until 1959.

From 1929 until 1950 there was no legislative action in the area of Special Education. After a slow beginning in 1950 the efforts of parents and professionals spurred the passage of legislation in 1954, 1959, 1962, 1963, and 1966 which specifies the responsibility of every Board of Education to provide diagnostic services and an appropriate educational program for every child in its district. Since 1966 legislation has been directed toward expanding services and changing funding procedures. New Jersey is presently revising the Special Education section of the Administrative Code to correspond with the federal laws passed in 1975 which mandate appropriate diagnosis and education for every handicapped child in every state.

#### Recommendations

1. Valuable historical information regarding the growth

of Special Education in New Jersey has already been lost. The personnel and financial resources of the State Department of Education are needed to salvage and organize that which remains if interest could be aroused. Researchers are needed to make photostatic copies of the personal files and collections shared with this writer by those who contributed to this study. Efforts should be made to locate the records and documents pertaining to Special Education which were kept by Anne Hoppock as part of the Office of Elementary Education. After her retirement these records and her personal collection were misplaced when the Office of Special Education was moved into new quarters.

2. More intensive interviewing of the founders of Special Education, and of the surviving families of those contributors who are now deceased would yield additional information about the beginnings and growth of Special Education. This research would be a full time task for at least two people for a period of approximately one year. At the end of that time a library/museum depicting the growth of Special Education in New Jersey would be a worthwhile addition to the State Department of Education in Trenton.

3. All professional and parent organizations with an interest in the education of children should be registered in a central location at the state level for easier availability to parents and professionals. Centralizing these groups would prevent future loss of historical information about such groups.

4. The Coordinator of Pre-School Education for the Branch of Special Education should investigate the advisability of establishing a High Risk Register as a means of identifying possible learning disabilities in pre-school children so that early intervention can minimize the disabilities. This Register would also identify parents of handicapped children so that professional guidance could be offered while the child is very young.

5. The Branch of Special Education of the State Department of Education should institute a state-wide survey to determine the extent and success of mainstreaming and Resource Room placements of handicapped students. If the programs are found beneficial teacher training programs must be restructured to ensure the readiness of all public school teachers to deal with handicapped students.

6. Training programs and certification standards for Child Study Team personnel require a re-evaluation if

Team members are to expand services to include all children. There are still Team members and county and state level personnel who are functioning under a "grandfather clause" who do not meet even the minimum requirements for certification. Changes should be made in this policy before additional certification standards are imposed.

7. Consistency and equalization of funding for Special Education is essential if a realistic Child Study Team/ population ratio is to be set and maintained. A review of funding procedures is necessary.

8. Legislative information which affects the educational programs of learning disabled children must be made more readily available to Child Study Team members and Special Education teachers at local levels. A clarification of procedures for the dissemination of such information should be of prime concern at the State level. Comprehension and utilization of legislative action must be a part of training programs for future Child Study Team members and Special Education teachers.

9. Increased sophistication in describing and differentiating learning handicaps makes possible a review of the effectiveness of present educational programs for the handicapped a realistic goal. The possible

effects of a prescribed program for a learning disabled child must be known before the program is initiated. The future of Special Education should include evidence of such educational planning if the educational needs of handicapped children are to be met.

## BIBLIOGRAPHY

### Books

- Abelson, Harold H. The Art of Educational Research. New York: World Book Company, 1933.
- Anastasi, Anne. Psychological Testing. New York: MacMillan Publishing Company, 1976.
- Ayres, Jean A. Sensory Integration and Learning Disorders. Los Angeles, California: Western Psychological Services, 1975.
- Barch, Ray H. Achieving Perceptual-Motor Efficiency. Seattle, Washington, 1967.
- Barsch, Ray H. A Movigenic Curriculum. Madison, Wisconsin, 1965.
- Barzun, Jacques and Henry F. Graff. The Modern Researcher. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1970.
- Benjamin, Alfred. The Helping Interview. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1969.
- Berlin, Isaiah. Historical Inevitability. London: Oxford University Press, 1955.
- Bertrand, Russell. Portraits from Memory and Other Essays. London: George Allen, 1956.
- Best, John W. Research in Education. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1959.
- Bice, Harry V. Services for Retarded Children. Trenton, New Jersey: New Jersey State Department of Health.
- Billington, Ray Allen. Allan Nevins on History. New York: Charles Scribner, 1975.
- Bingham, Walter Van Dyke and Bruce Victor Moore. How to Interview. New York: Harper and Row, 1959.
- Carr, Edward Hallett. What is History? London: MacMillan and Company Ltd., 1961.

- Clark, G. Kitson. The Critical Historian. New York: Basic Books Inc., 1967.
- Clarks, Mrs. John R. A Study in Progress. New Jersey Association for Retarded Children, 1969.
- Commanger, Henry Steele. The Nature and the Study of History. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, 1965.
- Commissioner's Advisory Council for the Handicapped 1972-1974. Twentieth Year Report on Education Programs and Services for the Handicapped in New Jersey Schools. Trenton, New Jersey: New Jersey Department of Education Branch of Special Education and Pupil Personnel Services.
- Corey, Stephen M. Action Research to Improve School Practices. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953.
- Crawford, Claude C. The Technique of Research in Education. Los Angeles, California: University of Southern California, 1928.
- Cruickshank, William M. (ed.) The Teacher of Brain Injured Children. Syracuse, New York: Syracuse University Press, 1966.
- Cruickshank, W.M., F. A. Bentzen, et al. A Teaching Method for Brain Injured and Hyperactive Children. Syracuse, New York: Syracuse University Press, 1961.
- Cruickshank, W.M., Bice, H.V., and N. E. Wallen. Perception and Cerebral Palsy. Syracuse: Syracuse University Press, 1957.
- Delacato, Carl H. Neurological Organization and Reading. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1966.
- Delacato, Carl. The Treatment and Prevention of Reading Problems. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1959.
- Dewey, John. How We Think. Boston: D. C. Heath, 1933.

- DeYoung, Chris A. Introduction to American Public Education. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1942.
- Doll, E.A., Savitz, J.J., Goddard, H.H. and Anderson, Meta. The Teaching of Children Mentally Three Years or More Below Normal. Trenton, N.J.: State of New Jersey, Department of Public Instruction, 1918.
- Fallaci, Oriana. Interview with History. New York: Liveright Publishing Company, 1976.
- Freeman, Frank S. Theory and Practice of Psychological Testing, 3rd ed. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1962.
- Frostig, M.D., Lefever, W., and R. B. Whittlesey. The Marianne Frostig Developmental Test of Visual Perception. Palo Alto: Consulting Psychology Press, 1964.
- Garrett, Annette. Interviewing, Its Principles and Methods. New York: Family Service Association of America, 1972.
- Gawronski, Donald V. History, Meaning and Method. Glenview, Illinois: Scott Foresman and Company, 1975.
- George, Rev. H. B. Historical Evidence. London: University of Oxford, 1909.
- Getman, G.N., and E.R. Kane, et al. The Physiology of Readiness. Minneapolis, Minn.: Programs to Accelerate School Success. 1964.
- Getman, G.N. and N. C. Kephart. The Perceptual Development of Retarded children. Luverne, Minn.: Purdue University, 1956.
- Goddard, Henry H. School Training of Defective Children. Yonkers, New York: World Book Company, 1914.
- Goldstein, Kurt. Handbook of Normal Pathology and Psychology. Berlin: J. Springer, 1927.
- Goldstein, Kurt. The Organism. New York: American Book. 1939.

- Good, Carter V. How To Do Research in Education.  
Baltimore: Warwick and York Inc., 1928.
- Good, Carter V. Introduction to Educational Research.  
New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1959.
- Gordon, Raymond L. Interviewing Strategy, Techniques  
and Tactics. Homewood, Illinois: The Dorsey Press,  
1969.
- Gottschalk, Louis (ed.) Generalization in the Writing of  
History. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1963.
- Hallahan, Daniel P. and William M. Cruickshank. Psycho-  
educational Foundations of Learning Disabilities.  
Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1973.
- Hay, Archie. Country Boards of Special Services. Bergen  
County, N.J.: Board of Education, Bergen County  
1971.
- Head, Harold. Aphasia and Kindred Disorders, Vol. 2.  
Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1926.
- Higham, John, Krieger, Leonard, and Felix Gilbert.  
History, The Princeton Studies. Englewood Cliffs,  
N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1965.
- Hillway, Tyrus. Introduction to Research. Boston:  
Houghton Mifflin Company, 1964.
- Hiskey, Marshall S. Hiskey-Nebraska Test of Learning  
Aptitude Manual. Lincoln, Nebraska: Union College  
Press, 1966.
- Hockett, Homer Carey. The Critical Method in Historical  
Research and Writing. New York: The MacMillan Co.  
1955.
- Hyman, Herbert H. Interviewing in Social Research.  
Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1954.
- Isaac, Stephen and William B. Michael. Handbook in  
Research and Evaluation. San Diego, California:  
Edits Publishers, 1977.
- Johnson, Allen. The Historian and Historical Evidence.  
New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1930.

- Johnson, Doris and Helmer Myklebust. Learning Disabilities. New York: Grune and Stratton, 1969.
- Jones, Ralph H. Methods and Techniques of Educational Research. Danville, Illinois: The Interstate Printers and Publishers, 1974.
- Jordan, Thomas E. The Exceptional Child. Columbus, Ohio; Charles E. Merrill, 1965.
- Kephart, Newell C. The Slow Learner in the Classroom. 1st ed., Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1960.
- Kirk, Samuel A. The Diagnosis and Remediation of Learning Disabilities. Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1966.
- Kirk, Samuel A. Educating Exceptional Children. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1962.
- Kirk, S.A., McCarthy, J.J., and W. D. Kirk. Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities. Urbana: University of Illinois Press., 1961.
- Kirk, Samuel and Jeanne R. McCarthy. Learning Disabilities, Selected ACLD Papers. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1975.
- Malin, James C. On the Nature of History. Lawrence, Kansas: Edwards Bros., Inc., 1954.
- Mararazzo, Joseph D. and Arthur P. Wiens. The Interview. Chicago: Aldine-Atherton, 1972.
- Moak, H. The Troubled Child. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1958.
- Myers, P.I., and D. D. Hammill. Methods for Learning Disorders. New York: John Wiley, 1969.
- Myklebust, H.R., Samuel A. Kirk and Wesley Becker (eds.) Conference on Children with Minimal Brain Impairment., Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois, 1963.
- McCarthy, J. J. and J. F. McCarthy. Learning Disabilities. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1969.

- Nevins, Allan. The Gateway to History. Garden City, New York: Doubleday, 1962.
- National Information Center for the Handicapped. Closer Look. Washington, D. C. 1976.
- New Jersey Association for Retarded Children. The Classroom Teacher Can Help the Handicapped Child. Trenton, N.J.: State of New Jersey Dept. of Education, 1947.
- New Jersey State Department of Education. T & E - A Primer for School Improvement in New Jersey. Trenton, New Jersey, Department of Education, 1975.
- New Jersey State Department of Education, T & E - A Guide for Planning. Trenton, New Jersey: State Department of Education, 1976.
- Ortega y Gasset, Jose. History As A System. New York: W. W. Norton and Company, 1976.
- Orton, Samuel. Reading, Writing and Speech Problems in Children. New York: Norton and Company, 1937.
- Paraskevopoulos, John N. and Samuel A. Kirk. The Development and Psychometric Characteristics of the Revised Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities. Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1969.
- Public Relations Committee. The New Jersey Conference on Handicapped Directory. Trenton, N.J.: Special Services for Handicapped of New Jersey, 1951.
- Rainear, Arthur. Resource Room Approach to Mainstreaming. Pitman, N.J.: Educational Improvement Center.
- Renier, G. J. History, It's Purpose and Method. Boston: The Beacon Press, 1950.
- Robertson, Archibald. How To Read History. New York: Frederick Unger Publishing Co., 1952 and 1963.
- Rummel, J. Francis. An Introduction to Research Procedures in Education. New York: Harper and Row, 1964.

- Sapir, Selma G. and Ann C. Nitzburg (eds.) Children with Learning Problems. New York: Brunner/Mazel, 1973.
- Small, Leonard. Neuropsychodiagnosis. New York: Brunner/Mazel, 1973.
- Smith, Bert Kruger. Your Non-Learning Child. Boston: Beacon Press, 1969.
- Smith, Page. The Historian and History. New York: Alfred H. Knopf, 1964.
- Snyder, Phil. (ed.) (Carl Becker, Essays and Letters of Carl Becker) Detachment and the Writing of History. Ithaca, New York: Cornell University Press, 1958.
- Stephens, Lester D. Probing the Past. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1974.
- Strauss, A. A. and Kephart, N. C. Psychopathology and Education of the Brain Injured Child. New York: Grune and Stratton, 1965.
- Strauss, Alfred A. and Laura Lehtinen. Psychopathology and Education of the Brain-Injured Child. New York: Grune and Stratton, 1947.
- Travers, Robert. Introduction to Educational Research. New York: The MacMillan Company, 1958.
- VanDalen, Deobold. Understanding Educational Research: An Introduction. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1973.
- Wiggin, Gladys A. Education and Nationalism. New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, 1962.
- Winks, Robin W. (ed.) The Historian As Detective. New York: Harper and Row, 1968.

## Articles

- Bateman, Barbara. "An Educator's View of a Diagnostic Approach to Learning Disorders." Learning Disorders, Vol. I, Seattle, Washington: Seattle Sequin School, 1965.
- Bender, Loretta. "Schizophrenia in Childhood" American Journal Orthopsychiatry, Vol. 26, 1956, pp. 499-506.
- Blankenship, Elise, "A First Primer on Visual Perception" Journal of Learning Disabilities. Vol. 4, No. 10, December, 1971, pp. 39-42.
- Bower, E.M., "A Process for Identifying Disturbed Children" Children, Vol. 4, 1957, pp. 143-147.
- Bower, E.M., "The Emotionally Handicapped Child and the School" Exceptional Child. Vol. 26, 1959, pp. 6-11.
- Burlington County Times, "Parent is Unhappy with I.Q. Tests" February 23, 1978, Sec. III, p. 16, Col. 4.
- Clements, S.D., Project Director, Task Force I: Monograph No. 3, Minimal Brain Dysfunction in Children, National Institute of Neurological Diseases and Blindness, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1966, pp. 9-10.
- Cruickshank, W.M. and J.E. Dolphin. "The Educational Implications of Psychological Studies of Cerebral Palsied Children." Exceptional Children. Vol. 18 January, 1951, pp. 3-11.
- Cummings, J.D., "The Incidence of Emotional Symptoms in School Children" British Journal of Educational Psychology, Vol. 14, 1944, pp. 151-161.
- deHirsch, Katrina. "Specific Dyslexia or Strephosymbolia" Folia Phoniatica, Vol. 4, 1952, pp. 231-248.
- deHirsch, Katrina. "Stuttering and Cluttering: developmental Aspects of Dysrhythmic Speech" Journal of Special Education, Vol. 3, 1969, pp. 143-153.

- deHirsch, Katrina. "Two Categories of Learning Difficulties in Adolescents" American Journal of Orthopsychiatry. Vol. 33, 1963, pp. 87-91.
- Despert, J.L., "Some Considerations Relating to the Genesis of Autistic Behavior in Children" American Journal of Orthopsychiatry. Vol. 21, 1951, pp. 335-350.
- Doll, Edgar A., "Criteria of Mental Deficiency" The Psychological Exchange. Vol. III, No. 6, March-April, 1935.
- Doll, Edgar A., "Notes on the Concept of Mental Deficiency" The American Journal of Psychology. Vol. 54, No. 1, January, 1941, pp. 116-124.
- Doman, L.J., Spitz, E.B., Zucman, E., Delacato, C.H., and G. Doman. "Children with Severe Brain Injuries" Journal of the American Medical Association. Vol. 14, 1960, pp. 257-262.
- Driellien, C.M., "The Incidence of Mental and Physical Handicaps in School Age Children of Very Low Birth Weight" Pediatrics, Vol. 27, March, 1961. pp. 452-464.
- Frankel, Emil. "The Development of the Program for the Mentally Deficient in New Jersey" American Journal of Mental Deficiency. Vol. XLV No. 1, July, 1940.
- Gibbs, F.A., et al., "Electroencephalographic Abnormality in 'Uncomplicated' Childhood Diseases" Journal of American Medical Association. Vol. 171, 1951, pp. 1050-1055.
- Glidewell, J.C. et al., "Behavior Symptoms in Children and Adjustment in Public School" Human Organism. Vol. 18, 1959, pp. 123-130.
- Goddard, Henry H., "Feeble-Mindedness: A Question of Definition" Journal of Psycho-Asthenics. Vol. 33, June, 1928, pp. 219-227.
- Goddard, Henry, et al., "Memorial to Meta Anderson" The Training School Bulletin. Vol. 40, March, 1943, pp. 1-19.

- Goldstein, Kurt. "The Modifications of Behavior Consequent to Cerebral Lesions" Psychiatric Quarterly. Vol. 10, 1936, pp. 586-610.
- Gruman, Gerald J. "Preserving the Stuff of History" Science. Vol. 127, June 27, 1958, p. 1471.
- Hersov, L.A., "Refusal to Go to School" Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry. January, 1960. pp. 137-145.
- Langsam, Walter C., "Truth in History" Bulletin of the Historical and Philosophical Society of Ohio. Vol. 16, April, 1958, pp. 95-103.
- Levy, S., "Post-Encephalitic Behavior" American Journal of Psychiatry. Vol. 115, 1959, pp. 1062-1067.
- Little, Marion A., "The Glassboro Children's Clinic" Training School Bulletin Reprint. January, 1946.
- McMillan, Penelope. "Some of TV's Best Interviewers Reveal the Tricks of the Trade" TV Guide. August 13-19, 1977, pp. 6-10.
- Pasamanick, B., et al., "Socioeconomic Status and Some Precursors of Neuropsychiatric Disorder" American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, Vol. 26, 1954, pp. 594-601.
- Robbins, M.A., "A Study of the Validity of Delacato's Theory of Neurological Organization" Exceptional Children, Vol. 32, 1966, pp. 517-523.
- Robbins, M., and G. V. Glass. "The Doman-Delacato Rationale: A Critical Analysis" Educational Therapy In J. Hellman (ed.) Vol. II, Seattle: Special Child Publications, 1969.
- Schooler, C. "Birth Order and Schizophrenia" General Psychiatry. Vol. 4, April, 1961, pp. 91-97.
- Strauss, A.A. and N. C. Kephart. "Behavior Differences in Mentally Retarded Children" American Journal of Psychiatry. Vol. 96, 1940, pp. 117-1123.
- Ullman, C.A., "Identification of Maladjusted School Children" Public Health Monthly. No. 7, July, 1952.

Werner, H., and A.A. Strauss. "Types of Visual-motor Activity in Relation to Low and High Performance Ages" Proceedings of the American Association on Mental Deficiency, Vol. 44, 1939, pp. 163-168.

Woody, Thomas. "Of History and Its Methods" Journal of Experimental Education, Vol. 15, March, 1947, pp. 175-201.

#### Unpublished Papers

Anderson, Meta L., "The Meaning of Education for the Mentally Retarded" (Presidential address to American Association of Mental Deficiency, Salt Lake City, Utah, June, 1941).

Clements, Samuel D., Lehtinen, Laura, and Jean Lukens. "Children with Minimal Brain Injury" (Paper presented at 1963 Annual Conference of the National Society for Crippled Children and Adults in Chicago) Chicago, Illinois: 1963.

Commission on the Care of Mental Defectives. "Report of the N.J. Commission on the Care of Mental Defectives" State of New Jersey, Trenton: 1914, pp. 21-24.

Commission to Study the Problems and Needs of Mentally Deficient Persons. Report to Governor Robert B. Meyner and the Members of the Senate and General Assembly. Mental Deficiency in New Jersey, 1954.

Council for Exceptional Children. Learning Disabilities Division Formulation Meeting, National Council on Exceptional Children. St. Louis, Missouri: April, 1967.

Glass, C.V., "A Critique of Experiments on the Role of Neurological Organization" (Unpublished paper) Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois. 1966.

Goddard, Henry H. "The Teaching of Children Mentally Three Years or More Below Normal" (Unpublished paper - Written for Vineland Training School as part of Teacher Training Program.

Hauser, Gregg. "Perceptions of Chief School Administrators and Child Study Team Chairpersons" (Unpublished doctoral dissertation) Fairleigh Dickinson University 1977.

- Hunt, R.G., Roach, J., and O. Gurrslin. "Social-Psychological Factors and the Psychiatric Complaints of Disturbed Children" (Unpublished paper, 1960).
- Kirk, S.A., Lecture appearing in Final Report, U.S.O.C. Contract, Advanced Institute for Leadership Personnel in Learning Disabilities, sponsored by Department of Special Education, University of Arizona, 1970. pp. 107, 108.
- Knipe, Edythe. "A Comparative Study of Two Methods of Teaching Mentally Retarded Children in Southern New Jersey" (Unpublished doctoral dissertation) New York University, 1960.
- McCallie, J.M., "Physical Properties and Equipment of a Special Class" Paper submitted to the State Department of Education, 1920.
- Myklebust, Helmer. Lecture, Advanced Institute for Leadership Personnel in Learning Disabilities, Department of Special Education, University of Arizona, 1970.
- New Jersey Association for Retarded Citizens. "History" (Unpublished) New Brunswick, New Jersey: N.J. Association for Retarded Citizens, 1969.
- New Jersey State Conference on the Handicapped. "Planning Together for Children with Exceptional Needs" Second Annual Institute, March, 1954.
- Onnembo, John Dominick. "Self-Role and Cross-Role Perceptions of the Members of the Child Study Team" (Unpublished doctoral dissertation) Fordham University, 1972.
- Parents Rights Card. From the National Committee for Citizens in Education., Columbia, Maryland.
- Summers, Joseph Vincent. "The Development of Public School Special Education Through Legislation in the State of New Jersey 1911-1968" (Unpublished doctoral dissertation) Temple University: 1969.
- U. S. Office of Education and Northwestern University. Conference on Learning Disabilities and Interrelated Handicaps. Transcript of Proceedings. August 8, 1957.

APPENDIX

APPENDIX A

INTERVIEWEES

Mr. Erwin Arbo	Assistant Director, Division of Controversies and Disputes; Hearing Examiner for the Commissioner of Education; Superintendent of Schools, Woodbury, 1970; Superintendent of Schools, Ridgefield Park; Principal, Ridgefield Park High School; Principal, Elementary School, Martha's Vineyard, Mass., 1946;
Senator Alfred Beadleston	Retired, 1977; Elected to office, 1951, Monmouth County, N.J.;
Mrs. Rosemary Berkey	LDT-C, Child Study Team, Monroe Township; Coordinator of Special Services; Reading Specialist; Teacher of Handicapped, Bancroft School, 1955; Elementary Teacher;
Mr. & Mrs. Phillip Berkley	Parents of handicapped son born 1953; Co-founders of Association for Brain-Injured Children, 1959;
Dr. Harry Bice	Retired, 1966; Psychologist; Psychologist for Crippled Children's Commission, Vineland; Collaborated with William Cruickshank, 1957;
Dr. Marion Bickley	Professor, Glassboro State College, Advisor Graduate Program in Learning Disabilities; Teacher of "High Risk" first grade class, 1955;

APPENDIX A (Cont'd.)

Mr. Norman Bleshman	Parent of handicapped child; Member of School Boards State Committee on Educational Facilities for the Handicapped; Member, Board of Education, Bergenfield, N. J. Co-founder of Association for Brain- Injured Children, 1959;
Dr. Elizabeth Boggs	Parent of Profoundly Retarded Child, 1945; Co-founder of National Association of Retarded Children; Mathematician and Chemist, 1940;
Dr. George Boone	Retired, 1968; Director of Education for Handicapped, State Department of Education, 1960; Director, Children's Bureau, Passaic, N.J.; Principal, Junior High School,
Mr. Richard D. Byham	Supervisor, School Psychology, Region III, Child Study Team; Elementary Guidance Director, 1956; Teacher, 1952, Mount Holly;
Mr. Orlando Campesi	Child Study Supervisor, Bergen County; LDT-C, 1972; Teacher in Parochial School; Brother of a retarded child;
Mr. Joseph Capella	Chief of the Office of States Compliance Bureau of Special Education and Pupil Personnel Services; Coordinator of Special Education, Hightstown, 1964; Supervisor, Child Study, Burlington County, 1960; Substitute Teacher of mentally retarded, 1955;

APPENDIX A (Cont'd.)

Miss Vicentz Cianci	Coordinator of Pre-School for the Handicapped, State Department of Education; Child Study Supervisor, 1955; Head Teacher, Woodbine Institution, 1945; Teacher, Totowa School for Retarded, 1941;
Mr. Carmine DeSopo	Superintendent, Burlington County Special Services School District, 1973; Instructor, Paterson State College, Demonstration Class of Handicapped children; Classroom teacher, 1963;
Miss Elizabeth Dilks	Retired, 1970; Psychologist, Child Study Team Cape May County; Helping Teacher, 1931; Classroom teacher, 1922;
Mrs. Eleanor Englebrecht	State Consultant in School Social Work; Coordinator of Non-Public School Eligibility, 1969; Psychiatric Social Worker, Child Study Team, Freehold, 1964;
Dr. Roland Esbjornsen	Retired, 1956; Director Physical Education Department, Glassboro State College; Founded class for Orthopedically Handicapped, 1941;
Dr. Dominic Flamini	Chairman, Special Education Services and Department, Glassboro State College; Pupil Personnel Director, Glassboro Public Schools, 1962; School Psychologist, Glassboro Public Schools, 1960;
Dr. Muriel Gardiner	Retired, 1970; Psychiatric Consultant for New Jersey State Department of Education, 1960;

APPENDIX A (Cont'd.)

- Psychiatrist, Bucks County  
Pennsylvania, 1957;  
Studied Psychoanalysis, Vienna,  
1920;
- Dr. George Gens                      Professor, Kean College, Newark;  
Speech Clinician;  
Director of Speech and Hearing  
Clinic, Vineland Training  
School, 1948;
- Miss Sophia Ghagan                  Supervisor, Child Study,  
Cumberland County, 1958;  
Vineland Supervisor, 1954;  
Classroom teacher, 1941;
- Dr. Michael Gilligan                  Retired, 1967; Professor, Jersey  
City State College;  
Instructor, Newark State College,  
1948;  
Director, A. Harry Moore School,  
Jersey City;  
Adjunct Faculty, New York  
University, 1945;  
Classroom teacher, Principal, 1940;
- Dr. Marietta Gruenert                Professor, Special Education,  
William Paterson College;  
Pre-Medical Student, 1950;  
Teacher, Mathematics and Biology,  
1938;
- Dr. Norman Hafemeister              Professor, Special Education Depart-  
ment, Glassboro State College;  
Created undergraduate program for  
teachers of handicapped, 1962;  
Student, Milwaukee Teachers  
College, 1933;
- Dr. Archie Hay                        Retired, 1976; Developed Special  
Services District, 1970;  
Superintendent of Bergen County,  
1976;  
Superintendent of Schools,  
Wykoff, 1949;

APPENDIX A (Cont'd.)

- Dr. Merrell T. Hollinshead Retired, 1972; Professor Emeritus, Educational Psychology, New York University;  
 Director, Child Guidance and Special Education, Newark, 1960;  
 School Psychologist, Newark, 1940;  
 Supervisor of Special Services, Elizabeth, 1938;  
 School Psychologist, Elizabeth, 1936;
- Mrs. Faye Holmes Supervisor, Child Study, Gloucester County,  
 Teacher, Bancroft School, 1950;  
 Neighbor of retarded child, 1930;
- Miss Anne S. Hoppock Retired, 1969; Director of Elementary Education, State Department of Education;  
 Assistant Elementary Educator, 1945;  
 Helping Teacher, Warren County, 1931;  
 Elementary School Teacher, 1930;
- Dr. James Jan-Tausch Assistant to President, St. Elizabeth College;  
 Director of Remedial Instruction, State Department of Education, 1960;  
 School Psychologist, Springfield  
 Director of Reading, Newark State College, 1959;
- Mr. Herbert Kahn Parent of handicapped child born in 1960;  
 President, Board of Special Services School District, Bergen County, 1977;  
 Co-founder of COSED, 1965;
- Dr. Elizabeth Kelly Retired, 1963; Assistant Superintendent, Director of Special Services, Newark;  
 School Psychologist, 1935;  
 Teacher of exceptional children, Newark, 1930;  
 Elementary school teacher, 1926;

APPENDIX A (Cont'd.)

- Miss Caroline Kirschner Retired, 1958; Teacher of  
crippled children;  
School Psychologist, Newark, 1932;  
Teacher of mentally retarded,  
Atlantic City, 1925;  
Student teacher, Campus Model  
School, Trenton State College,  
1922;
- Dr. Edythe Knipe Psychologist, Bancroft School;  
Principal of elementary school,  
Willingboro, 1968;  
Director of Childrens' SeaShore  
House, 1962;  
Supervisor Child Study for six  
counties, 1954;  
Helping Teacher, Gloucester  
County, 1950;  
Auxillary teacher of mentally retarded;
- Dr. Maurice Kott Director of Division of Mental  
Retardation, Department of Human  
Services;  
Clinical Psychologist, 1953;  
Chief Psychologist for State of New  
Jersey, 1950;  
Psychologist in state sponsored  
traveling clinic, 1948;
- Dr. Russell Layden Superintendent, Bergen County Special  
School District;  
Teacher, Lisbon State Colony,  
Vineland Training School,  
Bordentown Reformatory;  
Public School teacher, Pennsylvania,  
1954;
- Dr. Marion Little Retired, 1970; School Psychologist;  
Professor, Glassboro State College,  
1940;  
Remedial Reading Clinic, Glassboro,  
1931;  
Classroom teacher, 1920;

APPENDIX A (Cont'd.)

Mrs. Edla Morton Retired, 1969; Supervisor Child Study, Monmouth County; Special Education teacher, New York, 1947; Classroom teacher, Westfield, 1940; Taught retarded in regular class, 1940;

Dr. Boyd Nelson Retired, 1969; Director of Special Education, State Department of Education, 1955; Superintendent of School of Deaf and Blind, Utah, 1950;

Dr. Dorothea Partch Retired, 1975; Helping teacher, Camden County; Helping teacher, Middlesex, Cape May Counties, 1935; Classroom teacher, Atlantic City, 1928;

Mr. Paul Porado Acting Deputy Assistant Commissioner, Bureau of Pupil Personnel Services; Teacher of handicapped, Camden, 1954; Recreational Director, Pennsylvania;

Dr. Frederick Raubinger Retired, 1966; State Commissioner of Education; Organized Department of Education; Superintendent of Schools, Ridgefield, 1950; Superintendent Vineland Training School, 1940;

Dr. James Richardson Director, Bureau of Special Education and Pupil Personnel Services; Coordinator of Non-Public Schools, 1973; Supervisor of Child Study, Warren County, 1966; Teacher of handicapped, private school, 1950; Secondary school Biology teacher training;

APPENDIX A (Cont'd.)

- Dr. Daniel Ringelheim      Director of Division of Assistance to States, Bureau of Education for the Handicapped, U.S. Office of Education, HEW, 1976;  
Deputy Assistant Commissioner of Education, Branch of Special Education and Pupil Personnel, State of New Jersey, 1969;  
School Psychologist, East Orange, 1965;  
Classroom teacher, East Orange, 1958;
- Dr. Robert Rowen      Associate Professor, School of Social Work, University of Tennessee;  
Director of School Social Work, State Department of Education, New Jersey, 1960;  
Associate Director of Special Education, 1966;  
Director of Recreation Department, Madison, Wisconsin, 1952;  
Probation and Parole Officer, Wisconsin, 1955;  
School Social Worker, 1950;
- Dr. J. Kirk Seaton      Retired, 1968; Director of Center for Psych-Social Studies;  
Director of School Psychology, State Department of Education, 1960;  
Special Education Supervisor and Director of Guidance Department, Elizabeth, 1940;  
Social Studies Teacher, Elizabeth, 1927;
- Dr. Serge Sobolovitch      Chairman, Department of Languages and Linguistics, Professor, Livingston College;  
Parent of autistic son, 1960;  
Co-founder of COSED in 1965;
- Miss Mary Symonds      Retired, 1968; Supervisor of School Social work, Burlington, Hunterdon, Mercer Counties;

APPENDIX A (Cont'd.)

	Home and School Instructor, 1940; Registered Nurse, Operating Room Supervisor;
Miss Josephine Taylor	Director of Personnel Preparation, Bureau of Education for the Handicapped, HEW; Trained as psychologist; Housemother in Nursery School for blind children; Instructor of parents of blind children and Pre-School Blind, Commission for the Blind, 1942; Trained itinerant teachers, 1934;
Dr. Lenore Vaughn-Eames	Retired, 1968; Professor of English, Newark State College; Established training program for teachers of special education in early 1940's;
Mrs. Margaret Whiting	Retired, 1976; Supervisor Child Study, Monmouth County; Supervisor of Reading and Remedial Instructor, Ocean Township, 1950; LDT-C on Child Study Team, 1961;

APPENDIX B

IDENTIFICATION OF INTERVIEWEES

<u>CONTRIBUTOR</u>		<u>REFERRED BY</u>
Meta Anderson	Elizabeth Boggs Merrell Hollinshead James Jan-Tausch	Elizabeth Kelly Caroline Kirschner Maurice Kott
Alfred Beadleston	Norman Bleshman Joseph Capella Vincentz Cianci Eleanor Englebrecht Michael Gilligan	Norman Hafemeister Elizabeth Kelly Maurice Kott Paul Porado Fred Raubinger James Richardson
Harry Bice	Marietta Gruenert Russell Layden	Paul Porado Josephine Taylor
Norman Bleshman	Herbert Kahn	Serge Sobolovitch
Elizabeth Boggs	Alfred Beadleston George Boone Elizabeth Dilks Dominic Flamini George Gens Merrell Hollinshead Herbert Kahn Elizabeth Kelly Edythe Knipe	Maurice Kott Russell Layden Boyd Nelson Paul Porado Fred Raubinger James Richardson Dan Ringelheim Robert Rowen Lenore Vaughn-Eames
Fitzhugh Boggs	Elizabeth Dilks Maurice Kott	Lenore Vaughn-Eames
George Boone	Joseph Capella Muriel Gardiner George Gens Archie Hay Faye Holmes Anne Hoppock James Jan-Tausch Elizabeth Kelly	Edythe Knipe Russell Layden Edla Morton Boyd Nelson Paul Porado Mary Symonds Margaret Whiting
Orlando Campesi	Archie Hay	John Mangan
Vincentz Cianci	Rosemary Berkey Joseph Capella George Gens Michael Gilligan	Marietta Gruenert Edythe Knipe Paul Porado

APPENDIX B (Cont'd.)

<u>CONTRIBUTOR</u>	<u>REFERRED BY</u>	
Elizabeth Dilks	Marion Little	
Carmine DeSopo	Orlando Campesi Marietta Gruenert	Russell Layden
Edgar Doll	Elizabeth Boggs George Gens	Dan Ringelheim Marion Little
Eleanor Englebrecht	Paul Porado	Lenore Vaughn-Eames
Roland Esbjornsen	Rosemary Berkey	Marion Little
Muriel Gardiner	Richard Byham	Mary Symonds
Sophie Ghagan	Rosemary Berkey	Edythe Knipe
Marietta Gruenert	Harry Bice	Carmine DeSopo
Archie Hay	Norman Bleshman Orlando Campesi	Carmine DeSopo Herbert Kahn
Merrell T. Hollinshead	Elizabeth Kelly	Maurice Kott
Anne Hoppock	Elizabeth Boggs George Boone Merrell Hollinshead	Elizabeth Kelly Kirk Seaton Josephine Taylor
James Jan-Tausch	George Boone Orlando Campesi Joseph Capella Eleanor Englebrecht Dominic Flamini Muriel Gardiner Michael Gilligan Faye Holmes	Anne Hoppock Elizabeth Kelly Boyd Nelson Paul Porado Fred Raubinger Dan Ringelheim Mary Symonds Margaret Whiting
Charles Jochem	George Boone Vincentz Cianci George Gens Sophie Ghagan Merrell Hollinshead	Maurice Kott Russell Layden Paul Porado Josephine Taylor
Herbert Kahn	Archie Hay	Serge Sobolovitch

APPENDIX B (Cont'd.)

<u>CONTRIBUTOR</u>	<u>REFERRED BY</u>	
Elizabeth Kelly	Harry Bice Elizabeth Boggs George Boone Vincentz Cianci Marietta Gruenert Merrell Hollinshead Edythe Knipe	Maurice Kott Russell Layden Edla Morton Boyd Nelson Paul Porado Robert Rowen Josephine Taylor
Edythe Knipe	Rosemary Berkey Sophie Ghagan Marion Little	Paul Porado Mary Symonds
Maurice Kott	Norman Hafemeister Merrell Hollinshead Russell Layden	Boyd Nelson Paul Porado Josephine Taylor
Russell Layden	George Boone	Paul Porado
Marion Little	Rosemary Berkey Elizabeth Dilks	Dominic Flamini Edythe Knipe
Edla Morton	Joseph Capella Sophie Ghagan Edythe Knipe	Paul Porado Mary Symonds
Boyd Nelson	Harry Bice Elizabeth Boggs George Boone Joseph Capella Muriel Gardiner George Gens Sophie Ghagan Norman Hafemeister Archie Hay Faye Holmes Anne Hoppock	James Jan-Tausch Edythe Knipe Russell Layden Edla Morton Paul Porado Fred Raubinger James Richardson Dan Ringelheim Mary Symonds Josephine Taylor Margaret Whiting
James Richardson	Paul Porado	Lenore Vaughn-Eames
Daniel Ringelheim	Joseph Capella Eleanor Englebrecht	Merrell Hollinshead Josephine Taylor

APPENDIX B (Cont'd.)

<u>CONTRIBUTOR</u>	<u>REFERRED BY</u>	
Robert Rowen	George Boone Muriel Gardiner Faye Holmes James Jan-Tausch	Boyd Nelson Paul Porado Mary Symonds Margaret Whiting
Kirk Seaton	George Boone Muriel Gardiner George Gens Archie Hay Faye Holmes Anne Hoppock James Jan-Tausch	Elizabeth Kelly Maurice Kott Boyd Nelson Paul Porado Fred Raubinger Mary Symonds
Mary Symonds	Richard Byham Sophie Ghagan	Robert Rowen
Josephine Taylor	Vincentz Cianci George Gens	Edla Morton Paul Porado
Lenore Vaughn-Eames	George Boone George Gens Edythe Knipe	Paul Porado Kirk Seaton Josephine Taylor
Lloyd Yepsen	Harry Bice Vincentz Cianci George Gens	Russell Layden Josephine Taylor
William Cruickshank	Norman Hafemeister	Harry Bice
Arthur Goddard	Elizabeth Boggs	
Samuel Kirk	Norman Hafemeister	
J. Wallace Wallin	Elizabeth Boggs	
Helmer Myklebust	Daniel Ringelheim	

APPENDIX C

<u>ORGANIZATION</u>	<u>REFERRED BY</u>	
Conference on the Handicapped	Rosemary Berkey Elizabeth Boggs George Boone Vincentz Cianci Eleanor Englebrecht George Gens Sophie Ghagan Michael Gilligan	Merrell Hollinshead Anne Hoppock Edythe Knipe Maurice Kott Edla Morton Robert Rowen Kirk Seaton Josephine Taylor
New Jersey Association for Retarded Children	Alfred Beadleston Harry Bice Norman Bleshman Elizabeth Boggs George Boone Joseph Capella Vincentz Cianci Elizabeth Dilks Dominic Flamini Norman Hafemeister Merrell Hollinshead	Faye Holmes Elizabeth Kelly Maurice Kott Russell Layden Boyd Nelson Paul Porado Frederick Raubinger James Richardson Daniel Ringelheim Josephine Taylor
Association for Children with Learning Disabilities	Marion Bickley Orlando Campesi Joseph Capella Dominic Flamini	Norman Hafemeister Faye Holmes Daniel Ringelheim
Society of Autistic Children	Joseph Capella Herbert Kahn	Serge Sobolovitch
Inter-Agency for the Handicapped	Herbert Kahn	
New Jersey Speech and Hearing Association	George Gens	
Commission for the Blind	Alfred Beadleston	Mary Symonds

APPENDIX C (Cont'd.)

<u>ORGANIZATION</u>	<u>REFERRED BY</u>	
New Jersey Welfare Council	Robert Rowen	
Parents of the Deaf Council for Exceptional Children	Alfred Beadleston	Joseph Capella
	George Boone	Dominic Flamini

APPENDIX D

LANDMARKS

NAMED BY

Beadleston Act of 1954

Erwin Arbo  
Harry Bice  
Norman Bleshman  
George Boone  
Joseph Capella  
Vincentz Cianci  
Eleanor Englebrecht

Sophie Ghagan  
Faye Holmes  
Maurice Kott  
Edla Morton  
Daniel Ringelheim  
Marietta Gruenert

Beadleston Acts (and  
Grossi Amendments)

Rosemary Berkey  
Richard Byham  
Joseph Capella  
George Gens  
Marietta Gruenert  
Merrell Hollinshead

Herbert Kahn  
Edythe Knipe  
Russell Layden  
Robert Rowen  
Kirk Seaton  
Serge Sobolovitch

Concept of Team Approach  
and Establishment of  
Child Study Team

Marion Bickley  
Orlando Campesi  
Muriel Gardiner  
Merrell Hollinshead  
Faye Holmes  
Anne Hoppock

James Jan-Tausch  
Marion Little  
Edla Morton  
Paul Porado  
Josephine Taylor

1966 Revision of All  
Special Education  
Legislation

James Jan-Tausch  
Frederick Raubinger

James Richardson  
Margaret Whiting

Advisory Council to  
Dr. Nelson

George Boone

Creation of Department  
of Education and/or  
Department of Special  
Education

Merrell Hollinshead

Vincentz Cianci

Commissioner of Education's  
Commission on the  
Education of the  
Handicapped, 1965

Alfred Beadleston

Elizabeth Boggs

Charles Jochem Survey

Dominic Flamini

APPENDIX D (Cont'd.)

<u>LANDMARKS</u>	<u>NAMED BY</u>	
Creation of Vocational Programs for the Handicapped	Norman Bleshman	Carmine DeSopo
Helping Teachers	Mary Symonds	Dorothea Partch
1911 Legislation	Alfred Beadleston Elizabeth Boggs	Kirk Seaton
1918 Law Regarding Crippled Children	Alfred Beadleston	
Groups of Individuals	Archie Hay	
Organization of the Parents Association for Retarded Children	Boyd Nelson	Elizabeth Boggs
Establishment of Conference on the Handicapped	Josephine Taylor	
Rubella Epidemic in the Mid 1950's	Lenore Vaughn-Eames	Joseph Capella
Establishment of Vineland School for Mentally Retarded in 1888 and Katzenbach School for the Deaf in 1883	Alfred Beadleston	
Classes for the Blind Established in 1910 in Newark and Jersey City	Alfred Beadleston Merrell Hollinshead	Elizabeth Kelly
Doctoral Study by Darrell Mace on Hard of Hearing and Speech Defect Children	Michael Gilligan	
Recognition Since W.W. II of Need for more Alternatives	Norman Hafemeister	

VITA

Name: Shirley T. Staub

Place of Birth: Scranton, Pennsylvania

Parents: Mr. and Mrs. Glyn Treharne

High School: West Scranton Senior High  
School  
Scranton, Pennsylvania

College: Mansfield State Teachers  
College  
Mansfield, Pennsylvania

B. S. in Secondary  
Education, 1953

Glassboro State College  
Glassboro, New Jersey

M. Ed. in Reading, 1969  
LDTC in 1972.