

A STUDY OF THE BACKGROUNDS, SCHOOL PROGRESS,  
AND WORK RECORDS OF FIFTY BOYS AND GIRLS  
IN THE JUNIOR HIGH UNGRADED PROGRAM

A Thesis

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## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study, in general terms, was to attempt to discover in the interaction between the educable retardate's environment and his personal characteristics, any elements that might be used to improve his general functioning.

Respondents in the survey were twenty-nine boys and twenty-one girls who had attended ungraded classes in two Winnipeg junior high schools in the period between September 1947 and June 1962. Certain basic information was obtained from school records and this was later supplemented and amplified through personal interviews with the respondents and their parents. An interview schedule was used.

When the findings were analysed, six inter-related factors emerged. These were judged by the investigator to be of greater influence on the lives of the respondents than other elements in the study. The six factors were as follows: parents' financial status, steadiness of the father's employment, parents' education, family mobility, parents' occupation or occupations, and, finally, parents' attitude to the education of their children.

Recommendations made included the following:

There is a need for more research into the characteristics and special needs of the retarded child.

Location of the retarded child and perhaps assignment into appropriate programs should be done earlier. Repeated failures build up negative attitudes that are later difficult to erase.

Closer liaison, with mutual benefit, might be established between

school and industry.

More junior technical schools should be set up to give trade's training at a level appropriate to the mildly retarded child's needs.

Since there appeared to be a close relationship between poverty and retardation, a careful look needs to be taken at means of supplementing low incomes. The present system of welfare leaves much to be desired.

Greater use, perhaps in a modified form, should be made of such programs as nursery schools, "Higher Horizons," and "Headstart."

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## CHAPTER I

### STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM, DEFINITION OF TERMS, AND METHODOLOGY

#### I. INTRODUCTION

In Winnipeg, for a number of years, ungraded classes have been used to help students who have had difficulty achieving in the regular academic program. Such classes were set up at both the elementary and the junior high levels. Although it was no longer expected that every student would progress in every subject at a uniform rate, the focus of the teaching was still primarily academic. Prior to 1962, few changes were made that might have given the slow-learning child a school experience bearing some relationship to the world of work. Lowered performance expectations relieved the child of some anxiety and frustration, but the program, in general, appeared to lack any clear direction or purpose.

As part of his social work routine in the schools, the writer had occasion over a five-year period to interview many of these students and their parents. Concern for these young people and a developing awareness of their needs helped in the formulation of the research problem. How adequate was their training for the role they would have to assume in society? Was there any relationship between school assignments and possible employment opportunities? Was there a connection between the home environment and the youngster's school progress? These and other questions demanded an answer. Although some information could still be gleaned from school records, data about the students' lives after leaving school were lacking.

## II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The problem, generally stated, was an attempt to discover in the interaction between the retardate's environment and his personal characteristics any elements that could be used to improve his general functioning.

More specifically, the research was an attempt to discover answers to these questions:

1. What relationships appear to exist between selected aspects of the educable retarded student's home environment and certain school and work experiences?
2. What relationships appear to exist between the educable retarded student's personal characteristics and certain school and work experiences?
3. What relationships appear to exist between selected aspects of the educable retarded student's school record and his work experience?

### Limitations

1. Because the group selected came from a predominantly lower socioeconomic class area with a high percentage of foreign-born parents, conclusions cannot be accepted as valid for all students in all junior high ungraded classes.
2. Six students could not be interviewed. The statements made by parents and relatives in these cases cannot be assumed to have the same validity as the statements made by the individuals concerned.
3. In five instances, more than one child from the same family appeared in the selected group. This limited to some degree, the

possibility of variation in the home backgrounds.

4. Because of the shortage of suitable cases and a wide variation in the times of entering and leaving the program, some students were selected whose exposure to the ungraded classes was very brief. Some inequality must, therefore, exist when comparing these students with others who had received more training.

### III. DEFINITION OF TERMS

#### Junior High School Ungraded Classes

An ungraded class at the junior high school level consisted of approximately fifteen students whose intelligence ratings on an individual test by a qualified psychologist ranged between fifty and eighty. The majority of these students were graduates from the elementary school ungraded program but a few made the transition directly from a regular Grade VI. Placement was always made at the discretion of the Director of Special Education of the Winnipeg School Division No. I.

#### Department of Special Education

The Department of Special Education, the Winnipeg School Division No. I, is administered by a Director and serves the needs of exceptional children, ". . . those who deviate so far from what is normal that they require special education service to develop to their maximum."<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Nelson B. Henry (ed.), The Education of Exceptional Children, National Society for the Study of Education, 49th Yearbook, Part II, (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950), p. 3.

#### IV. METHODOLOGY

##### The Schools

Two schools were involved in the study. The districts in which they were located were in the older part of the city and were characterized by substandard housing, scattered industrial and commercial establishments, with a lack of parks and recreational facilities. The majority of people belonged to the lower socioeconomic group. The bulk of the population were of central European origin, with significant numbers of Indians and Metis.

School A contained thirty classrooms. In addition to the regular junior high classes, five special education classes were registered. School B contained fifty-one classrooms and included seven special education classes, along with regular classes at both the junior high and elementary levels.

##### The Respondents

The group consisted of individuals who had attended either School A or School B in the period between September 1947 and June 1962, both dates inclusive. Students who could not be located were excluded from the study. No attempt was made to select an equal number of boys and girls. Fifty individuals, twenty-nine boys and twenty-one girls, supplied the basic data for the study.

During the summer of 1965, school records were scrutinized to provide a list of potential respondents. From this initial list, fifty students were chosen, largely on the basis of availability, and interviewed during the summer of 1966.

### Collection of the Data

The structured interview technique was employed to collect data from each respondent or from the respondent's parents. A copy of this schedule is included in the Appendix. School records were utilized to provide information about the respondent's intelligence, personal adjustment, academic progress, and attendance.

### Explanation of Interview Schedule

The short section above "Personal Information" was included for purposes of identification. "Religious Affiliation" appeared on the schedule but the information collected was later discarded as lacking in relevancy to the problem.

"Personal Information" gave information about the respondent himself. Data concerning "Personal Adjustment" were collected but not used because they lacked sufficient validity.

"Home Information" brought together certain details regarding the home and family. A subjective rating was made on housing standards but this was not included in the study.

The purpose of the "School Record" was to serve as a source for certain relevant information about the respondent's school career. As part of this record, an attempt was made to identify the grade at which learning difficulties were first experienced. This proved impossible to establish with any degree of clarity and was abandoned.

"Types of Employment" under "Work Record" included all the jobs, within memory, at which the respondent had worked. Exact rates of pay were difficult to establish accurately because of problems in recall and widely varying rates. Wages, as recorded, represent a general average.

### Analysis of the Data

For the most part, respondents' replies and other information collected were used in the raw form. Data fell, generally, into four categories: personal, home, school, and work. Item responses in these categories were formed into tables (see Appendix) for further study and analysis. As various relationships and inter-relationships became apparent, the smaller tables presented in Chapter III were compiled.



## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

In this chapter a review will be made of some of the available literature on the retarded child. In this review, by presenting the opinions of a number of authorities, it is hoped that the depth and breadth of the study will be increased. Special attention will be paid to areas of agreement and disagreement with the present research as it concerns definition of the retarded child, his personal characteristics and various influences impinging on him from his environment.

In writing about the retarded child, the main focus appears to have been on curriculum and teaching methods with less attention being paid to such things as emotional factors and social development.

#### I. DEFINITION

In spite of some effort to improve the situation, there is still a lack of standardization in both terminology and classification with reference to the mentally retarded. For example, Weber, quoting the State Department of Public Instruction of Indiana, classifies the educable mentally retarded as:

. . . children with intelligence quotients of approximately 50 to 70 on either the Revised Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale or the Wechsler-Bellevue Intelligence Scale for Children, with a reasonable deviation at either end of the scale.<sup>1</sup>

In another book published the following year, the same writer

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<sup>1</sup>Elmer W. Weber, Educable and Trainable Mentally Retarded Children (Springfield, Ill.: Chas. C. Thomas, 1962), p. 42.

modifies the limits for the educable retarded to include those having a mental age in the range from six to twelve years and an I.Q. between fifty-five and seventy-nine.<sup>2</sup>

Slaughter's definition for the retarded group is essentially the same as Weber's but his upper boundaries are set at seventy, seventy-five, and, in some cases, eighty, respectively.<sup>3</sup>

Halbert and Nancy Robinson state:

Educable retarded children have been defined as having I.Q.'s from 50 to 75; they are expected eventually to achieve academic work at least to the third-grade level and occasionally to the sixth-grade level by school leaving age; as adults, they are expected to be socially adequate and capable of unskilled or semi-skilled work.<sup>4</sup>

Featherstone uses the term "slow learner" for the group other writers have labelled as educable mentally retarded. He writes:

If it is the general practice to place pupils with an I.Q. of 70 and below in ungraded or special classes, then I.Q. 71 becomes the lower limit of the slow-learning group.<sup>5</sup>

One solution to the problem might be to do away with the I.Q. as the sole determining factor in class placement. This is the stand taken by Magnifico:

No IQ limitations are set for various categories, because it has been demonstrated not only that the IQ is not the only factor in establishing the quality of the deviation but also that the lower limit of 50 set for educability was unrealistic, and that children with IQ's as low as 35 can be taught. According to Daly and Cain,

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<sup>2</sup>Elmer W. Weber, Mentally Retarded Children and Their Education (Springfield: Chas. C. Thomas, 1963), p. 52.

<sup>3</sup>S. S. Slaughter, The Educable Mentally Retarded Child and His Teacher (Philadelphia: F. A. Davis Co., 1964), p. 1.

<sup>4</sup>B. Halbert and Nancy M. Robinson, The Mentally Retarded Child (New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., 1965), p. 461.

<sup>5</sup>W. B. Featherstone, Teaching the Slow Learner (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teacher's College, Columbia University, 1951), p. 3.

"some students with IQ's as high as 80 and others with IQ's of 50 or less can profit from the special training classes."<sup>6</sup>

The American Association on Mental Deficiency advocates a grouping based on performance, rather than on I.Q. alone. They define mental retardation as:

. . . "that group of conditions which is characterized by: 1) inadequate social adjustment; 2) reduced learning capacity; 3) slow rate of maturation." These conditions may be present singly or in combination. They result from subaverage intellectual functioning which is usually present from birth or an early age.<sup>7</sup>

Heber quotes the same definition in a more succinct form:

Mental retardation refers to subaverage general intellectual functioning which originates during the development period and is associated with impairment in adaptive behaviour.<sup>8</sup>

The foregoing examples should serve to point out some of the confusion that exists in defining and grouping retarded children. In reviewing the literature, it would seem that a trend is emerging toward more general and flexible classifications, rather than rigid categories based on the I.Q. alone. Some of this reaction has undoubtedly been sparked by the abuse of mental tests, as well as by failure to consider the wide range of individual differences found in retarded children.

Jordan says:

Special educational practices which reflect these errors [abuses of mental tests] are:

a) Setting definitions of mental retardation as any IQ less than 70.

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<sup>6</sup>L. X. Magnifico, Education for the Exceptional Child (New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1958), p. 3.

<sup>7</sup>Michael J. Begab, "Child Welfare Service for the Mentally Retarded," Children, May-June 1958, p. 54.

<sup>8</sup>Rick Heber, "Mental Retardation: Concept and Classification," Readings on the Exceptional Child, E. Philip Trapp and Philip Himelstein, editors (London: Methuen & Co., L'td, 1962), p. 69.

- b) Assuming that a child with an IQ of 55 is educable and that a child with an IQ of 45 is not.
- c) Failure to give a major role in the evaluation of children to the judgment of the child's teacher.
- d) Failure to consider the stringent assumptions about cultural background and prior experiences which all tests stress.
- e) Determining entrance into special classes by IQ alone.
- f) Failure to group children by mental and social age rather than by IQ.<sup>9</sup>

Clarke puts it this way:

Anyone who has worked in the field of mental subnormality can cite examples of individuals who failed to achieve an IQ of 70 on intelligence tests, yet are capable of managing themselves and their own affairs, and, on the other hand, of individuals who may score above 70 on the tests, yet are incapable of acquiring the rudiments of formal education, holding a job, or keeping within the limits of community tolerance with regard to social behaviour.<sup>10</sup>

Clausen finds the I.Q. by itself to be an unsatisfactory way of assessing an individual's ability to profit from a training program. He stresses the need to find better methods of appraisal and suggests that a more extensive evaluation of ability structure might provide a better answer than one based solely on I.Q.<sup>11</sup>

One of the shortcomings of the I.Q. when used by itself as an instrument of appraisal is that, while it may give a rough indication of individual potential, it fails to show how the individual is different from others with an identical score. It fails to measure his attitudes and the quality of his inter-personal relationships. As

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<sup>9</sup>Thomas E. Jordan, The Exceptional Child (Columbus: Chas. C. Merrill Books, Inc., 1962), p. 147.

<sup>10</sup>Anne M. Clarke, "Criteria and Classification of Mental Deficiency," Mental Deficiency, The Changing Outlook (London: Methuen & Co., Ltd., 1965), p. 58.

<sup>11</sup>Johs. Clausen, Ability Structure and Subgroups in Mental Retardation (Washington: Spartan Books, 1966), p. 2.

Willey and Waite see it, retarded children are not slow in all their activities, nor are they abnormal in all their characteristics. They may show artistic or mechanical ability, while at the same time being unable to read well or do arithmetic.<sup>12</sup>

Although the I.Q. test, improperly used, may give misleading results, it is not suggested that it be discarded entirely. In the hands of skilled personnel, it can be a valuable diagnostic tool. However, allowance must be made for the individual differences between one retarded child and another, as well as for conditions which may produce a pseudo-retardation. Indeed, Slaughter believes that a child who has spent most of his life in an impoverished environment may be expected to have a lower I.Q. as determined by a standardized test.<sup>13</sup>

Erickson outlines some of the factors in the impoverished background which may cause this appearance of false retardation. Among these are a lack of response to school activities caused by a lack of experience and motivation, poverty, hunger, poor sleeping conditions and a move to an urban environment from a remote rural area.<sup>14</sup>

Jervis, while not denying the importance of certain environmental factors in the production of apparent retardation, gives some weight to the emotional aspects. Insecurity, frustration, and emotional deprivation, in his opinion, may cause an incorrect estimate of intellectual

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<sup>12</sup>R. Willey and K. Waite, The Mentally Retarded Child (Springfield: Chas. C. Thomas, 1964), p. 15.

<sup>13</sup>Slaughter, Op. cit., p. 4.

<sup>14</sup>Marian J. Erickson, The Mentally Retarded Child in the Classroom (New York: Macmillan Co., 1965), p. 27.

capacity, particularly among the physically handicapped.<sup>15</sup>

Iscoe sums up the matter of definition and classification in this way:

Classification of exceptional children is no easy matter. The categories presently employed are neither clear-cut nor mutually exclusive, nor are all the children in the same category possessed of the same attributes. Wide ranges of ability exist in the mentally retarded classification, for example . . . . A child classified as gifted may also be classified as physically handicapped, while the mentally retarded child may or may not have a brain injury as well. Sometimes the inexperienced beginning student . . . falls into the error of "class theoretical" thinking. That is, once he sees the label "mentally retarded" he endows the child with the properties supposedly attributable to that class. The retarded are, therefore, supposedly all "rigid," limited in learning new ideas, highly suggestible, and "blank"-looking . . . . Professional workers soon learn that there are more things in common than differences between normal and exceptional children.<sup>16</sup>

Because of environmental factors, individual differences, the lack of consistent definition, over-lapping between categories, and the trend to broader, more general groupings, the writer has taken the position that the group under study, since their I.Q.'s ranged from fifty to eighty, were basically in the educable retarded group. However, a few references naming "slow learners" specifically have been included. Most authorities place this category on the upper fringe of the educable retarded and it was felt that, although differences may exist between the extremes, these were quantitative rather than qualitative and that, in general, findings were applicable also to the educable retarded child.

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<sup>15</sup>George A. Jervis, M.D., "Factors in Mental Retardation," Children, Nov.-Dec. 1954, p. 20.

<sup>16</sup>Ira Iscoe, "The Functional Classification of Exceptional Children," Readings on the Exceptional Child, Edited by E. Philip Trapp and Philip Himelstein (London: Methuen and Co., L'td., 1962), p. 7.

## II. CHARACTERISTICS OF THE EDUCABLE RETARDED

Physical

Although it was stressed in the previous section, and should be stressed again, that there is no such thing as a typical retarded child, certain general characteristics may still be described. These facts will hold true for most retarded children although the proportions may vary in individual cases.

Tizard believes that the mentally subnormal at all ages tend to be physically inferior to normal children.<sup>17</sup> Speaking from a developmental standpoint, Stevens finds the retardate to be usually slower in walking, talking, feeding himself and in being toilet trained. Eye-hand coordination tends to be slower than for the normal population while general handicaps appear slightly higher.<sup>18</sup>

Weber lists these as some of the physical characteristics of the mentally retarded:

- a) Tendency to have less physical stamina--unable to do physical activities which require a great deal of energy for any length of time.
- b) More speech defects than among normal children.
- c) Subject to more physical defects and illnesses.
- d) Late in physical development, such as walking, talking, and toilet training.
- e) Very poor motor coordination.
- f) Poor vision or hearing which may not be detected at an early age.
- g) Over or underweight not uncommon.

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<sup>17</sup>J. Tizard, "Individual Differences in the Mentally Deficient," Mental Deficiency, the Changing Outlook, edited by Anne M. Clarke and A. D. B. Clarke (London: Methuen & Co., Ltd., 1965), p. 58.

<sup>18</sup>Harry A. Stevens, "Overview," Mental Retardation: A Review of Research, Harry A. Stevens and Rick Heber, editors (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964), p. 5.

- h) Poor teeth which contribute to malnutrition.
- i) Generally speaking, under par physically.<sup>19</sup>

Baker says:

Routine medical inspection for physical and sensory defects among the mentally retarded shows an average of at least two other defects per pupil in the annual testing of the Detroit Psychological Clinic. Although many of these additional defects center around tonsils, adenoids and teeth, there is also a wide distribution of other kinds of defects. Undoubtedly these additional defects add to the educational retardation and lack of physical stamina which is characteristic of the physically handicapped as a group.<sup>20</sup>

Baker's findings are confirmed by those of Willey and Waite. They find a heterogeneity in development similar to average children but a higher susceptibility to general illness, along with more malnutrition, more trouble with tonsils and adenoids, more defects of speech, vision and hearing.<sup>21</sup>

Since there appears to be fairly general agreement that the retardate tends to be physically inferior to the average child, reasons should be sought for this apparent inferiority. Some authorities, among them Slaughter<sup>22</sup> and Goldstein and Seigle,<sup>23</sup> suspect a direct relationship between poor hygienic home conditions and some of the retardate's physical characteristics. If this relationship can be

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<sup>19</sup>Weber, Op. cit., p. 63.

<sup>20</sup>Harry J. Baker, Introduction to Exceptional Children (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1953), p. 258.

<sup>21</sup>Willey and Waite, Op. cit., p. 16.

<sup>22</sup>Slaughter, Op. cit., p. 58.

<sup>23</sup>Herbert and Goldstein and Dorothy M. Seigle, "Characteristics of Mentally Handicapped Children," Mental Retardation, Jerome H. Rothstein, editor (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1962), p. 206.



proven, it bears important implications for training and management of the child and so merits some further consideration at this point.

Since many of the children in the study came from lower class homes, these remarks by Della-Dora seem appropriate:

Lower social class children evidence a relatively higher rate of illness and nutritional deficiencies. They are ignorant of good health practices and/or cannot afford to observe them. They show little motivation for school affairs. Parents exhibit apathy toward school and a high evidence of social or emotional maladjustment. There are few books or other learning media.<sup>24</sup>

Halbert and Nancy Robinson put it in these words:

Routine medical care among this group [the poverty-stricken family of the mentally retarded] is almost unknown. . . . The combined effects of poor nutrition, such prenatal conditions as toxemia and bleeding, premature birth and other physical damage-producing causes may well account for a large number of the retarded children born to deprived families. Nor do the biologic factors producing retardation cease at birth; throughout the lives of these children frequent physical illness and inadequate care are the natural products of their living conditions.<sup>25</sup>

Finally, a panel appointed in 1961 by the late John F. Kennedy found many of the specific causes of mental retardation to be obscure. They did, however, assign a major role to unfavourable health factors. They also attributed part of the problem to socioeconomic and cultural influences:

Many of the specific causes of mental retardation are still obscure. Socioeconomic and medical evidence gathered by a panel which I appointed in 1961, however, shows a major causative role for adverse social, economic and cultural factors. Families who are deprived of the basic necessities of life, opportunity and motivation have a high proportion of the Nation's retarded children. Unfavourable health factors clearly play a major role. Lack of prenatal and postnatal care, in particular, leads to the birth

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<sup>24</sup>Delmo Della-Dora, "The Culturally Disadvantaged: Further Observations," Exceptional Children, Vol. 29, No. 5, Jan. 1963, p. 228.

<sup>25</sup>Robinson and Robinson, Op. cit., p. 210.

of brain damaged children or to an inadequate physical and neurological development. Areas of high infant mortality are often the same areas with a high incidence of mental retardation. . . . Deprivation of a child's opportunities for learning slows development in slum and distressed areas. Genetic, hereditary and other bio-medical factors also play a major role in the causes of mental retardation.<sup>26</sup>

### Mental

In non-specific terms, Jordan describes the mental characteristics of the retarded child in this way:

In general terms, it [mental retardation] describes inherent limitations of the individual's growth in ability to perform tasks of abstraction and organization, and it sets limits to the ceiling his abilities will eventually reach. Interests, skills, and the like, are usually those of a younger person, and the level of performance in tasks of an intellectual nature is below expectations.<sup>27</sup>

Magnifico presents a more comprehensive list:

1. Greater comprehension of the concrete than the abstract.
2. Reasoning power of the mental retardate is limited.
3. Short attention span.
4. Limited power of association.
5. Unrealistic attitude toward society and themselves.
6. Lack powers of self-criticism.
7. Limited judgment.
8. Lack of foresight.
9. Possession of a greater backlog of frustration experiences.
10. Satisfactory adjustment is not a characteristic of the mental retardate.<sup>28</sup>

Several points should be noted in connection with the presentation by the next writer. First, "subnormal" and "feeble-minded" are

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<sup>26</sup>John F. Kennedy, "A National Program to Combat Mental Retardation," Perspectives in Mental Retardation (Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press, 1966), p. 4.

<sup>27</sup>Thomas E. Jordan, The Mentally Retarded (Columbus: Chas. E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1961), p. 2.

<sup>28</sup>Magnifico, Op. cit., pp. 129-133.

used synonymously. Second, the "feeble-minded" group includes children classified by other authorities as "educable retarded." Gunzburg writes in a British publication and his article again points up some of the problems in achieving a uniform classification of retarded children:<sup>29</sup>

General Qualities (Deficits) of the Feeble-Minded.

1. Subnormal intelligence.

The majority of the certified feeble-minded are intellectually subnormal and a number of researchers have suggested that an I.Q. of about 70 represents the mean, at any rate for the adolescent or young adult patient.

2. Educational backwardness regardless of I.Q.

Most feeble-minded patients are found to have educational attainments much lower than their intellectual potential would theoretically make possible. The following factors seem relevant: a) poor living conditions with lack of intellectual stimulation; b) overcrowded classes, poor teaching and truancy; c) late intellectual maturation as an effect of adverse circumstances.

3. Lack of general knowledge regardless of I.Q.

Much the same causes operate here as in educational backwardness. In addition, restricted experiences of community life and the process of institutionalization all play a part, and the mere fact of illiteracy frequently limits informational experience.

Sarason, speaking from a developmental point of view, finds the mentally retarded child learns in the same way as does the normal child. He has the same modes of adjustment and the same general approach to problem solving.<sup>30</sup>

Goldstein and Seigle also find a similarity between the mental

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<sup>29</sup>H. C. Gunzburg, "Vocational and Social Rehabilitation of the Subnormal," Mental Deficiency, the Changing Outlook, Op. cit., pp. 385-388.

<sup>30</sup>Seymour B. Sarason, "Psycho-Social Problems of the Mentally Retarded," Psychology of Exceptional Children and Youth (New York: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1955), p. 478.

characteristics of normal and retarded children. They follow the same developmental sequence, the main differences being not so much in basic characteristics as in their rate and degree of development. Their learning rate is slower and they rarely learn as much. This is especially true in the academic area.<sup>31</sup>

In summary, the mental characteristics of the retardate appear to differ from those of the normal child largely in the rates of learning and development and in the upper limits which may be reached. Generally, the retarded child's progress may be said to vary directly with his level of intelligence. Environmental influences appear to play a prominent role as they did in the case of physical characteristics.

#### Social and Emotional

Compared to the average child, the retarded youngster generally finds it more difficult to make a satisfactory social and emotional adjustment. Heber quotes Hirsch at some length on the subject:

Hirsch (1959) explains the high frequency of personality disorders among the mentally retarded on the following basis:

. . . The retarded child does not function in accordance with the same psychological principles or with the same need systems as the normal child. The knowledge that the intelligence is dulled seems to carry with it the false implication that the retarded child is less sensitive to hurt, less responsive to disappointment, and not in need of gratification which comes with the knowledge that one's efforts are appreciated. The major difference between the retarded child and his normal peer rests in the retarded child's ego limitation. This limitation seriously interferes both with his capacity to obtain, through his own efforts, optimal needed satisfaction, as well as with his capacity to meet environmental demands. He needs to depend much more on help from others. To the extent that he is surrounded by lenient, supportive adults, he may make an

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<sup>31</sup>Goldstein and Seigle, Op. cit., p. 207.

adequate emotional adjustment. To the extent that important adults are inconsistent in their attitudes, overly demanding, undependable, and non-supportive of his efforts, the retarded child's needs emerge with greater urgency. When he finds the demands made upon him confusing or impossible to meet, and when his necessarily limited accomplishments are unappreciated or ridiculed, his symptomatic behaviour may become increasingly intensified.<sup>32</sup>

Johnson is also of the opinion that the mentally retarded are, because of their retardation, probably more prone to have emotional problems. He sees this tendency arising both out of an inability to see their problems clearly and the availability of fewer possible solutions. In addition, the retardate is apt to perceive the demands of his environment less accurately.<sup>33</sup>

Some of the forms these personality disorders may take are outlined by Willey and Waite, Gunzburg, Goldstein, and Seigle. Willey and Waite comment:

In areas of personality adjustment, the retarded child is more apt to show self-distrust, physical timidity, dependence and deference, and a significant lack of ability to make friends, take the initiative in social activity or engage in activities requiring leadership and competition. He will show a lack of self-confidence, creativity, self-defense, curiosity and playfulness.<sup>34</sup>

Gunzburg finds instability to be a very common emotional problem, especially among female retardates. Inferiority feelings too are prevalent because of the frequency of failure in the patient's history.<sup>35</sup>

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<sup>32</sup>Rick Heber, "Personality," Mental Retardation: A Review of Research, Op. cit., p. 145.

<sup>33</sup>G. Orville Johnson, "Psychological Characteristics of the Mentally Retarded," Psychology of Exceptional Children and Youth, Op. cit., p. 468.

<sup>34</sup>Willey and Waite, Op. cit., p. 16.

<sup>35</sup>Gunzburg, Op. cit., p. 385.

Among the "behaviours and attitudes" Goldstein and Seigle find relatively common in the retardate are: over-aggressiveness, short attention span, self-devaluation, poor memory, low frustration tolerance and delayed language development.<sup>36</sup>

Goldstein states further that studies show the social adjustment of the adult retardate to be generally inferior in employment, welfare records and community participation.<sup>37</sup>

Because of the relative difficulty of the retardate's adjustment, the same two writers, Goldstein and Seigle, make a special plea for understanding on the part of administrators and teachers. The psychological needs of the retarded child are the same as for the normal youngster. He needs love, security, recognition, and a sense of belonging. However, because our society smiles upon the bright, successful, creative individual and frowns on the laggard and the incompetent, a special sensitivity must be developed for the needs of these exceptional children.<sup>38</sup>

Still on the subject of understanding for the retarded child and his needs, no one speaks with a warmer affection than does Sister Mary Theodore:

The mentally retarded child has the same fundamental social and emotional needs as all children and he can build a healthy personality only when his needs are satisfied. Fulfillment of the child's personality needs is as essential to his wholesome development as

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<sup>36</sup>Goldstein and Seigle, Op. cit., p. 207.

<sup>37</sup>Herbert Goldstein, "Social and Occupational Adjustment," Mental Retardation: A Review of Research, H. Stevens and Rick Heber, editors (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964), p. 253.

<sup>38</sup>Goldstein and Seigle, Op. cit., p. 207.

provision of nutrition is to physical growth.

Like the normal child, those who are retarded need to feel secure in their relationship with others. They have the same emotions and feelings. They want to love and be loved. It is natural for them to enjoy surprises and happy experiences. They like to have their own things and a place to keep them. They idealize certain persons and try to imitate their models.

These children need to be regarded with kindness, consideration and acceptance. They want an opportunity to see things, to do things, to be appreciated and considered worthwhile.<sup>39</sup>

Finally, by way of summary, Weber lists in a very precise and factual way, the following social and emotional characteristics of the retarded child:

- a. More often followers than leaders.
- b. Preference for younger children as playmates--likes to be the "boss."
- c. Occasionally antisocial.
- d. Frequently behaviour problems.
- e. No feeling of responsibility towards self and others.
- f. No sense of honour and pride.
- g. Deficient in personal pride.
- h. Sometimes well adjusted socially.
- i. Critical attitude toward others.
- j. Tendency to imitate.
- k. Very easily discouraged.
- l. Release of emotions through the physical.
- m. Tendency to have immature behaviour.
- n. Inability to take failure constructively.
- o. Sensitive to negative criticism.
- p. Aggressive behaviour to gain attention.
- q. Conscious of rejection by parents and groups.
- r. Ineffective attitude toward life.
- s. Defensive attitude when criticized.
- t. Awareness of not belonging--not wanted at home or among playmates.
- u. Inability to learn from experience--less capable of making social adjustments.<sup>40</sup>

From the foregoing, it would appear that the retardate's chances of having his social and emotional needs met are not good. When these

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<sup>39</sup>Sister Mary Theodore, O.S.F., The Challenge of the Retarded Child (Milwaukee: The Bruce Publishing Co., 1963), p. 62.

<sup>40</sup>Weber, Op. cit., pp. 64-65.

needs are not adequately met, he may withdraw into himself in despair or he may try to force their satisfaction by aggressive or delinquent behaviour. Cutts and Mosely paint this picture:

The very slow, over-age, over-size pupil cannot conform and consequently feels forced to justify himself. He's likely to be the class bully. He may become sadistic or use his strength to force smaller boys and girls into sex play. He may steal to gratify some immediate desire or to get money to buy candy for his classmates and thus curry favour with them. And he'll probably join a gang of like-minded youngsters and so gain the security of group membership. . . . The greater the pressure to do the impossible, the greater the chance that frustration will result in such aggression. Some of our most distressing cases are slow students whose parents and teachers have combined in an attempt to force normal achievement.

When aggressive action fails to produce results that please the individual, he may withdraw into a world of fantasy. He substitutes daydreams of success for active efforts to obtain success. From the standpoint of mental hygiene, withdrawal is more dangerous than aggression.<sup>41</sup>

Willey and Waite put it this way:

The need to succeed at something is strong. They [the mentally retarded] need to excel in at least one thing; if they do not they are capable of seeking prestige through defying authority, acting as a bully and boasting.<sup>42</sup>

Further reading of the literature suggests that delinquency among the educable retarded may be a problem of sizeable proportions, that its causes are complex and that the remedies are far from clear cut. It is proposed at this point to delve further into possible causation of the retardate's delinquency and to explore briefly some suggested remedies.

Kirk believes there are more behaviour problems and slightly

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<sup>41</sup>N. Cutts and N. Moseley, Teaching the Disorderly Pupil (New York: Longmans-Green, 1957), p. 65.

<sup>42</sup>Willey and Waite, Op. cit., p. 43.



more delinquency among the retarded in comparison with the normal population. He believes some of this is caused by a discrepancy between the child's ability and the demands made on him by society but places some responsibility also on the substandard environment in which many of the retardates live.<sup>43</sup>

Featherstone also places environmental factors high on the list of agents that may tend to produce delinquency. He believes the slower learning pupils tend to live in the less favoured communities, with their attendant problems of poor housing, low income, poor home management, inadequate play and recreation facilities, and often poor schools.<sup>44</sup>

Garton sees psychological elements in the problem of the retardate's delinquency. He believes it is an inability to distinguish right from wrong, or to anticipate the consequences of an act, that may lead a retarded child into trouble. Because these children are unable to generalize, Garton sees an important function of the teacher as stressing definitely that certain actions are right or wrong.<sup>45</sup>

Brown sees "mental retardation and other psychological factors" as of prime importance in the causation of delinquent behaviour. To these he adds:

. . . conflicts within the family, low economic status, inadequate facilities for wholesome play and recreation, denial of equal opportunities for education and employment, inability to secure status within the social structure of the community, the instability

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<sup>43</sup>Samuel A. Kirk, Educating Exceptional Children (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1962), pp. 110-111.

<sup>44</sup>Featherstone, Op. cit., p. 10.

<sup>45</sup>M. D. Garton, Teaching the Educable Mentally Retarded (Springfield: Chas. C. Thomas, 1964), p. 24.

of the cultural pattern in a period of dynamic change, and the conflicting values with which a youth has contact.<sup>46</sup>

From the foregoing, it seems evident that the retardate's delinquency is rooted partly in his environment and partly in his psychological make-up. However, discovery of probable causes is not enough. To be of any real value, it is necessary also to seek solutions to the problem.

Magnifico stresses the importance of "social training" and believes emphasis should be placed on the acquisition of honesty, obedience and truthfulness. He discounts the idea that the retardate is inherently "bad" and sees the trouble as lack of proper teaching or training.<sup>47</sup>

Slaughter sees at least part of the potential delinquent trend as being rooted in the retardate's poor self-concept. He believes this may be remedied by repeatedly presenting opportunities to make worthwhile contributions to the home and school and later to the community. It is essential that these contributions be recognized in a way designed to boost the retarded youngster's ego.<sup>48</sup>

Delp believes that the provision of wholesome leisure time activities are important. Since the retardate has few original ideas of his own, unless he is given specific guidance and training in this area, he may wind up in trouble, simply because he is at a loss for

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<sup>46</sup>Francis J. Brown, Educational Sociology (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1954), pp. 276-277.

<sup>47</sup>Magnifico, Op. cit., p. 141.

<sup>48</sup>Slaughter, Op. cit., p. 43.

something to do.<sup>49</sup>

Kershaw sums the matter up in this way:

Probably the best way of summing up the whole of this question of delinquency among the mentally subnormal is along these lines: Society is a complex and highly artificial thing, whose rules are far removed from the simple logic a child's mind can understand. There are times and places and degrees in which certain acts are good, neutral, or, at worst, venial, but there are other times, places and degrees in which these actions are anti-social or criminal. The good citizen is the one who has learnt when and where to do certain things and where to draw the line; the delinquent is the one who has not learnt that lesson. The moral defective is not lacking in inborn moral sense. He is simply defective in social understanding.<sup>50</sup>

To recapitulate, because the retardate finds it more difficult to achieve satisfaction of his emotional needs, he is likely to have more emotional problems. This quest for fulfillment may also lead the retarded child to perform delinquent acts. Delinquent tendencies are aggravated by a limited ability to recognize the consequences of certain acts, as well as by a lack of originality in planning leisure activities. Undesirable environmental influences may compound the effect of these negative factors.

Some of the means suggested to overcome these problems were "social training," ego-building experiences, and specific guidance in choosing suitable leisure time activities.

### III. ENVIRONMENTAL INFLUENCES

In this section material from the literature is introduced under

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<sup>49</sup>Harold Delp, "Goals for the Mentally Retarded," The Exceptional Child, James F. Magary and John R. Eichorn, editors (New York: Holt, Reinhart, Winston, Inc., 1960), p. 81.

<sup>50</sup>John D. Kershaw, Handicapped Children (London: William Heinemann Medical Books, Ltd., 1966), p. 202.

four headings: home factors, school factors, work factors, and community factors. This material will provide background and depth for the findings of the study to be presented in Chapter III.

### Home Factors

Authorities seem to be in general agreement that substandard homes account for a large proportion of the educable retarded.

Featherstone says:

It is common knowledge that a large percentage of slow-learning pupils come from the socially and economically less fortunate families of the community. Furthermore, the general competence of parents in providing the basic requirements of children for adequate food, clothing, shelter, dental and medical care, and wholesome out-of-school recreational and leisure-time activities is often conspicuously low in such families, both because of lack of financial resources and because of lack of knowledge of what children need.<sup>51</sup>

Burt, in the Encyclopedia Britannica states that, in the causation of mental retardation, home conditions are more significant than school conditions. Among the lower classes, poverty with its attendant ills, is the most frequently reported.<sup>52</sup>

Sarason argues that if retardation is a function of home conditions, it should be possible to raise intellectual levels by introducing more stimulation into the home environment. Indeed, it has been found that, for many, dramatic changes in the environment may bring about significant changes in the rate of intellectual development.<sup>53</sup>

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<sup>51</sup>Featherstone, Op. cit., p. 89.

<sup>52</sup>Sir Cyril Burt, "Retarded Children," Encyclopedia Britannica, (Chicago: William Benton, publisher, 1962), XIX, p. 232.

<sup>53</sup>Sarason, "Psychosocial Problems of the Mentally Retarded," Psychology of Exceptional Children and Youth, Op. cit., pp. 478-479.

Robinson and Robinson sketch the following graphic, but rather depressing, picture of the type of home that seems to produce more than its share of retarded children:

The cultural-familial mentally retarded children who come from poverty-stricken families are worthy of note not only because of their absolute numbers but because of their regularity. Homes such as these are in many ways too badly crippled to produce children who are not deprived and retarded.

As a general rule, the parents have no more than some elementary school education, and they frequently make poor use of the resources at their disposal. Their homes, typically slum tenements or shacks, are small and run-down, drafty and ill-heated in winter, and often lacking in such basic conveniences as running water or indoor plumbing. Food is at a premium, and hunger may be a well known companion. The children are scantily clothed in garments which, inexpensive to begin with, are made to do until they fall to pieces.<sup>54</sup>

Degrading though these physical conditions may be, more damaging in the long run are the social disorganization and emotional deprivation frequently found in the same environment. Featherstone notes that parental conflict and disharmony, extending at times to parental viciousness and immorality, are common elements in the life of slow-learning children. Along with these, neglect, rejection, persecution and physical violence are common. In larger families, jealousy, excessive fighting and general turmoil are often present.<sup>55</sup>

Featherstone says further:

The slow learner who has brighter brothers and sisters is often neglected, if not actively persecuted--often quite unintentionally. School marks and the other paraphernalia of an overly competitive school situation may be the cause of much emotional strife and conflict at home and make life miserable there for a slow child. . . Oftentimes the parents in such households are not aware that they are unwittingly increasing the difficulties of their slower offspring

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<sup>54</sup>Robinson and Robinson, Op. cit., p. 210.

<sup>55</sup>Featherstone, Op. cit., p. 89.

by praising their brighter children and by heedless remarks to the effect that "That's all one could expect from Sammy."<sup>56</sup>

Ingram also suggests that the emotional climate in the home may have a profound effect on the retarded child's personality. Characterizing such a child as "careless," "lazy," "dumb," or "perverse," because he does not respond as the others do, making unfavourable comparisons, continually scolding or nagging--all these tend to make the child feel insecure and out of harmony with the family group.<sup>57</sup>

Laycock and Stevenson offer this advice:

Parents should be helped to become aware of the threats to the emotional security of their exceptional children, caused by undue quarreling and wrangling in the home, lack of agreement by the parents with respect to discipline, inconsistency in discipline, dominance or coddling of the children by the parents, and the playing of favourites by the parents.<sup>58</sup>

Not only does the mentally retarded child need a specially warm, accepting, and understanding home environment but the very nature of his handicap makes it more difficult for his parents to provide this type of setting for him. Robinson and Robinson draw attention to some of these special hazards--slowness in development and learning, the necessity of special arrangements for physical care, training and companionship, reduction in expectations for the future, poor self-control, difficulties in interpersonal relationships, handicaps in communication.

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<sup>56</sup> Ibid., p. 91.

<sup>57</sup> Christine P. Ingram, Education of the Slow Learning Child (New York: Ronald Press, 1960), p. 161.

<sup>58</sup> Samuel R. Laycock and George S. Stevenson, "Parents' Problems with Exceptional Children," 49th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, "The Education of Exceptional Children," Nelson B. Henry, editor (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950), p. 126.

Some of these difficulties are intensified by the long period of dependency on the parents caused by the child's prolonged immaturity and isolation from his peer group.<sup>59</sup>

In addition to the difficulties outlined by Robinson and Robinson, Begab notes increased anxiety and frustration on the part of the parents, coupled with feelings of guilt and self-doubt. Begab feels the answer to the problem is to help the parents to realize and accept the fact that their child is retarded. In this way, goals are adjusted in terms of the child's potential, frustrations based upon unrealistic aspirations are reduced and a more positive relationship is developed between the child and his parents.<sup>60</sup>

Kershaw is much more pessimistic about bringing about any improvement in family relationships, except in isolated instances:

Most mentally subnormal children come from homes in which one or both parents is also subnormal, homes, therefore, in which care and management of the children is likely to fall substantially below what is desirable. A normally intelligent child in such a home would be unlikely to receive the informal education in good social conduct which he needs and would be in danger of becoming un-social or anti-social; a subnormal child never has a chance. He inherits the parents' low intelligence, but he follows the pattern of their life by unconscious imitation.<sup>61</sup>

Kanner takes a moderate approach to the problem. He believes that the emotional factors of family relationships are of great importance and, in the case of the exceptional child, call for a thorough overhauling. This often necessitates therapeutic interviews with the

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<sup>59</sup>Robinson and Robinson, Op. cit., p. 506.

<sup>60</sup>Begab, Op. cit., p. 56.

<sup>61</sup>Kershaw, Op. cit., p. 202.

parents.<sup>62</sup>

In summary, there seems to be general agreement that substandard homes produce more than their share of retarded children. This appears to be partly a function of poor, unhygienic living conditions and partly a lack of stimulation from the environment. One writer found that the introduction of more stimulation into the home surroundings could cause a rise in intellectual levels. Most authorities seemed to feel that the emotional climate of the home was of greater importance than the physical surroundings. Some of the special stresses and problems faced by the retardate's parents were outlined. There was a difference of opinion regarding how amenable the home situation might be to treatment and change. Most writers seemed to feel that there was value in a frank recognition of the problem and that therapeutic interviews with parents could bring about general improvement. Conversely, opinion was expressed that subnormal children came from subnormal homes and that little or nothing could be done to alter their status.

#### School Factors

Next to the home, the retarded child probably spends more of his formative years in school than in any other place. Because of the slow rate at which this type of child progresses, special care must be taken that his time in school is used to best advantage.

The retardate should, as far as possible, be treated as an individual. Sarason believes that, because the retarded child represents a wide variety of social, physical, motor, and cultural abilities and

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<sup>62</sup>Leo Kanner, "The Place of the Exceptional Child in the Family Structure," The Exceptional Child, James F. Magary and John R. Eichorn, editors (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1960), p. 42.



backgrounds, experiences that may be right for one child may be totally wrong for another. Each retardate is an individual with his own characteristics, problems, abilities and experiences and should be treated as such.<sup>63</sup>

Barker elaborates the idea of individualized instruction. He believes that it is necessary to have specific goals and quotes Steven's objectives "in terms of what the learner needs rather than in terms of what the teacher should teach."

1. Learning to maintain a state of physical well-being.
2. Learning to live safely.
3. Learning to understand oneself.
4. Learning to get along with others.
5. Learning to communicate ideas.
6. Learning to use leisure time.
7. Learning to travel and move about.
8. Learning to earn a living.
9. Learning to be a homemaker.
10. Learning to enjoy life through the appreciation of art, dance, and music.
11. Learning to adjust to the forces of nature.
12. Learning to manage one's money.<sup>64</sup>

Delp sets out his objectives in this fashion:

Another important goal of the mentally retarded is that each child should learn those fundamentals of schooling he will need for use in life. Neither parents nor teacher should expect him to learn the same materials taught normal children. He should learn reading, spelling, writing, arithmetic, etc. which will be useful in making job applications, in carrying out simple job duties, filling orders, keeping personal finances, reading everyday signs and the like. All of the training should be consistent with his mental level . . . . Work must be meaningful to the child, within his capacity to achieve and such that a sense of accomplishment results.<sup>65</sup>

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<sup>63</sup>Sarason, "Psychosocial Problems of the Mentally Retarded," Psychology of Exceptional Children and Youth, Op. cit., p. 479.

<sup>64</sup>Walter B. Barker, The Exceptional Child (New York: Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1963), p. 17.

<sup>65</sup>Delp, "Goals for the Mentally Retarded," The Exceptional Child, Op. cit., p. 81.

Kirk and Johnson also take a practical approach in their suggestions for the retardate's curriculum:

The education of the mentally handicapped differs from the education of the average child in the lack of emphasis placed upon academic achievement, and the emphasis placed upon the development of personality and adequacy in the occupational and social areas. Mentally handicapped children cannot achieve the skills and degrees of knowledge in the academic areas of reading, writing, arithmetic, science, or social studies attained by the average child. They can, however, learn to adjust to society and to show accomplishment in an unskilled or semi-skilled job.<sup>66</sup>

Wallin sees as one of the barriers to giving the retarded youngster the curriculum he needs, a fear of departing too far from what is taught normal children in the regular grades. His objective is a realistic curriculum that would enable the retardate to go out into the world and maintain himself as a contributing member of society. He elaborates his idea in this way:

The curriculum should be administered mainly as an integrated whole and not as isolated fragments in the lifelike setting of a miniature community. It should include the following basic divisions:

- a. A comprehensive program of physical and health development.
- b. A program of socialization--social and moral development and the establishment of essential social and socio-occupational skills and habit patterns.
- c. A program of academic studies that begins with pre-academic and readiness activities, with emphasis on the mastery of the practical and useful tool skills.
- d. A comprehensive program of sensorimotor, manual, art, craft, and semivocational or vocational training.
- e. A program aimed at speech improvement for nearly all pupils and at the correction of speech defects in selected cases.
- f. A program emphasizing music as art, recreation, and therapy and as a means of personality and behaviour development.
- g. Opening exercises, assemblies, and entertainments in which all participate.
- h. A program of planned recreation involving creative activities, games, plays, hikes, scouting, puppetry and the like.<sup>67</sup>

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<sup>66</sup>Samuel A. Kirk and G. Orville Johnson, Educating the Retarded Child (New York: Houghton and Mifflin Co., 1951), p. 116.

<sup>67</sup>J. E. Wallace Wallin, Education of Mentally Handicapped Children (New York: Harper Bro's, 1955), p. 361.

In general agreement with Wallin's proposed curriculum are these educational goals for the retarded child prepared by the State of California and listed by Daly and Cain:

- Finish work without urging.
- Get along with people.
- Work cooperatively.
- Listen while others speak.
- Participate in school activities, e.g. parties.
- Make new friends.
- Understand club procedures.
- Participate in organized public recreation.
- Prepare to be homemakers.
- Develop hand skills.
- Respect hand work.
- Develop work habits.
- Apply for a job.
- Perform part-time work.
- Contribute help at home.
- Save and bank money.
- Spend money wisely.
- Become a contributing school citizen.
- Find information needed.
- Use basic vocabulary for functioning citizenship.
- Understand civic processes as they relate to the individual.<sup>68</sup>

Inspection of the proposed curricula reveals that at least part of the focus is on the ultimate necessity for the retardate to earn a living. There are those who believe that the school should assume a more active role in this area, even to the extent of preparation for specific jobs. Laycock says:

In many senior and occupational classes, general training is given in the use of tools, in shop and metal work, and in the home-making arts. However, there is a growing feeling among educators that the development of good work habits and social attitudes, and general manual training and instruction in homemaking, while important, may not be enough. In certain communities there are specific jobs for which the retarded can be trained in proficiency. These may be on assembly lines, in the food industry, or in the

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<sup>68</sup> Flora M. Daly and Leo M. Cain, Mentally Retarded Children in California Secondary Schools (Sacramento: California State Department of Education, Oct. 1953), XXII, No. 7, pp. 105-106.

hotel trades. Winnipeg, for example, which has a program for occupational education at the junior high level and a specially selected teacher to direct the program, believes that the educable retarded can perform such jobs as the following: cafeteria server, bus boy, candy packer, car lot man, charwoman, cook's helper, dishwasher, driver's helper, egg candler, gas station attendant, hospital cleaning woman, hotel maid, janitor's helper, laundress, laundry sorter, meat wrapper, moving van loader, shirt presser, warehouseman, supermarket stock boy.<sup>69</sup>

Laycock states further:

Whether the educable retarded are given general or specific occupational or vocational training, it is important that they be given special job counselling and that a special teacher assist them in getting a job as well as make periodic visits to them after they have done so.<sup>70</sup>

Kirk and Johnson do not deny the importance of suitable jobs and training geared to these jobs. They do, however, stress the need for the building in of certain personality and character attributes, without which the retardate cannot be successful on his job, no matter how adequate his training might have been:

Success on the job is going to depend on getting to the job on time, personal appearance, manners, getting on with other employees and the employer, personal health, ability to handle money wisely, safety on the job, responsibility in following directions and carrying the task through to completion, and many other characteristics which are developed from early childhood. The school should attempt from the beginning of the child's school career to establish those habits and attitudes which will develop a responsible, efficient worker, regardless of how unskilled the job is.<sup>71</sup>

Another means suggested to secure needed training for the retardate involves a combination of school and employment. Since financial need is often a factor in having to quit school prematurely,

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<sup>69</sup>Samuel R. Laycock, Special Education in Canada (Toronto: W. J. Gage, Ltd., 1963), pp. 141-142.

<sup>70</sup>Ibid., p. 142.

<sup>71</sup>Kirk and Johnson, Op. cit., p. 119.

and since the retarded youngster usually has a poor tolerance for purely academic routines, Syden suggests placement in industry on a part-time basis during the last two years in school. The usual pattern is for the student to attend school in the morning and participate in work-training for three or four hours in the afternoon. For this he would be paid a minimum wage and would have the opportunity to learn at first hand the meaning of wages, deductions, savings and budgetting.<sup>72</sup>

Whatever type of training may be given to the retarded child, a teacher must be involved at some point and he must attend some type of class. Before leaving the various aspects of the school, these two items merit consideration.

Because of the retardate's academic slowness and his difficulty in relating to his peer group, it has been customary to segregate him in a special class. Robinson and Robinson believe this to be the wisest plan. Left in a regular class, the retardate is likely to learn little when the rest of the class so far exceed his performance. In addition, he may withdraw from inter-personal relations or attempt to compensate by attention-getting types of behaviour. In a special class, with a program geared to his needs, the retarded child may produce significant changes in social adjustment, in capacity for independence, and in mastery of the problems of daily living. He may also be helped to gain satisfaction with himself, to develop realistic notions about

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<sup>72</sup>Martin Syden, "Preparation for Work: An Aspect of the Secondary School's Curriculum for Mentally Retarded Youth," Exceptional Children, XXVIII (Feb. 1962), p. 329.

his capacities, and to achieve a level of maturity in behaviour beyond his capacity for academic work.<sup>73</sup>

Stevens puts it succinctly:

If the mildly retarded are educated in the regular classes, they will present a variety of problems to the regular teacher. Some of these problems are: (1) excessive amount of teacher time for instructional purposes; (2) antisocial behaviour; (3) objection to their presence in school by other teachers; and (4) inability to conform to social standards of the class. They frequently repeat one or more grades. Their peers will isolate and reject them.<sup>74</sup>

Not only does the retarded child need a special kind of a class, he needs also a special kind of a teacher. Willey and Waite describe some of the attributes that might be desired in such a person:

The teacher must have a particular kind of aptitude for working with this kind of a child. The writers feel that some of the important qualities are: kindness without maudlin sympathy, sincerity, honesty, acceptance, ability to listen and console, and the quality of helping each child to feel secure, loved, wanted and that he belongs. The teacher must be creative in various ways. Situations must be created to allow the children to succeed as well as to soften the extreme feeling of defeat when they fail. They must be helped to accept failure because later in life many situations of this nature will arise. Mentally retarded children should not be over-protected; they must learn to rely on themselves.<sup>75</sup>

The warmth and understanding generated in a classroom by the right kind of a teacher are well described by Baumgartner:

A favourable environment is one in which children have important ideas which need to be communicated to others in a warm, accepting climate. Acceptance and confidence from the teacher pay dividends from the children as they respond in kind. Ideas break through where there appeared to be no contact. The child learns to understand others and to make himself understood. He realizes the way others feel about him or how he thinks they feel about him. The

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<sup>73</sup>Robinson and Robinson, Op. cit., p. 195.

<sup>74</sup>Stevens, Op. cit., p. 5.

<sup>75</sup>Willey and Waite, Op. cit., pp. 123-124.

most severely retarded child shows by actions the warmth radiated by the perceptive teacher who believes in him and is able to "get down on his level." He responds with tensions, aggressions, and rigidity to another adult who has not accepted him and cannot communicate with him.<sup>76</sup>

In examining school factors operating in the life of the retarded child, we have considered objectives in the education of such a youngster and how they might best be met through the use of special programs, special classes, and special teachers. The main direction and guiding principle in curriculum should be preparation for work as a contributing member of society. Courses should be geared to this end and not watered-down versions of the regular class courses. In the last few years of schooling, a combination of classroom learning and on-the-job training may have advantages. Until new concepts of individualized instruction, with everyone proceeding at his own pace and at his own level, take over, some sort of a segregated class appears to be a necessity for the retardate. A teacher of this type of class, for optimum results, must be a person with a special kind of personality, training, and attitude.

#### Work Factors

With the retardate, two of the main objectives of the school program are learning how to get along with people and preparation for some form of employment. As Jordan puts it:

The significance of contemporary programs for the retarded lies in their insistence that proper education and training from the beginning can lead to eventual social-vocational competence. The level of competence aspired to is not great, but even partial economic sufficiency is a strong contrast to the plight of the

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<sup>76</sup> Bernice B. Baumgartner, Guiding the Retarded Child (New York: John Day Co., 1965), p. 10.

retardate who is a totally dependent person.<sup>77</sup>

But what are the opportunities for even a moderately well-trained retarded person in today's complex, mechanized, automated society?

Kershaw feels his chances of finding employment are good:

The outlook for the subnormal person is by no means as bleak as it sometimes appears, but great care and hard work are required from those responsible for helping him.

Employment ought to present no very great problem, if the person is physically fit. It is true that machines are increasingly taking over the function of the unskilled worker, but some unskilled labour will always remain to be done. Mechanization itself is now reaching a point at which the machine does the really skilled part and the man or woman is a semi-skilled machine-minder or a performer of simple repetitive work. More than a few industrial jobs are so dully repetitive, in fact, that they would be intolerable to a person of intelligence and imagination. Domestic service in hospitals, hostels and other large establishments can be organized so that one skilled person supervises and organizes the work of a number of unskilled ones who may quite happily and quite effectively carry out the routine chores.<sup>78</sup>

Wolfensberger sees the upgrading of average-intelligence workers as the key to leaving enough unskilled jobs for the retarded:

For a substantial number of higher level jobs, skill and training are more important than high intelligence. There thus exists a problem of upgrading large segments of the labour market, especially of those workers who, though of average intelligence, are engaged in simple, repetitive, routine, and basically manual tasks--tasks that should be reserved in large measure for the retarded. As long as a person of normal potential is upgraded faster than or as fast as automation develops, work should be available for retardates.<sup>79</sup>

In spite of giving the retardate suitable training and in spite

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<sup>77</sup>Thos. E. Jordan, The Mentally Retarded (Columbus: Chas. E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1961), p. 10.

<sup>78</sup>Kershaw, Op. cit., p. 194.

<sup>79</sup>Wolf Wolfensberger, "Vocational Preparation and Occupation," Mental Retardation--Appraisal, Education and Rehabilitation, Alfred A. Baumeister, editor (Chicago: Aldine Publishing Co., 1967), p. 238.



of the availability of suitable jobs, there may still be difficulty in vocational placement. According to Kershaw, fear, prejudice, and lack of knowledge on the part of the employer and other employees may present a barrier. Preconceived ideas that a person who is mentally subnormal cannot be an efficient worker, Kershaw feels, may probably prevent many of these youngsters from even getting a fair trial.<sup>80</sup>

Another thing that may prevent many retardates from finding employment is the idea that they shift frequently from job to job. Here the authorities are lacking in agreement. Garrison believes a continual changing of employment to be a characteristic of the mentally retarded as a group. He attributes this to the lack of well-established habits of persistence, orderliness, punctuality and the like. Also, because of a succession of failures at school, Garrison believes these youngsters develop habits of carelessness, slovenliness, and a general lack of initiative and persistence.<sup>81</sup>

Magnifico and Gordon disagree with Garrison's premise. Magnifico believes the retardate is especially suited to low-grade, routine jobs because he is able to withstand monotony and will take pride in this type of job because it gives him a sense of self-sufficiency.<sup>82</sup>

Garton takes a similar stand. However, he does qualify his contention that the retardate is apt to continue in suitable employment by

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<sup>80</sup>Kershaw, Op. cit., p. 195.

<sup>81</sup>Karl C. Garrison, Psychology of Exceptional Children (New York: Ronald Press, 1950), p. 130.

<sup>82</sup>Magnifico, Op. cit., p. 149.

saying that he must first accept the employer. It would seem that the converse also might be an important qualification, although Garton does not so indicate.<sup>83</sup>

Goldstein also sees no major difference between the employment record of the retardate and the normal individual, except that the former is more apt to be laid off during slack periods. Goldstein believes that reasons for changing jobs frequently have to do with dissatisfaction on the part of the retarded person and that there is some evidence that they have a more difficult time being accepted by their fellow workers.<sup>84</sup>

In the world of work, there appears to be a general consensus that jobs are, and can be made available to the retardate. He may encounter prejudice and misunderstanding on the part of both employer and fellow employees and may have some difficulties in getting along with his associates. There seems to be some evidence that the retardate stands monotony well and can make an excellent worker in the low-grade, routine occupations.

#### Community Factors

Evidence considered under "Home Factors" seemed to indicate many retarded children came from substandard homes. It appears similar shortcomings are to be found in the neighbourhood and in the community.

Willey and Waite believe that many of the mentally retarded live in the lower socio-economic areas of the community.<sup>85</sup>

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<sup>83</sup>Garton, Op. cit., p. 25.

<sup>84</sup>Goldstein, Op. cit., p. 253.

<sup>85</sup>Willey and Waite, Op. cit., p. 42.

Gunzburg concurs that the retarded tend to come from the lowest socio-economic strata and expresses the belief that some of the social degradation associated with these levels of society must have deep psychological effects.<sup>86</sup>

Doll expresses it this way:

Ginzberg and Bray found rejection rates for mental deficiency in World War II to vary with regional-cultural differences, racial-cultural membership, and the rate of expenditure for educational facilities. Gibson and Butler, studying institutional retarded children in Canada, found a high proportion of foreign parentage and socioeconomic deprivation among retardates of undetermined etiology with IQ's above 50.<sup>87</sup>

Johnson places the blame on society for many of the retarded child's shortcomings. He feels that retardation is aggravated by conditions in the low socio-economic areas of the community in which many of these people are forced to live, that continuous contact with anti-social values over an extended period of time tends to make satisfactory community adjustment difficult, if not impossible.<sup>88</sup>

Featherstone sketches this graphic picture of a lower class neighbourhood:

Unwholesome conditions in the family itself may be made doubly bad by the general poverty, if not the viciousness of the neighbourhood. Overcrowded housing forces children into the streets; many of them go there by preference because of the tension, strife, and general unattractiveness of their households. Lack of suitable space or facilities for more constructive activities, as well as lack of supervision or guidance, often makes the anti-social and destructive enterprises of the typical street gang inevitable,

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<sup>86</sup> Gunzburg, Op. cit., p. 385.

<sup>87</sup> Eugene E. Doll, "A Historical Survey of Research and Management of Mental Retardation in the United States," Readings on the Exceptional Child, E. Philip Trapp and Philip Himelstein, editors (London: Methuen and Co., L'td., 1962), p. 53.

<sup>88</sup> Johnson, Op. cit., pp. 478-479.

because children, even slow-learning children must have something to do.<sup>89</sup>

Iscoe is in agreement that many sub-cultural and economically marginal groups contribute to the problem of retardation in a greater proportion than their numbers would warrant. He feels that there are two solutions to the problem: limit the reproductive proclivities of these groups or attempt to raise their socio-economic status by paternalistic government programs. Iscoe does not go into the relative merits of these two approaches or indicate how either one might be implemented.<sup>90</sup>

As one would expect, when retarded children come from poor homes, the likelihood is that these homes will be situated in the lower socio-economic areas of the community. The neighbourhood then completes the psychological damage and fosters whatever delinquent or destructive tendencies that may be present. Clear-cut answers on how to best deal with the problem are lacking.

### Summary

Chapter II has been devoted to a review of the literature as it applied to the educable retarded child. In this review, an attempt was made to define such a child, to present some of his characteristics and to look at certain formative elements in his environment.

Definition of the educable retarded child revealed considerable disagreement among the authorities and a trend to broader, more general groupings. Because the slow-learning category was on the upper fringe

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<sup>89</sup> Featherstone, Op. cit., p. 89.

<sup>90</sup> Iscoe, Op. cit., p. 53.

of the educable retarded class, with considerable overlapping in some definitions, the writer took the position that differences were quantitative rather than qualitative and that, in general, much of what was said about the slow-learner was equally applicable to the educable retarded.

Characteristics of the educable retarded were examined in three areas: physical, mental, social and emotional. Physically, the retardate appeared inferior to the normal child with more defects, poorer nutrition, and a higher susceptibility to illness. Some causal relationship was suspected between these attributes and adverse social, economic, and cultural factors. Mentally, the educable retarded child emerged as differing from the norm not so much in basic characteristics as in the rate and degree of development of these characteristics. Once again, environmental factors were held to be at least partially responsible. Although the social and emotional needs of the retardate are similar to those of the normal child, because of the retardate's ego limitations, optimal satisfaction is more difficult to obtain. Failure to achieve needed gratification may result in withdrawal, aggression or delinquent behaviour. Warm, supportive adults in the immediate environment may help to relieve stress and induce in the child a feeling of being worthwhile. Other therapeutic suggestions were "social training," ego building experiences, and guidance in the selection of suitable leisure time activities.

Environmental influences were considered under four heads: home factors, school factors, work factors, and community factors. There appeared to be general agreement that substandard homes accounted for

more than their share of the mentally retarded. This was believed to be partly due to unhygienic living conditions and to a lack of environmental stimulation but a major role was also assigned to the emotional climate in the home. There was no agreement upon how amenable the situation might be to change. A role similar to that of the home was ascribed to community influences in the production or prevention of retardation. In the school area, a plea was made for treatment of the retardate as an individual, with a curriculum suited to his special needs. The relative merits of having the retarded youngster remain in a regular class or of having him placed in a segregated group were examined, as well as some of the advantages of a combined academic-work program. In the world of work, although automation has caused many unskilled jobs to disappear, there was still a feeling that a suitably trained retardate could be placed in employment if he was able to get along well with his employer and fellow employees.

## CHAPTER III

### PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

In Chapter III findings of the study will be presented under four headings: Personal Information, Home Information, School Record, and Work Information. Each section will conclude with a summary.

Information was collected by means of personal interview, using an interview schedule as a guide. The resulting data were later summarized to form the tables presented in the thesis.

#### I. PERSONAL INFORMATION

The age distribution in Table I is largely a matter of chance. Selection of respondents was governed chiefly by the accessibility of their school records and whether or not the individuals were readily available for interviewing. At the outset, the objective was to include as many older students as possible to allow time for stable life patterns to develop. However, as selection progressed, the difficulties encountered both in locating records and individuals, made it necessary to include younger boys and girls in the group.

In Table I, the youngest students were eighteen years of age, while the oldest one was twenty-six. The median age was twenty-two. Thirty-five of the respondents, or seventy per cent of the total, were twenty-one years of age or younger at the time of the interview.

As shown in Table II, nine of the boys and six of the girls had had some contact with the courts and the police. Offences ranged from truancy, car theft, breaking and entering, to sexual immorality, breach

TABLE I  
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY AGE AND SEX

Age in Years	Sex	
	Male	Female
Eighteen	4	0
Nineteen	7	6
Twenty	5	4
Twenty-one	5	4
Twenty-two	4	6
Twenty-three	2	1
Twenty-four	0	0
Twenty-five	1	0
Twenty-six	1	0
Total	29	21
Median age - Twenty-two years		

TABLE II  
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY SEX  
AND COURT OR POLICE RECORD

Classification	Sex	
	Male	Female
No court or police record	20	15
Court or police record	9	6
Total	29	21

of the Liquor Act, and running away from home. Two boys were in jail at the time of the study, while others of both sexes had spent time in correctional institutions for young people. Twenty boys and fifteen girls had no police or court record.



Did the tendency for a few individuals to have a delinquent record bear any relationship to certain other elements in the study? To answer, at least partially, this question, respondents' school attendance, parents' financial status, and steadiness of fathers' employment were examined. Details are shown in Table III.

The boys who had been in difficulty with the law, in over fifty per cent of the cases, tended also to be irregular in their school attendance. Where the girls were concerned, however, the opposite proved to be true. In general, there was a tendency for involvements with the law to vary inversely with level of income. Minor exceptions occurred with the boys in both the delinquent and non-delinquent groups. The "poor" category of boys and the "welfare" category of girls had the highest percentages of entanglements with the police. As a deterrent to delinquency, the steadiness of the fathers' employment appeared more important to the boys than to the girls.

A possible relationship between family size and delinquent tendencies on the part of the children is suggested in Table IV. This table indicates that the respondents from larger families had more frequent contact with the police and the courts than those who came from smaller families. However, the poorer families produced more children (cf. Table XI, p. 55). It is, therefore, difficult to determine how much of this delinquency might be attributable to overcrowding, lack of proper supervision, not enough individual attention, and inadequate finances, in addition to family size.

TABLE III

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY SEX AND RELATIONSHIPS  
AMONG COURT OR POLICE RECORD AND OTHER SELECTED FACTORS

Selected Factor	Sex			
	Male		Female	
	Record	No Record	Record	No Record
Irregular in school attendance	55	10	33	60
Parents' Economic Status				
Welfare	44	10	67	33
Poor	56	50	17	33
Comfortable	0	40	16	34
Father not working	44	10	66	53

TABLE IV

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY SEX, COURT OR POLICE RECORD  
AND AVERAGE NUMBER OF SIBLINGS

Classification	Sex	
	Male	Female
	<u>Number of Siblings</u>	<u>Number of Siblings</u>
No court or police record	1.2	1.4
Court or police record	3.7	3.3

Of the seven boys shown as married in Table V, four claimed their marriages were happy. All four had worked steadily since leaving school and were, at the time of the study, employed in jobs that gave at least a measure of security.

TABLE V  
 DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY  
 MARITAL STATUS

Marital Status	Sex	
	Male	Female
Single	22	11
Married	7	8
Common-law	0	2
Total	29	21

Three boys stated their marriages were unhappy. One of these was a Metis with two children. He had been unable to find steady employment. His own father had been an alcoholic and his mother drowned under conditions that suggested suicide. The second boy came from a large family where the parents had separated. Although he attended school regularly and had worked very hard, his limited ability closed the door to academic achievement. The third boy was also handicapped by poor intellectual capacity. His low wages as a car wash employee contributed to the financial pressures that seemed to be breaking down the marriage.

Seven of the eight girls in the sample claimed their marriages were happy. The eighth girl was eventually placed in the Manitoba Home for Mental Defectives. She had a Stanford-Binet score of only fifty-seven and there was some suggestion that she might have been exploited by an older man who was looking for a cheap housekeeper.

Two girls were living common-law. One was an only child from a broken home. According to the father, she had been promiscuous since

adolescence and had spent two years in a correctional institution. The second girl came from a poverty stricken home where both parents were alcoholics and there were twelve other children. She too had spent time in a girls' training school.

Twenty-two boys and eleven girls were unmarried. Of these, eight boys and six girls were twenty-one years of age or older. One boy was in jail, one was in a mental institution, while a third was chronically unemployed. Of the other boys, all were working but at wages that would have made it very difficult to establish a home of their own. The six girls who were twenty-one years of age or older were occupied in various ways: two were helping their parents, while the other four were working as a nurse's aid, parceller, kitchen helper, and dry cleaning assistant respectively.

Summary: Personal Information

The personal attributes of the twenty-nine male and twenty-one female respondents showed considerable variation. At the time of the study, their ages ranged from eighteen to twenty-six, with a median age of twenty-two. Nine boys and six girls had been in difficulty with the police and the courts. The boys in this group also exhibited irregular school attendance but this was not true of the girls. There appeared to be a relationship between poverty and delinquency, with the poor and welfare families tending toward greater involvement with the police and the courts. A father who was steadily employed seemed to act as a deterrent to delinquency. A child from a larger family appeared more trouble prone but other factors appeared to be involved in addition to family size alone. Twenty-two of the boys were still unmarried,

although of marriageable age. Low wages and difficulty in obtaining steady employment were seen as related to the problem of establishing a home. The girls were able to find marriage partners more readily than the boys and only eleven of them were still single. Two girls were living common-law.

## II. HOME INFORMATION

In Section II consideration will be given to certain elements in the retardate's home as they affected both his general welfare and his progress in school.

Although 82 per cent of the respondents' parents were still living together, as indicated in Table VI, the marriages of four boys' and two girls' parents had terminated either through separation or divorce, while three boys had suffered the loss of a parent through death.

TABLE VI  
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY SEX  
AND PARENTS' MARITAL STATUS

Marital Status	Sex	
	Male	Female
Parents living together	22	19
Parents separated	4	1
Parents divorced	0	1
One parent deceased	3	0
Total	29	21

A study of Table VII reveals that fifty-eight parents, or 58 per cent of the total, had never progressed beyond the elementary grades in school. Ten of this group had received no formal education of any kind. Thirty-two parents, or 32 per cent of the total, had terminated their education somewhere in the junior high school. Ten parents, or 10 per cent of the total, had reached Grade X or beyond.

TABLE VII  
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY SEX AND  
PARENTS' EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

Educational Level	Sex			
	Male		Female	
	Father	Mother	Father	Mother
Below Grade VI	18	11	14	15
Grade VII to IX	7	15	6	4
Grade X to XII	4	3	1	2
Total	29	29	21	21

In general, as the level of parental education increased, in the opinion of the investigator, there was a corresponding increase in interest in the child's education. For those whose schooling had stopped in the elementary grades, only 68 per cent of the parents were concerned about their children's education. Where parents had achieved a junior high standing, however, responses expressing interest had risen to 85 per cent of the total. When parental education had exceeded Grade IX, 89 per cent of the parents showed a positive attitude towards school. The above data are recorded in Table VIII.

TABLE VIII

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY PARENTAL EDUCATION AND  
PARENTAL ATTITUDE TO EDUCATION

Parental Education	Attitude	
	Interested	Indifferent
Grades I to VI	68	32
Grades VII to IX	85	15
Grades X to XII	89	11

Only gross distinctions were made in the family income levels listed in Table IX. The objective was to separate the comparatively affluent, i.e., middle class, from those living in poverty. A further differentiation was made between the poor getting help from welfare funds and those entirely dependent on their own resources.

An analysis of Table IX shows that 72 per cent of the respondents came from homes where there was a chronic money shortage. Breaking this down further indicates that 40 per cent were managing on their own resources, while 32 per cent were in receipt of welfare. Only 28 per cent were in comfortable circumstances.

TABLE IX

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY SEX AND  
PARENTS' INCOME LEVEL

Income Level	Sex	
	Male	Female
Welfare	21	43
Poor (not getting assistance)	52	28
Comfortable (middle class)	27	29

Numerous home visits made by the investigator as part of his social work routine documented the miseries brought about by inadequate finances. Housing was frequently decaying, dirty, and often vermin infested. Dietary deficiencies appeared to predispose to chronic illness. Lack of proper clothing set the child apart from his peer group and sometimes prevented school attendance entirely. Money for such school "extras" as books, art supplies, and physical education uniforms presented a constant problem and embarrassment.

A relationship has already been noted (see supra., p. 48) between parents' income level and the respondents' tendency to have a court record. A tendency to remain single, regardless of age, was also found to occur more frequently among children of poor parents, as opposed to those from the welfare and comfortable groups (cf. Table X).

TABLE X

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY PARENTS' INCOME LEVEL  
AND RESPONDENTS' MARITAL STATUS

Parents' Income Level	Respondents' Marital Status	
	Married	Single
Welfare	38.5*	61.5
Poor (not getting help)	18.0*	82.0
Comfortable (middle class)	39.0	61.0

\*1 living common-law

Parents' economic status also appeared, as shown in Table XI, to have a bearing on family size, the children's school progress, and



the number of children assigned to ungraded classes. Family size tended to vary in inverse proportion to income, ranging downward from an average of ten children for the welfare families, through six for the poor, to 3.1 for those in more comfortable circumstances.

TABLE XI

A COMPARISON AMONG THE ECONOMIC POSITION OF THE FAMILY,  
THE AVERAGE NUMBER OF CHILDREN PER FAMILY AND  
THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS OF THE CHILDREN

Area of Comparison	Financial Status		
	Welfare	Poor	Comfortable
Average number of children per family	10.0	6.0	3.1
Average number of children per family in ungraded classes	2.1	0.7	0.3
Percentage of children making good school progress	20	61	61
Percentage of children making poor school progress	80	39	39

Welfare families appeared to have the largest number of children in ungraded classes, an average of 2.1. This compared with an average of 0.7 for the poor and 0.3 for the comfortable category.

With respect to academic standing, 61 per cent of the poor and comfortable families' children were making good progress. Only 20 per cent of the children from welfare families were listed as doing well in school.

Although family size, ungraded placements and school progress have been related to economic status, it should be noted that there is also an inter-relationship with cultural factors as well. Although economics is an important consideration, it was not the sole force in making the determination.

Closely allied to good progress in school is the parent's interest in his child's education. As indicated in Table XII, this also appeared to be related to the parents' financial status. The group in a comfortable financial position showed unanimity in their interest in their children's education. However, while those in the poor category also voiced an interest in their boys' school progress by a majority of 20 per cent, the girls' parents were almost equally divided between interest and indifference. In the welfare group, the largest percentage of both the boys' and girls' parents indicated a lack of concern about how well, or how poorly their progeny were doing in school.

TABLE XII  
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY SEX,  
PARENTAL ATTITUDE TO EDUCATION AND  
PARENTAL ECONOMIC STATUS

Economic Status	Sex			
	Male		Female	
	Int.*	Ind.**	Int.*	Ind.**
Welfare	05	63	31	75
Poor (not receiving help)	57	37	23	25
Comfortable (middle class)	38	0	46	0

\*Interested

\*\*Indifferent

Data for the compilation of Table XIII were obtained from two sources: school medical cards, when these were available, and responses to direct questions posed by the investigator to parents and respondents. Medical cards provided a crude index of health, because generally the school nurse or doctor had recorded major illnesses, operations, accidents, and physical deficiencies. In eight cases where medical cards could not be located, judgment had to be based solely on replies to the investigator's questions.

TABLE XIII  
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY SEX, HEALTH  
STATUS AND PARENTS' INCOME LEVEL

Income Level	Sex			
	Male		Female	
	Ill	Healthy	Ill	Healthy
Welfare	01	05	03	06
Poor (not receiving help)	01	14	01	05
Comfortable (middle class)	00	08	00	06
Total	02	27	04	17

In six cases, or 12 per cent of the total, there appeared to be a relatively serious health impairment that could not have failed to be an impediment to good progress in school. All these cases were in homes where there were inadequate financial resources. Of equal concern to the investigator were the more nebulous, poverty-spawned, half-illnesses noted in the literature by Robinson and Robinson, Weber, Baker, Tizard,

et al. (see pp.13, ff). In the opinion of these authorities, the cumulative effects of these minor ailments and deficiencies were important factors in hampering the retardate's school progress. Although the effects were often suspected, it proved impossible to obtain sufficient evidence either from the medical cards or the interview to make a firm statement on the matter.

The number of times a family changed residence showed a relationship to their financial status, to the regularity of the respondents' school attendance, to the amount of effort he put into his school work, and to his parents' attitude towards education.

The number of moves made by each family in a ten-year period is shown in Table XIV. Although the majority, thirty-two families, had maintained a relatively stable residence, having moved only once or not at all, others had moved more frequently. Two of the girls' families had averaged a move a year during the period studied, (see Table XLI, Appendix). In the case of the boys, no one had moved more than once in two years (see Table XL, Appendix).

TABLE XIV  
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY FAMILY  
MOBILITY FOR PAST TEN YEARS

Number of Moves	Frequency
Never moved	20
Once	12
Twice	4
Three times	4
Four times	2
Five times	5
Six times or more	3
Total	50

The relationship between family mobility and respondents' school attendance is indicated in Table XV. The students in regular attendance had, on the average, moved only once during the ten-year period while those in irregular attendance had moved an average of 3.3 times. It will be noted further that there was a tendency for those in regular attendance to cluster at the low end of the mobility scale. With a few minor fluctuations, the opposite was true of those who had missed a great deal of school.

TABLE XV  
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY MOBILITY AND  
SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

Number of Moves	Type of Attendance	
	Regular	Irregular
Never moved	14	6
Once	11	1
Twice	4	0
Three times	1	3
Four times	0	2
Five times	1	4
Six times or more	1	2
Total	32	18
Average number of moves in ten years	1.0	3.3

Table XVI, which shows the relationship between family mobility and the effort put forth by respondents in school, indicates that thirteen respondents who had never moved were, nevertheless, doing poorly in school while only seven who had maintained a stable residence were making good progress. This would seem to suggest that frequent

moves might even be of value in assisting the child in his studies. However, considered on a percentage basis, of those who had moved less than three times, eighteen, or 85 per cent were doing well, as opposed to the eighteen, or 62 per cent, who were having difficulties with their studies. This would bear out the assumption that too frequent changes of address, with other attendant complications, do little to promote good scholastic progress.

TABLE XVI  
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY MOBILITY,  
AND SCHOOL EFFORT

Number of Moves	Type of Effort	
	Good	Poor
Never moved	7	13
Once	8	4
Twice	3	1
Three times	1	2
Four times	0	2
Five times	1	4
Six times or more	1	3
Total	21	29

Table XVII sets out a distribution of respondents according to mobility and the parents' economic status. Families on welfare tended to move most frequently, an average of 3.7 times per family in the ten-year period. Only one family on welfare had never moved and two had moved only once. Those listed as poor had the second highest mobility rate. They had averaged 2.1 moves per family in ten years. Two families had moved five times each which raised the total disproportionately

in the small sample. The families in the comfortable category presented a picture of having maintained a relatively stable residence. They had averaged only 1.2 moves per family in the period studied.

TABLE XVII  
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY MOBILITY  
AND PARENTS' FINANCIAL STATUS

Number of Moves	Financial Status		
	Welfare	Poor	Comfortable
Never moved	1	12	8
Once	2	5	5
Twice	1	1	1
Three times	3	0	1
Four times	2	0	0
Five times	3	2	0
Six times or more	3	0	0
Total	15	20	15
Average moves per family	3.7	2.1	1.2

Parental attitude to education appears to be related to family mobility in Table XVIII. Families who expressed an interest in their children's education moved less frequently, an average of only 1.3 times per family in the ten-year period. Families indifferent to education moved an average of 2.9 times in the same period.

Parents' occupations are classified in Table XIX. Occupations all fell into the unskilled and semi-skilled categories, with a moderately high rate of unemployment in evidence. Thirty-one mothers preferred to remain housewives and were not working for pay outside of the

TABLE XVIII  
 DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY MOBILITY,  
 AND PARENTAL ATTITUDE TO EDUCATION

Number of Moves	Type of Attitude	
	Interested	Indifferent
Never moved	19	1
Once	11	1
Twice	2	2
Three times	1	3
Four times	0	2
Five times	0	5
Six times or more	0	3
Total	33	17
Average moves per family	1.3	2.9

TABLE XIX  
 DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS' PARENTS  
 BY SEX AND OCCUPATION

Classification	Sex			
	Male		Female	
	Father	Mother	Father	Mother
Unskilled	15	4	4	2
Semi-skilled	7	6	6	3
Unemployed	6	0	11	0
Housewife	0	15	0	16
Deceased	1	2	0	0
Not known	0	2	0	0
Total	29	29	21	21

home. One father and two mothers were deceased. Two mothers were no longer in the home and their exact whereabouts and status were not known.



Respondents whose parents worked in unskilled occupations showed a more regular school attendance pattern than those whose parents worked in semi-skilled occupations. Of the former, twenty-four, or 86 per cent of the total, attended regularly as compared with fifteen, or 75 per cent, of the latter. In establishing the numbers of unemployed, only the fathers were counted. Mothers not working outside the home were listed as housewives. Where fathers were unemployed, school attendance appeared to drop off. As shown in Table XX, only five students, or 29 per cent of those whose fathers were unemployed, were at school consistently. Whether the mother was in the home, or working for wages outside the home showed only a slight relationship to regularity of attendance.

TABLE XX

## DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY PARENTS' OCCUPATION AND RESPONDENTS' SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

Parents' Occupation	Type of Attendance	
	Regular	Irregular
Unskilled	24	4
Semi-skilled	15	5
Unemployed	5	12
Housewife	16	13
Unknown	3	0
Deceased	1	2
Total	64	36

Table XXI bears, as one might expect, a close resemblance to Table XX, with school attendance duplicating closely the parents' attitude to their children's education. Only one parent in the unskilled

TABLE XXI

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY PARENTS' OCCUPATION AND  
PARENTS' ATTITUDE TO EDUCATION

Parents' Occupation	Type of Attitude	
	Interested	Indifferent
Unskilled	23	5
Semi-skilled	20	0
Unemployed	6	11
Housewife	16	13
Deceased	3 (not applicable)	
Unknown	3 (not applicable)	

occupation group, whose child was regularly in class, expressed a lack of interest in education. Similarly, all parents in semi-skilled occupations were anxious that their children receive a good education. However, their influence apparently did not extend to five of their children who were not attending school regularly. A similar situation existed with one unemployed father. The attendance of students whose mothers did not work outside the home duplicated exactly the expression of parental interest in their school progress.

Summary: Home Information

Relatively few homes in the study had been broken by separation, divorce or the death of either parent. Parental education, in the majority of cases, was confined to the elementary schools. A few parents had never received any formal instruction of any kind. Parents' interest in the schooling of their own children was in direct ratio to the parents' own education. Family incomes, generally, were low, with

the majority living at a poverty level. Children from poor families married much less frequently than did either those on welfare or those in comfortable circumstances. Family size varied inversely with income, as did the number of children requiring placement in ungraded classes. Children from both the comfortable and the poor group made better progress in school than those from the welfare families. This was, perhaps, related to the fact that parents from the former two groups expressed a greater interest in their children's education. In a relatively small number of instances only, did a serious health impairment seem to be indicated. Mobility, in general, was low, although some families had averaged a move a year for ten years. Frequent changes of address related to poor school attendance and, with a few exceptions, to a lack of effort put into school work. Mobility tended to vary inversely according to income. Parents who moved frequently showed less interest in the education of their children. Among respondents' parents, occupations in the unskilled class showed a tendency to predominate. School attendance was better among children of parents who worked in unskilled occupations and this same group of parents showed a slightly greater interest in their children's education.

### III. SCHOOL RECORD

In Section III, information about the respondents' school careers will be presented. In some respects, this was a difficult area to document because after a student had been out of school for a few years, lists of marks, report cards, guidance folders, and other material were lost or destroyed.

During the time data were being collected, a student might have legally withdrawn from school, with his parents' consent, at age sixteen. Between the ages of fourteen and sixteen, it was also possible, in special circumstances, to obtain a school leaving permit. The data in Table XXII indicate that relatively few of the respondents, five boys and two girls, remained in school beyond their sixteenth birthday. Average school leaving age for the boys was 14.8 years and for the girls, 15.6 years.

TABLE XXII  
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY SEX AND  
REPORTED SCHOOL LEAVING AGE

School Leaving Age in Years	Sex	
	Male	Female
Thirteen	0	1
Fourteen	6	3
Fifteen	10	3
Sixteen	8	12
Seventeen	2	1
Eighteen	3	0
Nineteen	0	1
Total	29	21
Average school leaving age in years	14.8	15.6

The relationship between parents' financial status and respondents' school leaving age is shown in Table XXIII. The percentages of the boys in the three financial designations who had left school on or before their sixteenth birthdays were as follows: comfortable, 20 per

cent; poor, 54 per cent; welfare, 26 per cent. Girls dropping out of school on or before their sixteenth birthdays, showed the following percentages: comfortable, 26 per cent; poor, 26 per cent; welfare, 48 per cent.

TABLE XXIII

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY SEX, SCHOOL LEAVING AGE  
AND PARENTS' FINANCIAL STATUS

School Leaving Age in Years	Sex					
	Male			Female		
	C*	P**	W***	C*	P**	W***
Thirteen	0	0	0	0	0	1
Fourteen	1	4	1	0	2	1
Fifteen	2	6	2	1	1	1
Sixteen	2	3	3	4	2	6
Seventeen	2	0	0	1	0	0
Eighteen	1	2	0	0	0	0
Nineteen	0	0	0	0	1	0
Total	8	15	6	6	6	9

\*Comfortable

\*\*Poor

\*\*\*Welfare

The data contained in Table XXIV show the relationship between parental education and the age at which respondents left school. Since mothers and fathers were rarely equal in the amount of education they each had received, figures shown are the combined average grade of both parents. For boys who could be considered premature drop-outs, parents had an average grade level of 5.6; for those who continued in school beyond their sixteenth birthday, the average parental grade level was 6.3. For girls in the first group, the average parental grade level

was 5.1; for the second group, it had risen to an average of 5.8.

TABLE XXIV  
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY SEX, SCHOOL LEAVING AGE  
AND PARENTAL EDUCATION

School Leaving Age in Years	Sex	
	Male Education*	Female Education*
Before sixteen	5.6	5.1
Sixteen to nineteen	6.3	5.8

\* Combined average grade for both parents.

Parental interest in education was evidently also a factor in encouraging respondents to remain in school. As Table XXV shows, where parents expressed concern, six students remained in school beyond their sixteenth birthday. Where parents were disinterested, only one child continued to attend classes beyond age sixteen.

TABLE XXV  
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY SCHOOL LEAVING AGE AND  
PARENTAL ATTITUDE TO EDUCATION

School Leaving Age in Years	Type of Attitude	
	Interested	Indifferent
Thirteen	1	0
Fourteen	6	3
Fifteen	9	4
Sixteen	12	8
Seventeen	3	0
Eighteen	2	1
Nineteen	1	0
Total	34	16

Respondents' reasons for quitting school are listed in Table XXVI. Some students gave more than one reason. A breakdown of the data in Table XXVI shows the following: dissatisfaction with the school and its administration, thirty-nine cases; complaints about teachers, eight cases; problems of being older and bigger than other students, five cases; adjustment difficulties and emotional problems, nine cases; home problems, five cases; "just wanted to go to work," eight cases; learning difficulties, twelve cases; medical or psychiatric problems, six cases.

While some allowances must be made for a projection of blame on the school when really the respondent was simply unable to face his own shortcomings, the general picture appeared to be one of frustration and dissatisfaction with the whole educational process. In some instances, the situation may have been aggravated by personal problems, and difficulties in the home.

As shown in Table XXVII, there was a wide variation in the length of time various respondents were exposed to the ungraded program. The average stay in this type of class was 3.7 years. Some of the factors which may have determined the distribution in Table XXVII are the following: slowness in diagnosing the problem, lack of sufficient class accommodation, parental resistance to ungraded placement, overfunctioning in a regular class in spite of lowered intellectual capacity, and age at which respondent left school.

For purposes of tabulation and comparison in Table XXVIII, results from the Stanford-Binet and W.I.S.C. tests were considered to be roughly equivalent. Where more than one test had been administered to the same

TABLE XXVI

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY SEX AND  
REASONS GIVEN FOR LEAVING SCHOOL

Reason	Sex	
	Male	Female
No interest	1	1
No progress	14	5
Repetition of program	2	2
No help from teacher	2	
Couldn't learn	2	3
Too big for class	2	
Wanted to go to work	6	2
Problems with father's drinking	1	
Psychiatric problems	1	
Lost interest	1	
Trouble with other boys	2	
Felt not being taught anything	1	1
No promotions	1	
Illness	1	2
Hated school	5	
Resented "automatic pass"	6	3
Older than others	2	1
Continual failures	1	
Needed at home	1	
Hated physical education	3	
No satisfaction from school	1	
Unhappy at school	1	
Behind rest of class	1	
No money		1
Teacher always out of room		1
Fed up		1
Trouble with teacher		3
Embarrassed with other girls		1
Wouldn't attend, ran away		1
Committed to training school		1
Pregnant		2
Home trouble		2
Rejected by others in class		1



TABLE XXVII  
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY NUMBER OF YEARS SPENT  
IN THE UNGRADED PROGRAM

Years in Program	Number of Respondents
One	3
Two	11
Three	11
Four	11
Five	3
Six	8
Seven	3
Total	50
Average	3.7 years

TABLE XXVIII  
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY  
INTELLIGENCE RATINGS

Intelligence Rating	Frequency
Fifty-five to sixty	4
Sixty-one to sixty-five	7
Sixty-six to seventy	9
Seventy-one to seventy-five	11
Seventy-six to eighty	8
Not available	11
Total	50
Average - Sixty-seven and one-half	

child, the latest test was taken to be the most accurate. Tests on eleven students were not available.

Data in Table XXVIII reveal an average intelligence rating of sixty-seven and one-half. Fourteen cases, or 35 per cent, were below the mean for the group while twenty-five cases, or 65 per cent, were above the mean.

As indicated in Table XXIX, there was a tendency for respondents with higher levels of intelligence to be more successful in finding gainful employment. Of the boys who were below the group mean in intelligence, 60 per cent were able to find work, while 40 per cent remained unemployed. In the boys' above average range, this compared with percentages of 87 per cent and 13 per cent respectively. Similar findings appeared in the case of the girls, except that employment ran second to marriage in the above average group.

TABLE XXIX

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY SEX,  
INTELLIGENCE AND PRESENT STATUS

Intelligence Rating	Present Status				
	Male		Female		
	E <sup>1</sup>	U <sup>2</sup>	E <sup>1</sup>	U <sup>2</sup>	M <sup>3</sup>
Below average*	60	40	25	50	25
Above average	87	13	34	22	44

\* Average - 67.5

<sup>1</sup> Employed

<sup>2</sup> Unemployed

<sup>3</sup> Married

In Table XXX, an attempt was made to indicate the relationship between the respondents' poor school attendance and other selected factors. Parental interest in education appeared to have a salutary effect, since a considerably higher percentage of indifferent parents appeared in the group of irregular attenders. Regular school attendance also tended to fall off as parental incomes declined, with 30 per cent more of the poor and welfare families appearing in the irregular category. Level of parental education was roughly equivalent between the two groups. Irregular attenders came from larger families, with an average of 2.3 more siblings than the regular group.

TABLE XXX

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY REGULARITY OF SCHOOL ATTENDANCE  
AND RELATIONSHIPS AMONG OTHER SELECTED FACTORS

Selected Factor	Type of Attendance	
	Regular	Irregular
Attitude of parents to education (percentage indifferent)	12.0	67.0
Level of income (percentage poor and on welfare)	61.0	91.0
Education of parents (combined average grade level)	6.0	5.7
Number of siblings (average per family)	4.6	6.9

Attitudes of respondents toward the ungraded program are tabulated in Table XXXI. The girls were almost evenly divided in their

preference between the ungraded class and the regular class. The boys chose the regular class by a ratio of more than three to one.

TABLE XXXI  
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY SEX AND  
ATTITUDE TO UNGRADED PROGRAM

Attitude	Sex	
	Male	Female
Found program helpful	7	10
Preferred regular class	22	11
Total	29	21

The relationship between parental interest in education and the respondents' efforts in school is shown in Table XXXII. Of the twenty-one students who claimed they had worked hard in class, eighteen, or 85 per cent, had interested parents. On the other hand, among those students who said they had put forth little effort, only sixteen parents, or 55 per cent, had showed concern about the education of their offspring.

TABLE XXXII  
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY SCHOOL WORK HABITS AND  
PARENTAL ATTITUDE TO EDUCATION

Type of Work Habit	Parental Attitude	
	Interested	Indifferent
Worked hard	18	3
No interest	16	13
Total	34	16

Summary: School Record

Few respondents remained in school beyond the legal school leaving age of sixteen years. The length of time a student might remain in school varied directly with parental income. Increased parental education tended to slow down the premature drop-out rate, as did parental interest in the child's schooling. A variety of reasons were given by respondents for quitting school, with dissatisfaction with the institution and its administration heading the list. Length of time spent in the ungraded program varied, with the average stay in such classes being 3.7 years. Intelligence ratings ranged from fifty-five to eighty with an average of sixty-seven and one-half. Success at finding gainful employment was directly proportional to rated level of intelligence. Regularity of school attendance was linked with parental attitude to education, level of income, parental education and family size. Boys expressed a strong preference for the regular class over the ungraded type while the girls were almost equally divided in their choices. Respondents' school work habits were found to be related to parental interest in education, with interested parents stimulating a better effort from their children.

#### IV. WORK INFORMATION

In Section IV, consideration will be given to the respondents' work experience, the relationship between employment and other selected factors, additional training taken since leaving school, present status, attitude to present status, and desire for further training.

The ungraded program offered little to the student in the way of

direct training for employment. With many unskilled jobs being taken over by mechanization and automation, it was the source of some interest and concern to the investigator as to how useful the respondents' education had been in preparing them for life as independent, self-supporting citizens. Statistics relating to steadiness of employment are shown in Table XXXIII.

TABLE XXXIII  
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY SEX AND  
EMPLOYMENT PATTERN

Employment Pattern	Sex	
	Male	Female
Worked steadily	13	8
Worked frequently	7	2
Worked infrequently	8	5
Never worked	1	6
Total	29	21

Thirteen boys, 44 per cent of the total boys, and eight girls, 38 per cent of the total girls, had worked steadily. Working frequently were seven boys, 24 per cent, and two girls, or 9 per cent. Eight boys, 27 per cent of the total boys, were working infrequently as were five girls, 23 per cent of the total girls. The one boy who had never worked was confined to a mental hospital. Six girls had married shortly after leaving school and were considered as never having worked for wages.

The relationship between respondents' employment patterns and

other selected factors is shown in Table XXXIV. Job continuity was, in general, related to the parents' economic status, with the combined percentages of respondents working frequently and infrequently increasing as parental incomes went down. If the father in the family was unemployed, there appeared to be a consistent tendency for his children also to work less steadily. This phenomenon was, of course, related to the decrease in income, as already noted, but it may also have had a connection with the unemployed father's decrease in influence and prestige within the home. Good school work habits carried over into jobs, with 78 per cent of the steadily employed respondents having also put forth a good effort in school.

TABLE XXXIV

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY RELATIONSHIPS AMONG  
EMPLOYMENT PATTERNS AND OTHER SELECTED FACTORS

Selected Factor	Employment Pattern		
	Steady	Frequent	Infrequent
Parents comfortable financially	67	33	00
Parents poor	60	10	30
Parents on welfare	17	24	59
Father unemployed	14	33	53
Good school work habits	78	4	18

Since the ungraded program provided little in the way of direct training for employment, a few respondents had attempted to improve their status by taking additional courses after leaving school. Some

of the forms taken by this extra study are listed in Table XXXV. Typing and filing, barbering, and auto-body repair, respectively, were each taken by two respondents. Two had enrolled in the up-grading course in an effort to gain sufficient academic credits to take further technical training. One boy had attempted an electrical course by correspondence while another had taken further instruction in reading. In-service training in a factory and in a dental laboratory had provided extra skills for two girls, while a third had enrolled in a hair-dressing course. One boy had received some instruction in upholstering. However, the majority, twenty-one boys and fifteen girls had done little to up-grade their qualifications for employment.

TABLE XXXV  
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY SEX AND  
TRAINING SINCE LEAVING SCHOOL

Type of Training	Sex	
	Male	Female
Electrical (correspondence)	1	
Up-grading*	1	1
Auto-body	2	
Barbering	2	
Typing, filing		2
Reading course	1	
Factory (in-service)		1
Upholstery	1	
Dental laboratory		1
Hairdressing		1
No further training	21	15
Total	29	21

\* A course sponsored by the Manitoba government to provide sufficient grounding in the basic academic subjects to qualify the student for apprenticeship or entry into a business or technical course.



The status of the various respondents at the time of the study is indicated in Table XXXVI. One boy had been committed to a mental hospital and one girl had been placed in the Manitoba Home for Mental Defectives. Seven girls were married and two were living common-law. Two boys were in jail. Seven boys and six girls were unemployed. Of the remaining twenty-four respondents, six boys and two girls were working at semi-skilled jobs while the balance, thirteen boys and three girls were employed in unskilled occupations.

TABLE XXXVI  
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY SEX AND  
PRESENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS

Present Status	Sex	
	Male	Female
Not working, married (girls only)		7
Trucker, self-employed	1	
Barber	2	
In jail	2	
Stenographer		1
Living common-law (girls only)		2
Fruit and vegetable packer	1	
Worker, dry cleaning plant	1	1
Warehouseman	1	
Nurse's aid		1
Unemployed	7	6
Tinsmith's helper	2	
Factory worker	4	
In mental hospital	1	
Parts man	1	
Hospital kitchen helper		1
Porter	1	
Car wash, wiper	1	
Cold storage packer	1	
Labourer	1	
Portage Home for Mental Defectives		1
Parceller		1
Auto-body mechanic	2	
Total	29	21

Since Table XXXVI revealed a variety of different situations among the respondents, Table XXXVII was compiled in an effort to assess personal satisfaction or dissatisfaction with these conditions. A further objective was to try to relate a desire for further training to the respondents' present status. Twenty-nine individuals or 63 per cent of the total reporting, claimed they were satisfied as they were and only three expressed any desire for further training. Among the 37 per cent who claimed they were dissatisfied, only eight, or 47 per cent, believed further training would offer any solution to their problems.

TABLE XXXVII  
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY  
ATTITUDE TO PRESENT STATUS

Attitude to Present Status	Frequency
Satisfied, would desire further training	3
Satisfied, no desire for further training	26
Dissatisfied, would desire further training	8
Dissatisfied, no desire for further training	9
Not reported	4
Total	50

Some of the apparent indifference to further training could be seen as related to the reasons for leaving school expressed in Table XXVI (p. 70). For most respondents, the formal educational experience had not been a particularly happy one and there might be, therefore, an understandable reluctance to embark on more of the same.

Summary: Work Information

Continuity of paid employment since leaving school ranged from steady employment to chronic unemployment. Relationships appeared to exist between continuity of employment and the parents' financial status. Whether or not the father was working also seemed to have an influence on the steadiness of the respondents' work, perhaps extending beyond the financial aspect. Good school work habits tended to persevere into employment. Only a minority of students had taken any additional training since leaving school. Present employment status varied. About half the respondents were working, with a majority of these in the unskilled occupations. A number of individuals expressed dissatisfaction with their present status but relatively few saw further training as offering any solution to the problem.

## CHAPTER IV

### SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In Chapter IV, the study will be summarized and findings presented. Tentative conclusions will be drawn. Finally, certain recommendations relevant to the investigation will be made.

#### I. SUMMARY OF THE INVESTIGATION

In general terms, the purpose of the investigation was to attempt to discover in the interaction between the educable retardate's environment and his personal characteristics, any elements that might be used to improve his general functioning.

Respondents comprised twenty-nine boys and twenty-one girls who had attended ungraded classes in two Winnipeg junior high schools in the period between September 1947 and June 1962. Certain basic information was first obtained from a survey of school records and this was later amplified by personal interviews with respondents and their parents. An interview schedule was used.

For the most part, respondents' replies and other data were used in the raw form. After collection, they were first organized into large, comprehensive tables. These were later broken down into a series of smaller tables, showing relationships between various factors in the study.

An examination was made of the related literature to gain some insight into the thinking of the authorities with special reference to

four areas of the retardate's functioning: personal, home, school, and work.

## II. FINDINGS OF THE INVESTIGATION

The investigation set out to find an answer to three questions:

1. What relationships appear to exist between selected aspects of the educable retardate's home environment and certain school and work experiences?
2. What relationships appear to exist between the educable retardate's personal characteristics and certain school and work experiences?
3. What relationships appear to exist between selected aspects of the educable retardate's school record and his work experiences?

When the final analysis of the data was made, answers to these questions did not immediately emerge in clear focus. Rather they were implicit in a series of overlapping relationships and inter-relationships among a number of factors, six of which assumed a position of relatively greater importance. They were: parents' financial status, steadiness of the father's employment, parents' education, family mobility, parents' occupation or occupations, and, finally, parents' attitude to the education of their children. The foregoing factors were related to the greatest number of variables and since they appeared to be modifiable, at least in a long range view, they may give some hope for ultimate change and improvement. Since the sample was small, findings should be regarded as suggestive, rather than conclusive.

Parents' financial status appeared to have the widest range of

influence. Relationships were found with the following variables: respondents' court records, respondents' marital status, school leaving age, regularity of school attendance, respondents' general health, respondents' pattern of employment, size of parents' family, parents' attitude to education, number of educationally retarded siblings, and family mobility.

Closely related to the parents' financial status were the parents' occupation or occupations, and the steadiness of the father's employment. The former was found to be connected with the parents' attitude to education, and with the respondent's school attendance. The latter was relevant to the respondent's employment pattern, and to his tendency to have a court record.

The degree of family mobility was found to have some bearing on the parents' attitude to education and the respondents' school attendance, as well as on his school work habits.

Parents' educational level appeared to influence the age at which the respondent might quit school, and to be in turn related to both parental attitude toward education, and to the regularity of the respondents' school attendance.

Parental interest in education sets the tone of much of the respondents' relationship with the school. It has already been indicated that this interest bears a connection with the parents' economic status, the parents' occupation, and the families' mobility. Parental attitude to education also appeared to influence the respondents' work habits in school, as well as the regularity of his school attendance.

The foregoing paragraphs provide a general picture of the

interaction between the retardate's environment and his personal characteristics. More specific attention will now be directed to the three questions posed at the beginning of the section.

The first question was concerned with relationships between the home and the respondent's performance at school and at work. At the outset, it would appear that an inadequate financial base was one fundamental aspect of the problem in many cases. When family incomes rose above the subsistence level, parental interest in education tended to increase, school attendance improved, the premature drop-out rate was lowered, school progress was better, there was less illness, and fewer children required special education in ungraded classes. When incomes were adequate, family mobility tended to decrease with a consequent improvement in student effort, school attendance, and parental interest in education. Parental interest in education also tended to be greater when parents themselves had received more formal schooling, and there were dividends in the form of better student work habits, more regular attendance, and fewer premature drop-outs.

A satisfactory answer to the second question was not forthcoming. Some personal information was discarded as invalid, and much of the remainder did not relate specifically either to the respondent's progress at school or at work. A relationship was found, however, between irregular school attendance and the tendency to have a court record. This applied only to the male respondents. Ability to find regular employment was also noted to be directly related to rated level of intelligence, although some girls at the upper end of the scale had chosen marriage in preference to a job.

Some of the answers to the third question are implicit in the answers suggested to the first. Good work habits established in school tended to persevere into employment. Attitudes of despair and defeat also tended to carry over and apparently discouraged many from attempting further study or training.

In general, there appeared also to be some evidence that the ungraded system might be falling short of its objectives. Symptoms of dissatisfaction were inherent in the reported school leaving ages, in the reasons given for leaving school, as well as in the respondents' reported attitude to the program.

### III. CONCLUSIONS

Since the study sample was small, the following conclusions are tentative:

Much more research on the retarded child remains to be done. More precise definitions need to be established (cf. pp. 7 ff.). Causes of retardation are far from being fully understood. Data are lacking on the relative merits of various types of educational programs for the slow-learning child.

Some of the basic problems in retardation would seem to be related to the parents' economic status, which in turn was related to continuity of employment and choice of occupations. It would appear that any long range solutions would have to start at this level. The remarks of Featherstone, Robinson and Robinson, et al. (cf. pp. 26 ff.) appear in agreement with this contention.



Education geared to the special needs of the retardate may be one of the factors that could bring about change over a long period of time. Findings appeared to indicate that the ungraded class, as operated at the time of the study, was not fully meeting the challenge.

#### IV. RECOMMENDATIONS

Stevens, and also Robinson and Robinson (cf. p. 36 ), believe that isolating the retardate in a special class is the best way of furthering his education. If this is to be the method of choice, and there are proponents of other systems, it is important to keep certain things in mind. A clear-cut departure must be made from the present watered-down academic curriculum and one must be devised that is more in keeping with the characteristics of the retarded child. Suggestions for improvement are included in Chapter II (p. 30 , ff.). Efforts should be made to attract teachers with warmth and understanding for this type of youngster and their skills sharpened by special training. Classes, as far as possible, should be provided in neighbourhood schools to avoid dislocation of the child from his home area and friends.

There is need for experimentation with new approaches to the problem of instruction for the slow-learning youngster. The non-graded class has been suggested. In this type of class, the retardate remains, as far as possible, with normal children in his own age group and proceeds at his own pace on his own individual program. This system avoids an artificial segregation with the problems of pernicious labelling. It also gives the retardate the stimulus of association with a heterogeneous group, and provides him with a more realistic

concept of himself in relation to the general school population.

A special effort should be made to locate the child with learning difficulties at the earliest possible moment, and to stream him into programs geared to his needs. If this can be done before the pattern of repeated failure becomes established, there is a much better hope of developing fully the retardate's limited abilities.

A much closer and continuous liaison should be established between the school and industry. When the school is aware of the changing demands in the labour market, it can more intelligently educate to fit this demand. Similarly, if the employer is aware of some of the special things the retardate does well, he may be able to absorb a number of these individuals into his operation (cf. Laycock, p. 34). Syden's suggestion (p. 35) of on-the-job training as part of the normal school program, is worthy of consideration. Financial need frequently forces many poorer students to quit school prematurely (Table XXIII, p. 67). A small training allowance may be the means of keeping the child in school, as well as enhancing his self-esteem.

More junior technical schools, such as the R. B. Russell, should be established. Few educable retarded students are able to acquire sufficient academic credits to allow them to enter the regular trade schools but they are able to acquire a moderate degree of skill in some trades with the proper type of training.

The trend towards adult education and retraining of workers for new jobs should be encouraged. Wolfensberger (p. 38) believes this upgrading is the key to providing jobs for the retardate in the age of automation. Since relationships between poverty and retardation have

already been noted above (cf. Robinson and Robinson, et al., p. 27, ff.), the up-grading of parents' training and skills may also decrease the incidence of the problem.

Although Table XIII (p. 57) suggests little acute illness in the group, the literature indicates there may be far-reaching effects from chronic illnesses and defects (cf. Weber, Baker, et al., p. 14, ff.). Improvement in parents' financial status would, no doubt, bring about some improvements in this regard, but a more concentrated effort on the part of medical, public health, and welfare personnel might also be of value.

Findings appeared to indicate that lack of adequate income was a root cause of many of the problems associated with retardation (cf. p. 83, ff.). Unless a better solution can be found than the present doling out of welfare, little permanent improvement can be expected. Increased education and re-training will help some. For those who must, at least for the present, receive direct financial aid, concepts such as the guaranteed annual wage or extended unemployment insurance benefits may be worthy of consideration.

Sarason (p. 26), Kershaw (p. 29), and Doll (p. 41) suggest that cultural deprivation and a lack of environmental stimulation may produce a pseudo-retardation. An effort to counteract these conditions is being made by the "Higher Horizons" and "Headstart" programs, as well as by nursery schools. Nursery schools and the "Headstart" concept try to compensate for cultural deficiencies by providing stimulation and enrichment before the child begins kindergarten. "Higher Horizons" continues the same idea through the elementary and junior high school

by exposing students to music, art, the theatre, and other educational experiences which would not normally be available to them.

In summary, perhaps no more apt statement can be found than the words of Dr. Elise H. Martens and others:

The basic philosophy underlying the education of retarded children is no different from that recognized for all children; the fundamental aim of all education is to teach children to live wisely and well in the environment in which they find themselves.<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>E. H. Martens, et al., "Twenty-Five Years of Progress in Education at the Woods Schools," Journal of Exceptional Children, Vol. VI, No. 3 (Dec. 1939), pp. 83-90.

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APPENDIX A

TABLE XXXVIII

## MALE RESPONDENTS' PERSONAL RECORD

Case	Age	Religion	Personal Adjustment		Police Record		Hobbies	
			Good	Poor	Yes	No	Many	Few
B1	25	Ukr. C.	x			x		x
B2	21	R. C.	x		x			x
B3	19	R. C.	x			x		x
B4	21	Ukr. C.		x	x			x
B5	20	Lutheran	x			x	x	
B6	22	R. C.	x			x		x
B7	19	R. C.	x			x		x
B8	19	R. C.	x			x		x
B9	22	Ukr. C.	x			x		x
B10	22	R. C.		x		x		x
B11	19	Ukr. C.	x			x		x
B12	19	R. C.	x		x			x
B13	21	Anglican		x		x		x
B14	20	R. C.		x		x	x	
B15	19	Lutheran		x	x			x
B16	21	Lutheran		x		x		x
B17	22	R. C.		x		x		x
B18	19	R. C.		x		x	x	
B19	23	Anglican	x			x		x
B20	20	Gosp. Miss.		x	x			x
B21	26	Polish C.	x		x			x
B22	18	R. C.		x		x		x
B23	21	R. C.	x			x		x
B24	20	R. C.		x	x			x
B25	18	R. C.		x		x		x
B26	18	R. C.		x		x		x
B27	20	R. C.		x	x			x
B28	18	R. C.		x		x		x
B29	23	R. C.		x	x			x

TABLE XXXVIII  
(CONTINUED)

MALE RESPONDENTS' PERSONAL RECORD

Case	Marital Status	Happy With Present Status		Present Status
		Yes	No	
B1	M	x		Trucker (self-employed)
B2	M	x		Auto-body repair
B3	S	x		Barber
B4	S		x	In jail
B5	S	x		Assembly-brass factory
B6	S	x		Fruit and vegetable packer
B7	S		x	Truck driver
B8	S	x		Assembly-brass factory
B9	S	x		Barber
B10	S	x		Warehouseman
B11	S		x	Unemployed
B12	S		x	In jail
B13	S		x	Tinsmith's helper
B14	S	x		Cabinet factory helper
B15	M		x	Auto-body repair
B16	S		x	Inmate, Mental Hospital
B17	M		x	Parts man
B18	S	x		Packer, candy factory
B19	S	x		Porter
B20	M		x	Unemployed
B21	M		x	Wiper, car wash
B22	S	x		Packer, cold storage
B23	M	x		Helper, sheet metal
B24	S		x	Unemployed
B25	S		x	Unemployed
B26	S	x		Welder
B27	S	x		Unemployed
B28	S		x	Unemployed
B29	S		x	Unemployed

TABLE XXXIX

## FEMALE RESPONDENTS' PERSONAL RECORD

Case	Age	Religion	Personal Adjustment		Police Record		Hobbies	
			Good	Poor	Yes	No	Many	Few
G1	19	R. C.		x	x			x
G2	20	Ukr. C.	x			x		x
G3	19	R. C.	x			x		x
G4	20	R. C.	x			x		x
G5	21	R. C.	x			x		x
G6	22	R. C.	x			x		x
G7	19	R. C.		x		x		x
G8	19	R. C.		x	x			x
G9	22	Anglican		x		x		x
G10	23	Ukr. C.	x		x		x	
G11	20	R. C.	x		x		x	
G12	22	R. C.	x			x		x
G13	19	R. C.	x			x		x
G14	21	United		x		x		x
G15	21	R. C.		x	x			x
G16	22	Pentecostal		x		x		x
G17	21	Pentecostal		x		x		x
G18	22	United		x		x		x
G19	22	Baptist		x		x	x	
G20	20	Ukr. C.		x		x		x
G21	19	R. C.		x	x			x

TABLE XXXIX  
(CONTINUED)

FEMALE RESPONDENTS' PERSONAL RECORD

Case	Marital Status	Happy With Present Status		Present Status
		Yes	No	
G1	M	x		Happily married
G2	S		x	Stenographer
G3	S		x	Unemployed
G4	S	x		Unemployed
G5	M	x		Happily married
G6	M	x		Happily married
G7	M	x		Happily married
G8	C/L		x	Living common-law
G9	S		x	Unemployed
G10	S	x		Nurse's aid
G11	S	x		Unemployed
G12	S	x		Unemployed
G13	M	x		Happily married
G14	S	x		Parceller
G15	C/L		x	Living common-law
G16	M	x		Happily married
G17	S		x	Presser, dry cleaners
G18	M	x		Happily married
G19	S	x		Kitchen helper, hospital
G20	S		x	Unemployed
G21	M		x	Home for Mental Defectives

TABLE XL

## MALE RESPONDENTS' HOME INFORMATION

Case	Marital Status of Parents				Educ. of Parents (Grade)		Parents' Attitude to Educ.		Parents' Income Level				Moves in Ten Years	No. of Sibs.
	Together	Separated	Divorced	Deceased	Father	Mother	Interested	Indifferent	Welfare	Poor	Comfortable	Well-to-do		
B1	x				8	4	x				x		1	4
B2	x				6	0		x	x				2	10
B3	x				2	2	x						1	2
B4		x			7	8	x			x			0	2
B5	x				8	8	x				x		1	6
B6	x				6	5	x			x			1	3
B7	x				8	8	x				x		0	2
B8	x				0	0	x			x			1	3
B9	x				0	10	x				x		3	0
B10	x				2	5	x			x			0	4
B11	x				3	5	x				x		0	1
B12				x	4	13	x			x			0	5
B13		x			10	4	x			x			0	4
B14	x				2	3	x				x		1	2
B15		x			8	8		x		x			2	10
B16	x				8	4	x		x				0	2
B17	x				3	0	x			x			0	4
B18		x			8	0	x			x			1	6
B19				x	8	12	x			x			0	4
B20				x	12	2		x	x				5	9
B21	x				0	7	x			x			0	8
B22	x				7	10	x			x			1	6
B23	x				10	9	x				x		2	2
B24	x				9	4		x		x			5	9
B25	x				9	4		x		x			5	9
B26	x				8	7	x			x			2	5
B27	x				9	4		x	x				5	9
B28	x				8	3		x	x				4	8
B29	x				9	4		x	x				5	9

TABLE XL  
(CONTINUED)

MALE RESPONDENTS' HOME INFORMATION

Case	School Progress of Siblings	Sibs. in Spec. Educ.	Housing		Parents' Occupations	
			<u>Good</u>	<u>Poor</u>	<u>Father</u>	<u>Mother</u>
B1	Good	0	x		Trucker	Bookkeeper
B2	Poor	1		x	Unemployed	Housewife
B3	Good	0	x		Supply clerk	Housewife
B4	Good	0		x	Plumber	Housewife
B5	Good	0	x		Zoo keeper	Housewife
B6	Good	0		x	Labourer	Housewife
B7	Poor	1	x		Bldg. Mn'tce.	Laundress
B8	Good	0	x		Labourer	Housewife
B9	N/A	N/A	x		Garbage Coll.	Kitchen help
B10	Poor	2		x	Yard man	Packer
B11	Good	0	x		Porter	Housewife
B12	Good	0	x		Milkman	Deceased
B13	Good	0		x	Custodian	Clerk
B14	Good	0	x		Dish washer	Baker's helper
B15	Good	0	x		Cleaner	Not known
B16	Good	0		x	Unemployed	Housewife
B17	Poor	2		x	Steel worker	Clerk
B18	Poor	1	x		Stat.Engineer	Not known
B19	Good	0		x	Deceased	Machine operator
B20	Poor	2		x	Unemployed	Deceased
B21	Good	0		x	Taxi driver	Housewife
B22	Good	1		x	Mn'tce. man	Housewife
B23	Poor	1	x		Prison guard	Presser
B24	Poor	4		x	Labourer	Housewife
B25	Poor	4		x	Labourer	Housewife
B26	Poor	1		x	Truck driver	Seamstress
B27	Poor	4		x	Unemployed	Housewife
B28	Poor	3		x	Unemployed	Housewife
B29	Poor	4		x	Unemployed	Housewife



TABLE XLI

## FEMALE RESPONDENTS' HOME INFORMATION

Case	Marital Status of Parents				Educ. of Parents (Grade)		Parents' Attitude to Educ.		Parents' Income Level				Moves in Ten Years	No. of Sibs.
	Together	Separated	Divorced	Deceased	Father	Mother	Interested	Indifferent	Welfare	Poor	Comfortable	Well-to-do		
G1	x				6	0	x		x				6	5
G2	x				6	7	x			x			0	5
G3	x				4	4		x	x				3	9
G4	x				4	4			x				3	9
G5	x				4	4			x				3	9
G6	x				0	6			x				10	12
G7	x				6	6	x				x		1	4
G8	x				0	6		x	x				10	12
G9	x				5	8	x			x			0	9
G10	x				10	11	x				x		0	0
G11	x				3	4	x		x				1	14
G12	x				3	4	x		x				1	14
G13	x				5	7	x			x			0	4
G14	x				9	8	x					x	0	1
G15		x			5	8		x		x			0	2
G16	x				8	6	x					x	0	1
G17	x				8	6	x					x	0	1
G18			x		10	6	x				x		0	4
G19	x				9	9	x			x			0	2
G20	x				4	4		x		x			1	3
G21	x				4	3		x	x				4	4

TABLE XLI  
(CONTINUED)

FEMALE RESPONDENTS' HOME INFORMATION

Case	School Progress of Siblings	Sibs. in Spec. Educ.	Housing		Parents' Occupations	
			<u>Good</u>	<u>Poor</u>	<u>Father</u>	<u>Mother</u>
G1	Poor	2		x	Unemployed	Housewife
G2	Good	0		x	Labourer	Housewife
G3	Poor	3		x	Unemployed	Housewife
G4	Poor	3		x	Unemployed	Housewife
G5	Poor	3		x	Unemployed	Housewife
G6	Poor	2		x	Unemployed	Housewife
G7	Good	0	x		Caretaker	Caretaker
G8	Poor	2		x	Unemployed	Housewife
G9	Good	0		x	Trainman	Cleaner
G10	N/A	N/A	x		Fireman	Housewife
G11	Good	1		x	Unemployed	Housewife
G12	Good	1		x	Unemployed	Housewife
G13	Poor	1		x	Machine oper.	Housewife
G14	Good	0	x		Baker	Sales clerk
G15	Poor	0		x	Porter	Not known
G16	Poor	1	x		Unemployed	Cashier
G17	Poor	1	x		Unemployed	Cashier
G18	Good	0	x		Labourer	Housewife
G19	Good	0	x		Mail sorter	Housewife
G20	Good	0	x		Salesman	Housewife
G21	Poor	1		x	Unemployed	Housewife

TABLE XLII  
 MALE RESPONDENTS' SCHOOL RECORD

Case	School Leaving Age	Years Out of School	Training Since Leaving School	Desire for Further Training	Psych. Assess.	Years in Program
B1	18	7	Electrical	No	Wisc.73	2
B2	16	5	Auto-body	Yes	Wisc.75	3
B3	15	4	Barbering	Yes	Wisc.76	2
B4	15	6	None	No	S.B.55	7
B5	17	3	None	No	Wisc.75	2
B6	15	7	None	No	--	2
B7	14	5	None	Yes	Wisc.80	2.5
B8	15	4	None	No	--	4
B9	17	5	Barbering	No	Wisc.62	2
B10	15	7	None	No	Wisc.77	6
B11	15	3	None	Yes	Wisc.64	7
B12	14	5	None	No	--	6
B13	16	5	Reading	Yes	Wisc.70	3
B14	16	4	Auto-body	No	Wisc.75	2
B15	15	4	None	Yes	S.B.68	3.5
B16	14	7	None	No	S.B.57	1
B17	14	8	Up-grading	Yes	Wisc.70	6
B18	16	3	None	No	Wisc.75	4
B19	18	5	None	No	Wisc.75	4
B20	16	4	Tailoring	Yes	Wisc.75	1.5
B21	15	11	None	No	S.B.63	4
B22	14	4	None	No	--	4
B23	16	5	None	No	Wisc.71	4
B24	14	6	None	No	Wisc.71	2
B25	18	3	None	No	--	3
B26	16	3	None	No	--	3
B27	15	3	None	No	Wisc.77	4
B28	15	3	None	No	S.B.63	3
B29	16	7	None	No	--	4

TABLE XLII  
(CONTINUED)

MALE RESPONDENTS' SCHOOL RECORD

Case	Attendance			Health Good		Program Helped		Diffic. Began Grade	Worked Hard	
	Reg.	Irreg.	Very Irr.	Yes	No	Yes	No		Yes	No
B1	x			x		x		5	x	
B2	x			x		x		4		x
B3	x			x			x	6	x	
B4			x		x		x	1		x
B5	x			x		x		4	x	
B6	x			x			x	5	x	
B7	x			x			x	1		x
B8	x			x			x	1	x	
B9	x			x			x	4	x	
B10	x			x			x	1	x	
B11	x			x			x	3		x
B12		x		x			x	1		x
B13	x			x			x	1		x
B14	x			x			x	5		x
B15	x			x			x	3	x	
B16	x				x	x		1		x
B17	x			x			x	2		x
B18	x			x			x	2		x
B19	x			x		x		1	x	
B20		x		x			x	3		x
B21	x			x		x		1		x
B22	x			x			x	1		x
B23	x			x			x	1	x	
B24	x			x			x	1	x	
B25		x		x			x	1		x
B26	x			x		x		1	x	
B27		x		x			x	1		x
B28		x		x			x	1		x
B29		x		x			x	1		x

TABLE XLII  
(CONTINUED)

MALE RESPONDENTS' SCHOOL RECORD

Case	Reason for Leaving School
B1	Lack of interest
B2	No progress
B3	Repetition of program, no help from teacher
B4	Too big for class, couldn't learn
B5	Hated school, wanted to work
B6	Couldn't study because of father's drinking
B7	Psychiatric problems
B8	No promotions, lost interest
B9	Too old and too big for rest of class
B10	Trouble with other boys, no progress
B11	Felt not being taught anything
B12	Trouble with other boys, no progress
B13	No progress, wanted to go to work
B14	No progress, wanted to go to work
B15	No progress, repetition of work
B16	Illness
B17	Automatic pass, no progress
B18	No progress
B19	Older than others in class
B20	Repeated failures
B21	Hated school, needed at home
B22	Hated physical education, wanted to work
B23	No progress
B24	Hated school, no help from teachers
B25	No progress
B26	No progress, couldn't learn
B27	No progress
B28	No progress
B29	No progress

TABLE XLIII

## FEMALE RESPONDENTS' SCHOOL RECORD

Case	School Leaving Age	Years Out of School	Training Since Leaving School	Desire for Further Training	Psych. Assess.	Years in Program
G1	13	7	Up-grading	No	S.B. 71	2
G2	15	5	Typing	No	Wisc.70	3
G3	16	4	None	Yes	S.B. 70	5
G4	14	5	None	No	Wisc.62	7
G5	16	5	None	No	Wisc.74	6
G6	16	6	None	No	--	6
G7	15	6	None	No	Wisc.80	1
G8	15	4	None	No	Wisc.78	5
G9	14	10	None	No	Wisc.59	5
G10	17	6	Dental Lab.	No	Wisc.70	4
G11	16	5	None	No	--	1
G12	16	6	None	No	Wisc.80	2
G13	16	3	None	No	Wisc.64	3
G14	16	5	None	No	Wisc.78	3
G15	14	7	None	No	Wisc.66	2
G16	16	6	None	No	Wisc.70	6
G17	16	6	Hairdressing	Yes	--	6
G18	16	6	Typing	No	--	4
G19	19	3	None	No	Wisc.64	6
G20	16	4	None	Yes	Wisc.67	4
G21	16	3	None	No	Wisc.57	3

TABLE XLIII  
(CONTINUED)

FEMALE RESPONDENTS' SCHOOL RECORD

Case	Attendance			Health Good		Program Helped		Diffic. Began Grade	Worked Hard	
	Reg.	Irreg.	Very Irr.	Yes	No	Yes	No		Yes	No
G1	x			x			x	2	x	
G2	x			x			x	2		x
G3		x		x			x	3		x
G4		x			x	x		1		x
G5			x		x	x		1		x
G6		x		x			x	1		x
G7	x			x			x	1		x
G8		x			x	x		1		x
G9		x		x			x	1		x
G10	x			x		x		1	x	
G11	x			x		x		6	x	
G12	x			x			x	5	x	
G13		x			x	x		1	x	
G14	x			x		x		1	x	
G15	x			x		x		1		x
G16		x		x			x	1		x
G17		x		x			x	1		x
G18	x			x			x	4	x	
G19	x			x		x		4	x	
G20		x		x			x	1	x	
G21		x		x		x		1		x

TABLE XLIII  
(CONTINUED)

FEMALE RESPONDENTS' SCHOOL RECORD

Case	Reason for Leaving School
G1	Couldn't learn, no money
G2	No progress, repetition of program
G3	No progress, teacher often out of room
G4	No progress, health reasons
G5	Fed up, automatic promotions
G6	Trouble with teacher
G7	Embarrassed with other girls, hated teacher
G8	Wouldn't attend, ran away
G9	Epilepsy
G10	No interest in school
G11	Committed to training school
G12	Placed in ungraded against will
G13	Pregnant
G14	No progress, wanted to work
G15	No interest
G16	Home trouble, trouble with teacher
G17	Upset home, couldn't learn
G18	Couldn't learn
G19	Older than class, offered work
G20	No progress, rejected by peers
G21	Pregnant



TABLE XLIV

## MALE RESPONDENTS' WORK RECORD

Case	Types of Employment
B1	Bottle checker, factory labour, trucker
B2	Labourer, yard man, auto-body helper
B3	Cleaner, plumber's helper, barber
B4	Section hand, truck driver's helper
B5	Wiper, car wash; assembler, brass factory
B6	Fruit packer, construction labour
B7	Screen painter, kitchen helper, presser
B8	Kitchen helper, shipper
B9	Barber
B10	Truck driver's helper, foundry labour, warehouseman
B11	Truck driver's helper
B12	Bell hop
B13	Telegraph delivery, kitchen helper, tinsmith's helper
B14	Gas pump operator, cabinet maker's helper
B15	Presser, machine operator, sander
B16	--
B17	Stores man, bottle sorter
B18	Machine operator, telegraph delivery, bagger
B19	Presser, porter
B20	Packer, labour, machine operator
B21	Trucker, car wash wiper
B22	Cold storage packer
B23	Driver's helper, bottle sorter, tinsmith's helper
B24	Hide shaker
B25	Hide shaker
B26	Factory labour, lighting fixture welder
B27	Hide shaker
B28	Hide shaker
B29	Labour

TABLE XLIV  
(CONTINUED)

MALE RESPONDENTS' WORK RECORD

Case	Hourly Wage	Constancy of Employment			
		Steady	Frequent	Infrequent	Never
B1	\$ .85	x			
B2	\$1.65 - \$1.75	x			
B3	\$1.25	x			
B4	\$1.27			x	
B5	\$ .75 - \$1.00		x		
B6	\$ .75 - \$1.85	x			
B7	\$ .75 - \$1.15		x		
B8	\$ .75 - \$1.10	x			
B9	?	x			
B10	\$1.00 - \$1.75	x			
B11	\$1.25		x		
B12	\$ .75			x	
B13	\$ .75 - \$1.75		x		
B14	\$1.00 - \$1.35		x		
B15	\$ .75 - \$1.25	x			
B16	---				x
B17	\$ .75		x		
B18	\$ .75 - \$1.40			x	
B19	\$ .75	x			
B20	\$ .80 - \$1.80		x		
B21	\$ .80 - \$1.35	x			
B22	\$1.20	x			
B23	\$ .80 - \$1.25	x			
B24	\$ .75			x	
B25	\$ .75			x	
B26	\$ .80 - \$1.15	x			
B27	\$ .75			x	
B28	\$ .75			x	
B29	\$ .85			x	

TABLE XLV

## FEMALE RESPONDENTS' WORK RECORD

Case	Types of Employment
G1	Sewing machine operator, shipper
G2	Stenographer, filing clerk
G3	Sewing machine operator, nut packer
G4	Nut packer
G5	Glove sewer, nut packer
G6	Farm worker
G7	Clothing pleater
G8	--
G9	--
G10	Dental lab. clerk, nurse's aid
G11	Packer, nurse's aid, kitchen helper
G12	Sewing machine operator, candy packer
G13	--
G14	Packer, parceller
G15	--
G16	--
G17	Tea packer, mail order parceller, chamber maid
G18	Counter girl, store clerk
G19	Kitchen help
G20	Sewing machine operator, baby-sitter
G21	--

TABLE XLV  
(CONTINUED)

FEMALE RESPONDENTS' WORK RECORD

Case	Hourly Wage	Constancy of Employment			
		Steady	Frequent	Infrequent	Never
G1	\$ .75 - \$1.00		x		
G2	\$1.00	x			
G3	\$ .75 - \$1.00		x		
G4	\$ .75			x	
G5	\$ .75 - \$1.00			x	
G6	?			x	
G7	\$ .90	x			
G8	---				x
G9	---				x
G10	\$ .75 - \$1.10	x			
G11	\$ .75 - \$1.25	x			
G12	\$ .75 - \$1.00			x	
G13	---				x
G14	\$ .75 - \$1.10	x			
G15	---				x
G16	---				x
G17	\$ .75 - \$1.00	x			
G18	\$ .80 - \$1.00	x			
G19	\$1.00	x			
G20	\$ .75			x	
G21	---				x

APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW GUIDE SHEET

NAME: ADDRESS: PHONE:  
 BIRTHDATE: LAST SCHOOL ATTENDED:  
 RELIGIOUS AFFILIATION: NOMINAL: ACTIVE:

PERSONAL INFORMATION:

## PERSONAL ADJUSTMENT:

Well adjusted:  
 Excessively timid:  
 Very aggressive:  
 Ability to make friends:  
 Interests and hobbies:

## COURT OR POLICE RECORD:

## MARITAL STATUS:

HOME INFORMATION:

## PARENTS:

Marital status:  
 Education: Father: Mother:  
 Occupation: Father: Mother:  
 Attitude to Child's Education: Interested: Indifferent:  
 Economic Status: Welfare: Poor: Comfortable: Well-to-do:

## FAMILY:

Mobility: Moves in Past Ten Years:  
 Number of Siblings:  
 Progress of Siblings in School:  
 No. of Siblings in Special Education:  
 Housing:

SCHOOL RECORD:

Date of Leaving School:  
Age When Leaving School:  
Years Out of School:  
Training Since Leaving School:  
Desire for Further Training:  
Psychological Assessment:  
Years in Ungraded Program:  
Attendance: Regular: Irregular:  
Health:  
Attitude to Program: Helped: Preferred Regular Class:  
Difficulties Began: Grade:  
Attitude to School: Worked Hard: No effort:  
Reason for Leaving:

WORK RECORD:

Types of Employment:  
Rates of Pay:  
Constancy of Employment: Steady: Frequent: Infrequent:  
Present Employment Status:  
Feeling About Present Status: